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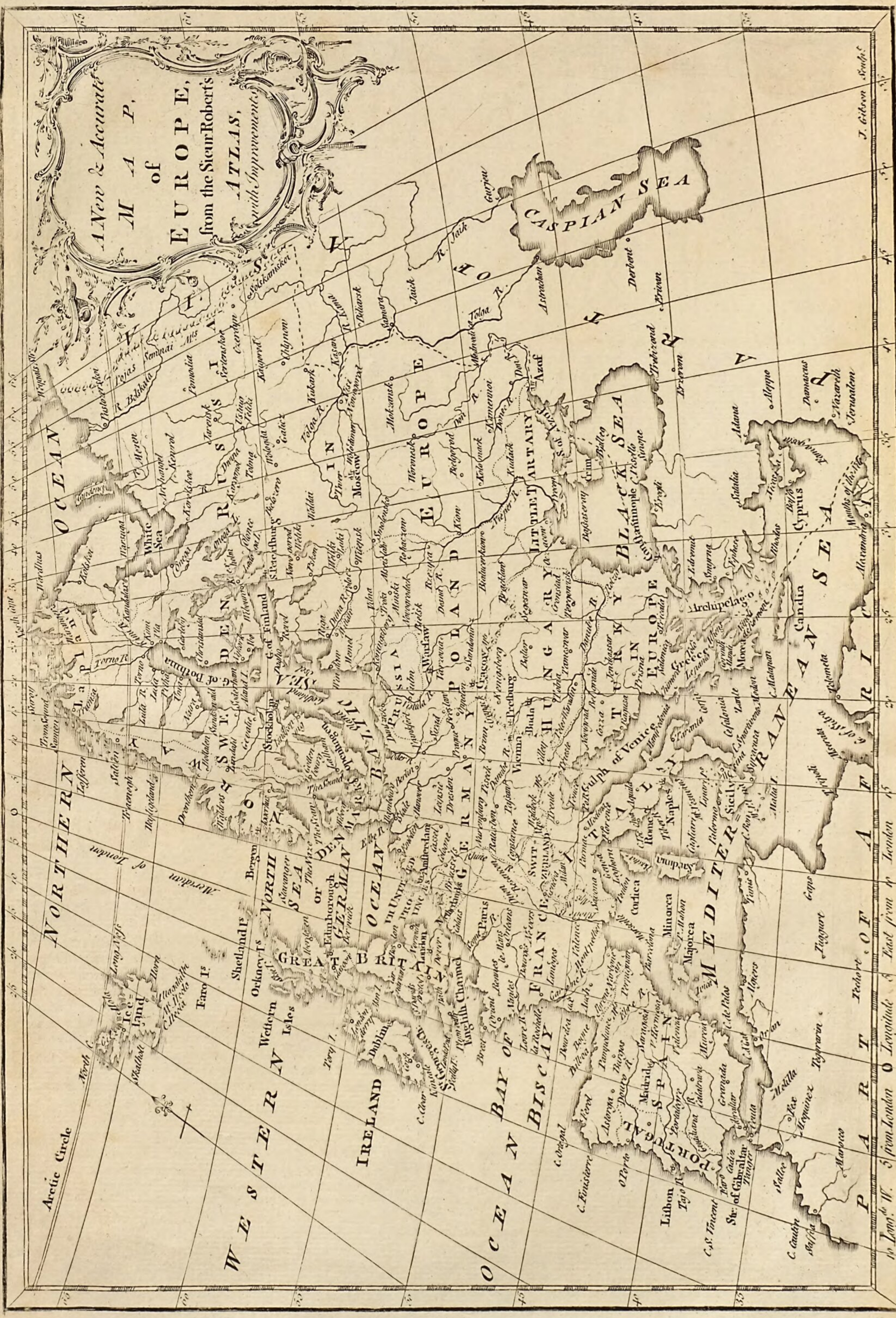
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MDCCLXV.

A New & Accurate
MAP
of
EUROPE,
from the Sieur Robert's
ATLAS,
with Improvements



J. Gidson Sculp.

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A N E W
S Y S T E M
O F
G E O G R A P H Y.

B O O K III.
O F E U R O P E in general.

THIS part of the globe was called Europa by the Romans, as it is still by the Spaniards and Italians, and Europe by the English and French; but the Turks give it the name of Alfrank, or Rumeli, the Georgians of Asia call it Frankoba, and the rest of the people of Asia give it the name of Frankistan. It is bounded on the north by the Frozen sea; on the east by Asia, from which it is parted by the Archipelago, the Euxine or Black sea, and the Palus Mæotis, and thence by a line drawn from the river Tanais, or Don, almost to the river Oby; on the south by the Mediterranean sea, which divides it from Africa; and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean.

This grand division of the earth is situated between the tenth degree west, and the sixty-fifth degree east longitude from London, and between the thirty-sixth and seventy-second degrees of north latitude, extending three thousand miles in length, and two thousand five hundred in breadth.

Though Europe is the least of the four parts into which the earth is divided, it enjoys many advantages. No part of it is in the torrid zone; and though some countries to the north partake of the coldest climate, yet the greatest part of this division enjoys a mild air, and great fertility of soil. It has a multitude of navigable rivers, and abounds in corn, cattle, wine, and oil, at once possessing all the necessaries and most of the luxuries of human life.

Europe has for many ages been exceeding populous, and her inhabitants are distinguished by their valour, wisdom, and virtue; the excellence of their governments, the equity of their laws, the freedom of the subjects, and for the purity and sanctity of their religion.

The Europeans have been the most celebrated for learning and arts. All the scholastic sciences are here brought to much greater perfection than ever they were carried by the Asiatics and Africans; and the invention and improvement of numberless useful and ingenious arts, particularly that of navigation, on which the intercourse with foreign nations, and all the advantages of commerce depends, is entirely owing to the genius and industry of the inhabitants of this part of the earth.

The Christian religion is established throughout every part of Europe, except Turkey; but, from the various capacities of the human mind, and the different lights in which speculative opinions are apt to appear when viewed by persons of different education and passions, that religion is divided into a number of different sects. In Russia, some parts of Poland, in Walachia, Moldavia,

Podolia, Volhinia, and Greece, the doctrine of the eastern or Greek church is established. In Italy, part of Switzerland, Spain, Portugal, France, Poland, part of Germany, and the Netherlands, the inhabitants still follow the doctrines of the church of Rome; while Great Britain, Ireland, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, great part of Germany, the United Provinces, and part of Switzerland, have embraced the doctrines of the Reformation, and profess the Protestant religion.

The languages of Europe are derived from the six following: the Greek, Latin, Teutonic, or Old German, the Celtic, Slavonic, and Gothic. From the different dialects and intermixtures of these, are formed the languages of the most considerable parts of Europe, except that of Turkey and Tartary.

The principal sovereignties, beginning at the east, are the empires of Turkey, Russia, and Germany.

The kingdoms of Poland, Hungary, Bohemia, Prussia, Sweden, Denmark, Naples and Sicily, Sardinia, France, Spain, Portugal, Great Britain and Ireland.

The popedom of Rome.

The republics of Venice, Genoa, Lucca, the Grisons, St. Marino, Switzerland, Geneva, Ragusa, and the United Provinces.

Besides these there are the electorates of Germany, and near three hundred other sovereignties in Germany, Italy, &c. whose professors are either spiritual, as archbishops and bishops, or temporal, as princes, landgraves, dukes, marquises, counts, &c.

Besides these there are the Cham of European Tartary, the hospodars of Walachia, Moldavia, &c.

The principal islands, beginning at the east, are Candia, and those of the Archipelago.

Those in the Adriatic and Ionian sea, viz. Leucadia, which belongs to the Turks and Lefina, Corfu, Cephalonia, and Zant, which are subject to Venice.

In the Mediterranean sea are Sicily, subject to the king of Naples; Sardinia, subject to the king of Sardinia; Corsica, subject to Genoa; Minorca, to Great Britain; Majorca and Ivica, to Spain.

The islands in the Baltic sea are Usedom and Wollin, subject to Prussia; Osel and Dagho, subject to Russia; Gothland, Aland, and Rugen, which belong to Sweden; and Zealand, Funen, Alsen, Longland, Laland, Falster, Mona, and Bornholm, subject to Denmark.

In the North sea is Iceland, subject to Denmark.

And farther to the south are Great Britain and Ireland, with the adjacent islands, subject to his Britannic majesty.

C H A P.

C H A P. I.

OF TURKEY in EUROPE.

S E C T. I.

Its Boundaries, Climate, Divisions, Seas, Straights, and Rivers.

TURKEY in Europe, a part of the antient Christian empire of the East, is at present bounded on the north by Croatia, Sclavonia, and Transylvania; on the east by Poland, Russia, and Asia; on the south by the Mediterranean sea; and on the west by the Adriatic and Dalmatia. The extent is not to be ascertained with any precision.

The air of Turkey in Europe is in itself healthy, but the pestilence is often brought there from Egypt and the neighbouring countries, and has several times swept away above one-fifth of the inhabitants of Constantinople; yet from the prevalence of custom, and of the Turkish doctrine of fatality, they give themselves no great concern about it. The provinces are universally fruitful, though with some difference; whence agriculture and grazing turn to great profit there, prodigious quantities of all kinds of excellent grain and fruit being annually exported. But of this we shall give a particular account in the separate description of each province, only it may be necessary to add here, that all the necessaries of life are equally good and cheap in Turkey.

It contains the following provinces: to the south are the Morea, or Peloponnesus, Achaia, Thessaly, Epirus, Albania, and Macedonia; and towards the north, Romania, Bulgaria, Bessarabia, part of Podolia, Servia, part of Hungary, part of Croatia, Bosnia, and part of Dalmatia.

Its seas are the Euxine or Black sea, the Palus Mæotis, the sea of Marmora, the Archipelago, the Ionian sea, and the Levant.

Its straits are those of the Hellespont and the Bosphorus.

The chief rivers of Turkey in Europe are the Save, the Danube, the Niefter, the Nieper, the Don, and the Theis.

S E C T. II.

Of the Inhabitants of Turkey in Europe, with a more particular Account of the European Turks and Greeks.

WE have already given a very particular account of the persons, dress, manners, and customs of the Turks, in treating of Turkey in Asia, see vol. I. from page 265 to 273; and as the Turks are every where the same, we shall here be very concise, and shall only add some particulars which were there slightly touched upon, and a short summary of some of the most considerable circumstances relating to that people.

The number of its inhabitants has not the least proportion to the extent and fertility of the country, which may be chiefly attributed to pestilence, polygamy, war, and the avarice of the governors.

The inhabitants consist of various nations, as Turks, Greeks, Armenians, Servians, Bosnians, Bulgarians, Walachians, and Tartars; with a considerable number of Jews, especially in Constantinople and Sclavonia.

The Turks are stigmatized by the Christians as a slothful and inhuman people; but they are far from being so wicked and dreadful a set of creatures as popish writers have endeavoured to represent them. Turkey is not without men of parts, probity, and honour; and has many benevolent, liberal, temperate, conversible, and ingenious people. In short, there is here, as in all other countries, a mixture of good and bad. Dricesch maintains, that in compassion and love towards their neigh-

bours, the Turks excel all the rest of mankind; and this assertion is confirmed by several other travellers.

One remarkable instance of their charity may be seen in their hans, called by the Asiatics caravanferas, which are to be found in almost every little village. In these a traveller, of whatever religion or country, may continue three days gratis, and in many of them he is also found in victuals. The Turks are very fond of erecting these buildings, which they justly esteem a work of charity acceptable to the Most High. They behave very commendably to their slaves and servants, and frequently better than the Christians do to theirs. Indeed, in the first years of their servitude, these people suffer most, especially if young, the Turks endeavouring, partly by blandishments, and partly by severity, to bring them over to their religion; but these trials being happily over, captivity is no where more tolerable; so that if a servant understands any art or trade, the only thing he can want is his freedom, he being well supplied with every thing else.

The Turks are generally robust and well-shaped, of a good mien, and patient under hardships, which renders them fit for war, to which they early inure themselves. Persons of rank seldom train up their children to any other employment, from the notion that no glory is comparable to that acquired in war.

They are very particular in their dress, manner of living, and customs. They shave their heads, but wear long beards, of which they are extremely careful; except those in the seraglio, and military men, who wear only whiskers. The turban, or Turkish band, worn by the men is white, and consists of long pieces of thin linen made up together in several folds; and none but a Turk must presume to wear a white turban. Their clothes are long and full.

Agreeably to the custom of the orientals, they sit, eat, and sleep on the floor on cushions, or sophas, mattresses, and carpets. Rice is their general food, and coffee their usual drink, wine being forbidden.

They spend great sums of money on fountains, and no country affords finer; these are not only in the towns, but in the country, and other solitary places, for the refreshment of travellers and labourers.

Their usual salutation is bowing the head a little, laying the right hand on their breast; but to persons of rank they stoop so low as to touch and kiss the border of their vest. In war-time the left hand is the place of honour among military men, but this distinction ceases in time of peace among the officers of state and relations. The nobility among the Turks are the chief military officers, judges, and ecclesiastics. The Turkish commonalty enjoy the greatest liberty, and those only are exposed to the ticklish orders of the Porte, which must be answered with the head, who hold considerable posts.

The Greeks, who are the antient inhabitants of the country, are intermixed with the Turks, and in several places, particularly the islands, out-number them. Even in Constantinople alone there are computed to be no less than four hundred thousand. These people are accustomed to servitude, and prefer living under the exactions of the Turks to the spiritual tyranny of the pope; but they are obliged to be very cautious of not giving even the least colour for suspicion of their holding a correspondence with the enemies of the Ottoman Porte, or of meditating a sedition. Hence, in case of a war with any of the Christian powers, the Turks usually disarm them.

All the Greeks, from the age of fourteen, pay annually at the beginning of the Turkish feast of Bairam a poll-tax of about a ducat; but the ecclesiastics are assessed higher, a deacon paying two ducats; an archimandrite, four;

four; and the bishops, archbishops, and patriarchs, pay large sums, and as much as the arbitrary avarice of the grand vizier and bashas think proper to require; for the Turks every where lay hold of all opportunities of extorting money from the Greeks; but especially from their clergy. In return for this tribute, they enjoy the protection of the Ottoman Porte, and are maintained in the quiet possession of their properties; so that no Turk is to insult them, take their property, or intrude themselves into their houses against their will; and, in any of these cases, they are certain of justice being speedily executed on the offenders.

The Greek women are exempt from all taxes, as are likewise great numbers of other Greeks who serve in the navy, or elsewhere. Indeed it sometimes happens that a Greek girl of distinguished beauty is seized and carried to the seraglio; but it is a mistake that Christian children are in general forced away from their parents to be brought up in Mahometism; and when any thing of this kind is done, it is only in the distant provinces.

Foreign Christians, who are under the protection of an envoy, are included under the general title of Franks, and pay no poll-tax. We shall give an account of the other nations in the description of the particular provinces.

The principal language in Turkey in Europe is the Turkish; but the Greeks also speak the modern Greek; the Servians, Bosnians, and Bulgarians speak the Sclavonian; the Walachians and Moldavians, the Walachian; and the Tartars, the Tartarian language, which nearly resembles the Turkish. The literati commonly use the Arabic.

S E C T. III.

Of the Religions in Turkey in Europe; their Schools and Learning.

THE Turks appropriate to themselves the name of Moslemim, which has been corrupted into Musselman, signifying persons professing the doctrine of Mahomet. They also term themselves Sonnites, or observers of the oral traditions of Mahomet and his three successors; and likewise call themselves True Believers, in opposition to the Persians and others, the adherents of Ali, whom they call a wicked and abominable sect. Their rule of faith and practice is the Koran. Some externals of their religion are the prescribed ablutions, which are always to be performed before their devotions; prayers, which are to be said five times every twenty-four hours, with the face turned towards Mecca; alms, which are both enjoined and voluntary ones; the former consists of paying two and a half per cent. to charitable uses out of their whole income. Their feasts are either indispensable or voluntary ones; of the former is that of the whole month of Ramadan, which is followed by the Bairam, a time of festivity; and every Mahometan must, at least once in his life-time, go in pilgrimage, either personally or by proxy, to the Caba, or house of God, at Mecca.

Among the binding traditions not mentioned in the Koran is circumcision, which is performed betwixt the sixth and seventeenth year, but generally on the thirteenth. Indeed drinking wine is evidently prohibited in the Koran, yet the Turks make use of it occasionally without any scruple; but generally use instead of it sherbet, a liquor made of honey, spices, and the juice of fruits. Other things interdicted are games of chance, prophesying with arrows, and certain foods, as blood, pork; or the flesh of any beast that has died of sickness, or been killed by a wild beast, or by a fall or a stroke. Likewise the worshipping of idols, usury, and some superstitious and pagan practices. Polygamy is indeed permitted; but the Koran allows no man to have more than four wives and concubines, and to exceed that number is the particular privilege of the prophet and his successors: indeed few of the people have more wives than one. Divorces are also allowed; but no man may take back again the wife he has once repudiated, till she has been married to another, and afterwards divorced by him.

The chief ecclesiastic is the musti, which name signifies an expounder of the law, and his office is of such dignity, that when he comes to court, the emperor himself rises from his seat, and advances seven steps to meet him. He alone has the honour of kissing the sultan's left shoulder; while the grand vizier, with a more profound inclination of the body, kisses only the edge of the emperor's vest, who advances no more than three steps to meet him. The law requires, that the musti should be consulted on all emergencies, particularly in those relating to peace and war; but the peculiar regard now shown to him is little more than mere form; for were he either to give a disagreeable interpretation of the law, or, while in council, to presume to traverse the emperor's designs, he would be instantly deposed, and his place supplied by one of a more compliable disposition. On conviction of treason, or any other capital crime, he is put into a mortar, kept for that purpose in one of the seven towers at Constantinople, and pounded to death.

The Rev. Dr. Busching observes, that as the musti of the Turks may be compared to the pope, so a cadalisker, who is a secular person, is not unlike a patriarch; a mola is an archbishop; a cady, who is also a layman, may be accounted a bishop; and an iman, a priest, whose chief employment is praying.

The Turks have also their convents and monks, under the general name of dervises, the chief of which are the Bektashi, Mebelevi, Cadri, and Segati; whose forms of worship chiefly consists in certain religious dances.

The Turks at present avoid all appearance of propagating their religion by fire and sword; and the Christians of various sects, who reside amongst them, enjoy full liberty of conscience, and live in much greater tranquility than among some who stile themselves Christians.

The Greek church in this part of the world has at its head the patriarch of Constantinople, who is chosen by the neighbouring archbishops and metropolitans, and confirmed by the emperor or the grand vizier. This is a person of great dignity, he being the principal of all the Greek patriarchs, and the head and director of the Eastern church. His revenue amounts to no less than a hundred and twenty thousand guilders, one half of which he pays by way of annual tribute to the Ottoman Porte, adding six thousand guilders besides, by way of present at the feast of Bairam.

Subordinate to him are seventy archbishops and metropolitans, and a much greater number of bishops.

An archimandrite is the director of one or more convents, which are called mandren, and ranks above an abbot, of which each convent has one. The monks are obliged to follow some handicraft business, and lead a very austere life; but this is not the case with respect to the priests and students. The most celebrated monasteries are those on Mount Athos; but the Greeks have at present few nunneries.

The secular clergy are obliged to submit to no rules, though the regulars are, who perform divine worship. The first is the lecturer, the second the chanter, the third the under deacon, the fourth the deacon, the fifth the priest, and the sixth the archpriest. They are allowed to marry; but this must be done before ordination, and then only once, and that with a virgin. These secular ecclesiastics never rise higher than an archpriest; the bishops, metropolitans, archbishops, and patriarchs being chosen from among the monks.

The Armenians have many churches in this country; the Jews and Roman catholics have also the free exercise of their religion, and the Swedes have been permitted to build a Lutheran church at Constantinople.

The Turks are not without all kinds of learning, having some schools, colleges, and academies, by them called medaris; but these are generally inferior to those among the Christians, and their management of them also very different. Lately a Turkish printing-office has been set up at Constantinople by Abraham Effendi, who, after great opposition, obtained leave to print all kinds of books, except on matters of religion. He also published some maps, and books of history and geography, and is said to have had a considerable knowledge of the Latin tongue.

Literature, however, is not so rare among the Greeks, who have not only schools for instructing children in the principles of religion, as reading, writing, and learning by heart the Psalms and passages of Scripture; but have also universities, in which are taught grammar, Latin, and the mathematics, with the Aristotelian philosophy, both natural and moral. These are said to be at Demotica, in the island of Patmos, Jannina, and other places. Divinity is taught at the patriarch's palace at Constantinople, by a chaplain of the patriarch's and some assistants; but particularly on Mount Athos, which seems to be the pillar of the Greek church, and in other parts by the bishops, who are men of capacity, and take this trouble voluntarily upon them.

The state of learning, indeed, among the Greeks is at present at a very low ebb, in comparison of what it is among us; but it ought to be remembered, that they are destitute of the same means and opportunities of mental improvement. As to physic, the Greeks either learn from the Arabic, Jewish, or Christian physicians residing among them; or else study in the universities in Germany, Holland, or England.

S E C T. IV.

The Name, Origin, and History of the Turks, with a particular Account of their Government; the Power and Splendor of the Sultan, or Grand Seignior; his Titles, Officers of State, Janizaries, and other Troops. A Description of the Turkish Camp, and of the Procession made by the Tradesmen when they go to make their Presents, on the Sultan's commanding the Army in Person.

THE Turks are of Tartarian or Scythian extraction; and this appellation was first given them in the middle ages as a proper name; it being a general title of honour to all the nations comprehended under the two principal branches of Tartar and Mongul, who therefore never use it as a proper name of any Scythian or Tartarian nation. The word tur, as an adjective, signifies sublime and pre-eminent; and, as a substantive, a governor. The Scythian or Tartarian nation, to which the name of Turks has been peculiarly given, dwelt betwixt the Black and Caspian seas, and became first known in the seventh century, when Heraclius, emperor of the East, took them into his service; upon which they so distinguished themselves by their fidelity and bravery in the conquest of Persia, that the Arabian and Saracen caliphs had not only particular bodies of them for guards, but their armies were filled with them. Thus gradually getting the power into their hands, they set up and dethroned caliphs at pleasure. By this strict union of the Turks with the Saracens or Arabs, the former were brought to embrace the Mahometan religion, so that they are now become intermixed, and have jointly enlarged their conquests: but as the Turks became superior to the Saracens, they subdued them.

Prince Cantemir gives the following account of the origin of the Ottoman empire.

Genghisikan, at the head of his horde, issued out of Great Tartary, and made himself master of a vast tract of land near the Caspian sea, and even of all Persia and Asia Minor. Incited by his example and success, Schah Solyman, prince of the town of Nera, on the Caspian sea, in the year 1214, passed Mount Caucasus with fifty thousand men, and penetrated as far as the borders of Syria; and though his career was stopped there by the Genghisikan Tartars, yet in the year 1219 he penetrated a second time into Asia Minor as far as the Euphrates. Othman, his grandson, made himself master of several countries and places in Lesser Asia belonging to the Grecian empire; and having, in the year 1300, at the city of Carachiser, assumed the title of emperor of the Ottomans, called his people after his own name. This prince, among many other towns, took, in the year 1326, Prusa, in Bithynia, now called Bursa; which Orchan, his son and successor, made the seat of his empire. Orchan sent Solyman and Amurath, his two sons, on an expedition into Europe; the former of whom reduced the city of Callipolis, and the latter took Tyrilos. Amurath suc-

ceeding his father in the government in 1360, took Ancyra, Adrianople, and Philippopolis; and in 1632 instituted the janizaries, over-run Servia, and invaded Macedonia and Albania. Bajazet, his son and successor, was very successful both in Europe and Asia, defeating the Christians near Nicopolis; but, in 1401, he was routed and taken prisoner by Tamerlane. His sons disagreed; but Mahomet I. enjoyed the sovereignty, and his son Amurath II. distinguished himself by several important enterprizes, and particularly in the year 1444 gained a signal victory over the Hungarians near Varna. Mahomet II. the greatest of all the emperors, in 1453, made himself master of Constantinople, and reduced the whole Grecian empire under his dominion, subduing twelve kingdoms and two hundred towns. After this Bajazet II. and Selim I. enlarged the Turkish empire in Europe, Asia, and Africa; and Solyman I. became less famous for his victory over the Hungarians than his body of laws.

In short, the succeeding emperors were less successful; for though Mahomet IV. subdued Candia, and laid siege to Vienna, he met with ill success in Hungary; and in the reigns of Solyman II. Achmet II. and Mustapha, the Hungarians and Venetians were so successful against the Turks, that Mustapha II. in 1699, was glad to conclude the peace of Carlowitz. Mahomet III. in 1718, agreed to the peace of Passarowitz; but Achmet V. by the peace of Belgrade, in 1739, re-annexed Servia, a part of Walachia, and Chozim to the empire.

The first sultans, or emperors, owing their success purely to their own valour, and being filled with maxims of war, would have a blind obedience paid them; they punished with severity, and laboured to keep their subjects under an inability to revolt; and, in short, would be served only by persons who stood indebted to them for their fortunes, whom they could advance without jealousy, and crush without being charged with injustice. These maxims which have continued amongst them above five centuries, render the sultan absolute master of the empire.

When there is a new emperor, or sultan, it is the custom to conduct him with great pomp and triumph to a place in the suburbs of Constantinople, called Job, where is an antient monument of one of their holy men of that name. At this place solemn prayers are made that God may prosper the sultan, and infuse wisdom into him who is to manage so great a charge. The musti then embracing him bestows his blessing, and the emperor solemnly swears to maintain the laws of the prophet Mahomet. Then the viziers of the bench, and other bashas, with profound humility, kiss the ground and the hem of his vest, acknowledging him their lawful emperor. After this form of inauguration, he returns with the like solemnity to the seraglio. Thus he obliges himself to govern within the compass of the law; but the Turkish doctors restrain the imperial oath only to the observation of the religious part of the Mahometan law, and say, that in civil matters it is so arbitrary, as to need no other judge than his will.

The sultan's cloaths differ little in fashion from those of other men, only they exceed them in length and richness. His turban resembles those of the bashas; but he wears plumes with gold clasps, which they do not. He sleeps upon mattresses of velvet and cloth of gold, covered in summer with sheets embroidered with silk, and in winter with fables.

When he goes by water, he is carried in his barge, covered with a canopy of crimson velvet richly embroidered, under which he sits, while his agas stand about him. The vessel is rowed by the Aglain Oglans, and steered by the Bostangee Basha. When he goes by land, he always rides on horseback, and commonly proceeds out of the great gate of the palace. On his going to the mosque on Fridays, he is accompanied through the city by all the bashas and grandees of the Porte. The lady Wortley Montague says, that when she saw the Grand Seignior in his passage to the mosque, he was preceded by a numerous guard of janizaries, with vast white feathers on their heads; as also by the spahis and bostangees, who are foot and horse guards, and the royal gardeners, which are a very considerable body of men, dressed in different habits

habits of fine lively colours, so that at a distance they appeared, says she, like a parterre of tulips. After them the aga of the janizaries, in a robe of purple velvet, lined with silver tiffue, his horse led by two slaves richly dressed. Next him the kishler-aga, who is the chief guardian of the ladies of the seraglio, in a deep yellow cloth, (which suited well with his black face) lined with fables. Last came the sultan himself, arrayed in green, lined with the furs of black Muscovite foxes, supposed worth about a thousand pounds sterling, and mounted on a fine horse, with furniture embroidered with jewels. Six more horses richly caparisoned were led after him; and two of his principal courtiers bore, one his gold, and the other his silver coffee-pot, on a staff; another carried a silver stool on his head, for him to sit on. It would be too tedious, says that lady, to describe the various dresses and turbans by which they are distinguished; but they were all extremely rich and gay, to the number of some thousands; so that, perhaps, there cannot be seen a more beautiful procession.

The titles of the emperor, according to the custom of the East, are very prolix and magnificent, as will appear from the following specimen. We, the servant and lord of the most honoured and blessed cities, the venerable houses, and sacred places, before which all nations bow; of Mecca, which God delights to honour; of the resplendent Medina, and the holy city of Jerusalem; of the imperial and desirable cities of Constantinople, Adrianople, and Bursa, emperor; also of Babylon, Damascus, of the fragrant Paradise, and the incomparable Egypt; of all Arabia, Aleppo, Antioch, and many other highly celebrated and memorable places, cities, and faithful vassals, emperor; emperor of emperors, the most gracious and all-powerful sultan, &c.

The Turkish arms are a crescent.

In the succession to the empire no regard is paid to age or birth-right, the Turks esteeming it sufficient, if, in their elections, they keep to the Ottoman family: but women are excluded from the throne. Though the government is purely monarchical and despotic, yet if the emperor takes no care to indulge the humours of the people, and especially of the mutinous janizaries, he is not only in danger of being deposed, but also of being murdered.

The emperor's divan, or council of state, meets twice a week in the emperor's palace, that is on Sundays and Thursdays. The grand vizier, who sits as president, has on his right hand the cadinaskier of Romelia, and on his left that of Natolia. The musti also assists when expressly summoned. All the other viziers have likewise a seat here, and next to them stand on one side the tefterdar, or high-treasurer, the reis-effendi, or secretary of state, and other commissioners of the exchequer; but the military officers, as the aga of the janizaries, the aga of the spahis, the aga of the filuds, &c. sit within the divan. These several members wear a particular habit. The sultan does not enter the room; but hears what passes from an adjoining chamber, which looks into the divan.

When he convenes a general council, to which all the great persons of the empire are summoned, as the clergy, the military and other officers, and even the old and most experienced soldiers, such a divan is called *ajak divani*, the whole assembly standing.

The highest office, next to the sultan, is the vizier *azem*, or grand vizier, who has the care of the whole empire, and is not only entrusted with the management of the revenue, with foreign affairs, and the administration of justice in civil and criminal concerns; but also with the conduct of wars, and the command of armies. When the sultan nominates this great officer, he puts into his hand the seal of the empire, upon which is engraven his name. This is the badge of his office, and he always carries it in his bosom. With this seal he dispatches all his orders, without consulting any one. His power is unlimited, except with respect to the troops, which he cannot punish without the consent of the commanders. All affairs are decided by his judgment; and he disposes of all the posts in the empire, except those of judicature.

The grand vizier lives in the utmost splendor; he has above two thousand officers and domestics in his palace,

and when he appears in public has his turban adorned with two plumes of feathers, charged with diamonds and precious stones; the harness of his horse is usually set with rubies and turquoises, and his housing richly embroidered with gold and pearls. His guard is composed of about four hundred Bosnians, or Albanians, some of whom attend him on foot when he goes to the divan; but when he marches into the field, they are all well mounted, and carry a lance, a sword, a hatchet, and a brace of pistols. He is preceded by three horse tails, on the top of which is a gold ball. This is the military ensign of the Ottomans; for one of their generals being at a loss how to rally his troops, who had lost all their standards, cut off a horse's tail, and erecting it on the point of a lance, the soldiers flocked to this new ensign, renewed their attack, and came off with victory.

When the sultan honours the grand vizier with the command of an army, he takes out one of the plumes of his own turban, and delivers it to him to place in his own. Upon his receiving this mark of distinction, the soldiers acknowledge him for their general. The grand vizier's income, without his being guilty of any injustice, amounts to about six hundred thousand dollars a year, exclusive of presents and other perquisites. But, notwithstanding the greatness of his revenue, and the splendour in which he lives, he is in continual danger, it being the usual policy of the emperors to screen themselves from the clamours of the people, by throwing the whole blame of any instance of male-administration on this officer, and giving him up to the public resentment.

While the emperor resides at Constantinople, or Adrianople, he is without any power; but if he be only eight hours distant from the city, his authority is little less than that of the grand vizier.

When the emperor takes the field in person, he nominates a *kaimakan* out of such viziers as are permitted to carry three horse tails. This officer, in case the grand vizier be at the distance of eight hours from the emperor, has the full power and management of all affairs; but is not to act contrary to the grand vizier's instructions. This *kaimakan* ought not to be confounded with the governor of Constantinople, or Adrianople, who bears the same title.

Next to the grand vizier are six others, styled viziers of the bench, or council, and *bashas* of the three horse tails; because, when they march, three horse tails are carried before them, while only one is carried before the ordinary *bashas*. These viziers ought to be men distinguished by their wisdom, and their knowledge of the laws. They assist at the divan, but never deliver their opinion upon the affairs which are treated there, unless required by the grand vizier. These have each two thousand crowns a year, and the grand vizier often refers matters of small consequence to them, as well as to the ordinary judges. *Cady* is a word used for all judges of a province or particular place.

A *beglerbeg* is a viceroy, with several provinces under his command, the name itself signifying a prince of princes. The three principal are the *beglerbeg* of Rumili, who resides at Sophia; the *beglerbeg* of Natolia, the seat of whose government is at Cutahia, and the *beglerbeg* of Damascus, who keeps his court in that city. Under these are the *bashas* or governors, whose posts are very considerable, but precarious; and subordinate to these are the *sangiacs*, who may be termed deputy-governors. These are all military officers.

The *reis-effendi*, also called the *reis-kital*, is lord chancellor and secretary of state. His name signifies chief of the writers. He attends on the vizier, to pass orders, decrees, patents and commissions, into all parts of the empire, which are daily dispatched in incredible numbers, and therefore he employs a multitude of clerks in his office.

With respect to the national revenues, they are returnable to two treasuries; the public treasury, and the treasury of the *musselmans*. The public treasury is under the management of the *tefterdar*, or high treasurer, who has under him twelve offices, to which all the revenues of the empire, arising from tributes, customs, &c. are returnable, and out of these the army is paid. The treasurer is allowed five per cent. of all the money brought

brought into the treasury, which must bring him in at least two hundred thousand dollars annually. One fourth of the money he receives he pays to the kietchudabeg, or kahya, who is the grand vizier's commissary, and above the tefterdar. The money of this treasury, called the public money of the musselmans, is not to be touched by the emperor but in the greatest exigency, much less for private occasions. The sultan's private treasury, which he disposes of according to his own pleasure, is under the care of the hasnadar baschi, who is the next person in rank to the kislar in the seraglio. Prince Cantemir says, that in his time, twenty-seven thousand purses, amounting to thirteen millions and a half of rix-dollars, were annually returned to both treasuries. The confiscations of the estates and effects of the bashas, and other officers, together with the money arising from the escheats of Turks dying without male issue, make also a very considerable article.

The janizaries are the flower of the Turkish forces, they are all infantry, and were first formed of captive Christians by the emperor Amurath I. Their number generally amounts to forty thousand, divided into a hundred and sixty-two companies, or chambers, called odas, in which they live together at Constantinople, as in a convent. The janizaries are of a superior rank to all other soldiers; but are also more arrogant and factious, and it is by them the public tranquillity is mostly disturbed. "The government, says the lady Wortley Montague, "is entirely in the hands of the army. The grand "signior with all his absolute power, is as much a slave "as any of his subjects, and trembles at a janizary's "frown. Here is, indeed, a much greater appearance "of subjection than amongst us: a minister of state is "not spoke to but upon the knee; should a reflection "on his conduct be dropped in a coffee-house (for they "have their spies every where) the house would be razed to the ground, and perhaps the whole company "put to the torture. No huzzaing mobs, senseless "pamphlets, and tavern disputes about politics. When "a minister here displeases the people, in three hours "time he is dragged even from his master's arms. They "cut off his hands, head and feet, and throw them before the palace gate, with all the respect in the world; "while the sultan, to whom they all profess an unlimited adoration, sits trembling in his apartment, and "dare neither defend, nor revenge his favourite."

The janizaries have, however, some good qualities; they are employed to escort travellers, and especially ambassadors, and persons of high rank, on the road, in which case they behave with the utmost zeal and fidelity. The ingenious and learned lady, whom we have just mentioned, happening to bespeak some pigeons for supper at a village near Philippopolis, one of the janizaries went immediately to the cady, the chief civil officer of the town, and ordered him to send in some dozens. The poor man answered, that he had already sent about, but could get none; upon which the janizary, in the height of his zeal for that lady's service, immediately locked him up prisoner in his room, telling him he deserved death for his impudence, in offering to excuse his not obeying her commands; but out of respect to the lady, he would not punish him but by her order. Accordingly he came very gravely to her, to ask what should be done to him; adding by way of compliment, that, if she pleased, he would bring her his head. "This, says "the lady Montague, may give some idea of the unlimited power of these fellows, who are all sworn brothers, and bound to revenge the injuries done to one "another, whether at Cairo, Aleppo, or any other part "of the world. This inviolable league makes them so "powerful, that the greatest man at court never speaks "to them, but in a flattering tone."

The capis are also infantry; the spahis light horse; but the timar spahi, or, the old and preferred spahis, instead of pay, have villages in several of the provinces, and are obliged, according to their income, to bring at least three slaves with them into the field.

The tributary princes, as the cham of the Crim Tartars, and the princes of Moldavia and Walachia, are obliged to send auxiliaries. In short, the whole Turkish army is composed of above three hundred thousand men.

When the Turks are encamped, the tents make a very magnificent appearance. Those of the great men are rather like palaces than tents, taking up a great compass of ground, and being divided into a great number of apartments. They are all green, and the bashas of three tails have those ensigns of their power placed in a very conspicuous manner before their tents, which are adorned on the top with gilded balls, more or less, according to their different ranks.

When the sultan is resolved to lead his army in person, all the companies of tradesmen are obliged to make him a present according to their ability; and, on this occasion, they make a very splendid procession through the principal streets, while the sultan views them from one of the windows of his seraglio. When our author saw this cavalcade, it was preceded by an effendi, mounted on a camel, reading aloud the Koran, finely bound, and placed upon a cushion. He was surrounded by a parcel of boys in white, singing some verses of it, followed by a man dressed in green boughs, representing a husbandman sowing seed. After him several reapers, crowned like Ceres, with ears of corn; they had also scythes in their hands, and seemed to mow. Then a little machine drawn by oxen, in which was a windmill, and boys employed in grinding corn, followed by another machine drawn by buffaloes carrying an oven, and two more boys, one employed in kneading bread, and the other in drawing it out of the oven. These boys also threw little cakes on both sides amongst the crowd, and were followed by the whole company of bakers, marching on foot two by two, in their best cloaths, with cakes, loaves, pasties and pies of all sorts on their heads, and after them two buffoons, with their faces and cloaths smeared with meal, who diverted the mob with their antic gestures. In the same manner followed all the other trading companies; the jewellers, mercers, &c. finely mounted, and many of the pageants representing their trades, truly magnificent; amongst which that of the furriers made one of the best figures, it being a very large machine set round with the skins of ermines, foxes, &c. so well stuffed, that the animals seemed alive, and were followed by music and dancers. The rear was closed by the volunteers, who came to beg the honour of dying in the sultan's service; they were all naked to the middle. Some had their arms pierced through with arrows left sticking in them. Others had them sticking in their heads, the blood trickling down their faces. Some flashed their arms with sharp knives, making the blood spring out upon the by-standers; which is looked upon as an expression of their zeal for glory. 'Tis said that some make use of these arrows and knives to advance their love, and when they are near the window where their mistress stands, (for all the women are veiled to see this spectacle) they stick another arrow for her sake, who gives some sign of approbation and encouragement to this gallantry.

SECT. V.

The Officers of the Seraglio, and the Regulations observed there with respect to the Women; the Splendor of their Dress, and the Magnificence in which they live.

THE principal officers of the seraglio are the eunuchs, who are in the highest confidence; for being entirely disengaged from love intrigues, they resign themselves wholly to ambition and the care of obliging their sovereign. The white eunuchs are employed in the service of the sultan, and the black wait upon and guard the women. These are forced to use a silver pipe in making water; they being deprived of the natural conveniency in their infancy; for the sultans were jealous of them, while they were made eunuchs in the ordinary manner, and on this account they are cut smooth close to the belly; a dangerous operation, that costs many of them their lives.

The capi-aga, or chief of the white eunuchs, is treated in the same manner in his youth, and is the great master of the seraglio. He has the inspection of all the pages of the palace, and all petitions which are to be presented



Lady Mary Wortley Montague visits the Sultana Hafsen.

presented to the prince are delivered to him. He is in the secret of the cabinet, and has the command of all the eunuchs of his own complexion. The principal of these eunuchs are, the great chamberlain, who has forty pages under him, that wait on the sultan: the deputy-supervisor of the pages apartment, and other buildings of the palace, who particularly takes care of their linen and wearing apparel: the sultan's privy-treasurer, who keeps the jewels of the crown, and one of the keys of the sacred treasure: the kilargi bashi, or grand expeditor of the seraglio, who is also great master of the wardrobe; it is his office also to look after the sultan's sweet-meats and drinks, the syrups, sherbet, and counter-poisons; he also takes care of the sultan's china-ware: the other white eunuchs are, the preceptors to the pages, the overseer of the infirmary, the great falconer, the overseer of the baths, and other officers who wait on the sultan's person.

The kyser-aga is the chief of the black eunuchs, and has the absolute command of the women's apartments, and all the other black eunuchs placed there pay him an implicit obedience. He has the superintendence of all the royal mosques of the empire, and disposes of all the offices that belong to them. The principal of the other black eunuchs are, the eunuch of the queen mother, the governor of the princes of the blood, the comptroller of the queen mother's treasury, the steward of her perfumes, sweet-meats, and liquors, the two chiefs of the great and little chamber of the women, with some others.

In the seraglio there are also musicians, buffoons, tumblers, dwarfs, and mutes.

All who live in the seraglio are the sultan's slaves, as indeed are all the subjects of his empire; for they acknowledge, that whatever they enjoy proceeds from his bounty, and that their estates and lives are absolutely at his disposal.

The women in the sultan's court, including the old and the young, amount to about twelve hundred. His concubines are beautiful and accomplished virgins, who have been stolen or purchased when children from Georgia, Circassia, or the neighbouring countries, and received an education that renders them well qualified in the arts of pleasing, such as singing, playing upon musical instruments, dancing, dressing to the best advantage, an engaging behaviour, and great skill in curious needle-work, particularly embroidery.

It is generally said, that the first of these ladies who conceives by the sultan, and brings forth a child, is stiled sultana queen; and, if it be a son, is confirmed and established by great festivals: thenceforward she has magnificent apartments, a great number of servants, with a large revenue, and all persons in the seraglio must pay her the respect due to a queen. The other women who bear him children are called sultanas, but not queens, yet live in separate apartments, which are extremely splendid; they are well served and attended, and are in no want of money, jewels, or the richest apparel: but if it happens that the heir of the empire dies, and another of the sultanas has a son to succeed the deceased heir, it is said that the sultana queen loses her title and rank, and another becomes queen in her stead; so that the title runs from one sultana to another, in virtue of the son's right to the succession.

The sultan was formerly married to the queen, but she now possesses that title without the celebration of any nuptial rites, and yet enjoys all the prerogatives of royalty, with a guard of thirty or forty black eunuchs, under the command of the kyser-aga.

The sons of the sultan, by the sultana queen, are all brought up by themselves, and have nurses provided for them. His sons by the other sultanas are also brought up by themselves; but they may play with each other till they are six or seven years of age. They live nine or ten years with the women, and at about fourteen are circumcised with great pomp. When the sultan's eldest son is circumcised, he is sometimes sent with a suitable equipage, under the care of a trusty eunuch, to be governor of Magnesia, in Natolia; but the eunuch is bound to send continual advice to the sultan of his son's behaviour; so that if he exceeds the limits of his commission, he soon falls into disgrace.

The daughters, sisters, and aunts of the emperor lodge in the same seraglio; and, being richly dressed and royally attended, live by themselves in continual pleasures, till the sultan gives them in marriage to the great officers of his court, or the governors of provinces. They are said to carry out with them a chest, presented by the sultan, filled with rich cloaths, jewels, and money, to the value of about thirty thousand pounds sterling, besides what they have saved, which sometimes amounts to a great sum: and if the Grand Seignior has a particular respect for them, he even continues their allowance of a thousand or fifteen hundred aspers a day. As for the husband, he is to make her a bill of dowry of at least a hundred thousand chequins in money, besides cloaths, jewels, and other ornaments. They, however, converse with no other men besides their husbands; and, with the sultan's leave, are allowed to visit their old acquaintance in the seraglio. These are the only women in Turkey who claim the privilege of having a man to themselves. They assume the state of queens, and have their husbands in the same subjection as other Turkish husbands have their wives; and they are said to oblige them to put away the rest of their women, how long soever they have lived with them.

Authors have given very incredible descriptions of the manner in which these ladies live in the seraglio, and of the treatment they receive from the sultan; but as it is evident, even from their own account, that they never so much as saw one of these ladies, and that they had no possible means of coming at the knowledge of what they describe, we shall pass them over as the fictions of travellers; and conclude this section with part of a letter wrote by an English ambassador on this subject, who writes from her own knowledge, and, from her rank and sex, had an opportunity of seeing what is carefully concealed from every man. Though the lady she describes had left the seraglio, yet she still seems to have kept up the way of life she led there; and, indeed, all that is said of her will give the reader a better idea of the splendor in which those ladies live, than any thing that has been written on the subject.

"I went, says this learned and polite writer, to see the sultana Hafiten, favourite of the late emperor Mustapha, who was deposed by his brother, the reigning sultan, and died a few weeks after, being poisoned, as it was generally believed. This lady was, immediately after his death, saluted with an absolute order to leave the seraglio, and choose herself a husband among the great men of the Porte. I suppose you may imagine her overjoyed at this proposal.—Quite the contrary.—These women, who are called, and esteem themselves queens, look upon this liberty as the greatest disgrace and affront that can happen to them. She threw herself at the sultan's feet, and begged him to pardon her, rather than use his brother's widow with that contempt. She represented to him, in agonies of sorrow, that she was privileged from this misfortune by having brought five princes into the Ottoman family; but all the boys being dead, and only one girl surviving, this excuse was not received, and she was compelled to make her choice. She chose Bekir Effendi, then secretary of state, and above fourscore years old, to convince the world that she firmly intended to keep the vow she had made, of never suffering a second husband to approach her bed; and since she must honour some subject so far as to be called his wife, she would choose him as a mark of her gratitude, since it was he that had presented her at the age of ten years to her last lord. But she never permitted him to pay her one visit; though she has been fifteen years in his house, where she passes her time in uninterrupted mourning, with a constancy very little known in Christendom, especially in a widow of one and twenty; for she is now but thirty-six. She has no black eunuchs for her guard, her husband being obliged to respect her as a queen, and not to enquire at all into what is done in her apartment.

"I was led into a large room, with a sofa the whole length of it, adorned with white marble pillars, covered with pale blue figured velvet, on a silver ground,

“with cushions of the same, where I was desired to repose till the sultana appeared, who had contrived this manner of reception to avoid rising up at my entrance, though she made me an inclination of the head when I rose up to her. I was very glad to observe a lady that had been distinguished by the favour of an emperor, to whom beauties were every day presented from all parts of the world. She had the remains of a fine face, more decayed by sorrow than time. But her dress was something so surprisingly rich, that I cannot forbear describing it to you. She wore a vest called a dualma, which differs from a caftan by its having longer sleeves, and folding over at the bottom. It was of purple cloth straight to her shape, and thick-set on each side down to her feet and round her sleeves, with pearls of the best water, of the same size as their buttons are; that is, about the bigness of a pea, and to these buttons large loops set with diamonds. This habit was tied at the waist, with two large tassels of smaller pearls, and round the arms embroidered with large diamonds. Her shift was fastened at the bottom with a great diamond, shaped like a lozenge; her girdle as broad as the broadest English ribbon, entirely covered with diamonds. Round her neck she wore three chains, which reached to her knees; one of large pearls, at the bottom of which hung a fine coloured emerald as big as a turkey egg; another consisting of two hundred emeralds close joined together, of the most lively green, perfectly matched, every one as large as a half-crown piece, and as thick as three crown pieces; and another of small emeralds perfectly round. But her ear-rings eclipsed all the rest. They were two diamonds shaped exactly like pears, as big as a large hazle-nut. Round her talpoche she had four strings of pearl, the whitest and most perfect in the world, fastened with two roses, each consisting of a large ruby for the middle stone, encircled with diamonds. Besides this, her head-dress was covered with bodkins of emeralds and diamonds. She wore large diamond bracelets, and had five rings on her fingers, with the largest diamonds (except Mr. Pitt's) I ever saw in my life. 'Tis for jewellers to compute the value of these things; but, according to the common estimation of jewels in our part of the world, her whole dress must be worth a hundred thousand pounds sterling. This I am sure of, that no European queen has half the quantity; and the empress's jewels, tho' very fine, would look very mean near hers.

“She gave me a dinner of fifty dishes of meat, which, after their fashion, were placed on the table but one at a time, and was extremely tedious. But the magnificence of her table answered very well to that of her dress: the hafts of the knives being of gold set with diamonds. But the piece of luxury which grieved my eyes was, the table-cloth and napkins, which were all tiffany embroidered with silk and gold, in the finest manner in natural flowers. It was with the utmost regret that I made use of these costly napkins, which were as finely wrought as the finest handkerchiefs that ever came out of that country. You may be sure they were entirely spoiled before dinner was over. The sherbet was served in china bowls, but the covers and salvers massy gold. After dinner water was brought in gold basons, and towels of the same kind with the napkins, which I very unwillingly wiped my hands upon, and coffee was served in china, with gold saucers.

“The sultana seemed in a very good humour, and talked to me with the utmost civility. I did not omit this opportunity of learning all that I possibly could of the seraglio, which is so entirely unknown among us. She assured me that the story of the sultan's throwing a handkerchief, is altogether fabulous; and the manner upon that occasion no other than this: he sends the kysser aga to signify to the lady the honour he intends her. She is immediately complimented upon it by the others, and led into the bath, where she is perfumed and dressed in the most magnificent and becoming manner. The emperor precedes his visit by a royal present, and then comes into her apartment. Neither is there any such thing as her creeping in at

“the bed's foot. She said, that the first he made choice of, was always after the first in rank, and not the mother of the eldest son, as other writers would make us believe. Sometimes the sultan diverts himself in the company of all his ladies, who stand in a circle round him. And she confessed they were ready to die with envy and jealousy of the happy she, that he distinguished with any appearance of preferment. But this seemed to me neither better nor worse than the circles in most courts, where the glance of the monarch is watched, and every smile waited for with impatience, and envied by those who cannot obtain it.

“She asked me to walk in her garden, and one of her slaves immediately brought her a pellice of rich brocade lined with fables. I waited on her into the garden, which had nothing in it remarkable but the fountains, and from thence, she shewed me all her apartments. In her bed-chamber her toilet was displayed, consisting of two looking-glasses; the frames covered with pearls, and her night talpoche set with bodkins of jewels, and near it three vests of fine fables, every one of which is at least worth two hundred pounds English money. I don't doubt but these rich habits were purposely placed in sight, though they seemed negligently thrown on the sofa. When I took my leave of her, I was complimented with perfumes, and presented with a very fine embroidered handkerchief. Her slaves were to the number of thirty, besides ten little ones, the eldest not above seven years old. These were the most beautiful girls I ever saw, all richly dressed, and I observed that the sultana took a great deal of pleasure in these lovely children, which are a vast expence; for there is not a handsome girl of that age, to be bought under a hundred pounds sterling. They wore little garlands of flowers, and their own hair braided, which was all their head-dress; but their habits are all of gold stuffs. These served her coffee kneeling; brought water when she washed, &c. 'Tis a great part of the business of the older slaves to take care of these young girls, to teach them to embroider, and to serve them as carefully as if they were children of the family.”

SECT. VI.

Of the Manufactures, Trade, and Coin of Turkey in Europe.

THE Turks have very curious and beautiful manufactures. The inland trade too, which the provinces, towns, and inhabitants carry on with each other, and with foreign nations, is very considerable; though it is chiefly through the channel of the Jews and Armenians. The Turks, indeed, convey both by land and water the products of the country and other goods from one province to another; but not to foreign Christian countries: great numbers of English, Dutch, French, Italian, and Spanish ships, as well as those of other trading nations, repairing in great numbers to the harbours in Turkey, where they import their goods, and purchase those of the country. They have also their envoys and residents at Constantinople, and their consuls in other ports.

The exports from Turkey are silks, beautiful carpets, goats hair and wool, camels hair, cotton yarn, burdets, dimity, waxed linen, shagreen skins, blue, red, and yellow leather, coffee, rhubarb, turpentine, storax, gums, saffron, opium, galls, mastich, emery, Lemnian bole, pomegranate shells, sponges, dates, almonds, wine, oil, figs, raisins, mother of pearl, box-wood, wax, &c. The traffic of the human species, however shocking it may appear at first sight, is infinitely less cruel than that carried on by the Christians on the coast of Guinea: this is a considerable part of their commerce; for they not only sell slaves of both sexes, but also beautiful young girls, who are bought up, particularly by the Jews in Circassia, Georgia, Greece, and other countries; their parents and relations readily parting with them, in hopes of raising their fortune.

The English Turkey merchants export thither broad cloth, long ells, tin, iron, sugar, watches, some bullion, and many other articles.

The

The gold and large silver coin of all countries are current in Turkey, more especially the cross dollars of Burgundy, and the Dutch lion dollars, which they term *allem*.

The proper coins of the country are, first those of gold; namely, the *altines*, or *ducats*, which are worth about seven shillings; and the *zechinos*, worth about nine shillings. Large sums are reckoned by purses; a purse being one hundred and eight pounds six shillings and eight pence.

The silver coin consists of the *solato*, worth about two shillings and two pence farthing; the *krip*, of the value of about eleven pence; the *grosch*, about three pence; the *para*, worth three aspers; an *asper* is of the value of about three half pence.

S E C T. VII.

Of the MOREA, anciently called the PELOPONNESUS.

Its Situation, Extent, Name, Rivers, Lakes, Soil, and Produce. With a Description of all the principal Cities and Towns in that Peninsula.

THE Morea is a large peninsula on the southern part of Greece, to which it is joined by the isthmus of Corinth, which extends between the gulphs of Lepanto and Engia, and in its narrowest part is not above four or five miles over. It lies between the thirty sixth degree twenty-three minutes, and the thirty-eighth degree seventeen minutes latitude; and between the twenty-first degree twenty minutes, and the twenty-fourth degree eight minutes east longitude from London. Its greatest breadth from south to north, or from Cape Matapan to the straits of Lepanto, is about one hundred and fifteen miles, and its greatest length east and west one hundred and twenty: but in many places it is much narrower and shorter, on account of the many gulphs, bays, and inlets all round the coast.

Its present name of Morea is said to be derived from *Morus*, a mulberry-tree, either from its resembling in its form the mulberry leaf, or from the great number of mulberry-trees it produces.

Its chief rivers are the *Carbon*, anciently the *Alpheus*; the *Pirnaza*, anciently the *Panifus*; and the *Eurotas*, now called the *Basilipotama*. Of the lakes, the most celebrated among the ancients was the *Stymphalus*, famous for the many ravenous birds which resorted to it; and the *Phineus*, for being the source of the river *Styx*, whose water is said to be so cold as to freeze those to death who drink it, and to corrode iron and copper, for which extraordinary qualities the poets have made it one of the rivers of hell.

This peninsula, notwithstanding its small extent, contained the kingdoms of *Sicyon*, *Argos*, and *Mycene*, *Corinth*, *Proper Achaia*, *Arcadia*, and *Sparta*, and was distinguished by the splendor of its cities, the courage and virtue of its ancient inhabitants, and the power of the several states; as well as by the fertility of its soil, which produces plenty of corn, wine, oil, most delicious fruits, and every thing that can contribute to the delight, as well as the necessities of life. Indeed the middle part, which contained the ancient *Arcadia*, being more mountainous, is not so fruitful, and therefore most of the inhabitants were formerly shepherds, the soil being more proper for pasture than agriculture. However, even in that part there are several fertile valleys, that would produce plentiful crops, were they well cultivated.

The country is divided into four parts, *Belvedera*, *Chiarenza*, *Brazzo di Maina*, and *Saccaria*.

Belvedera, the most southern part, contains the ancient *Elis* and *Messenia*; and has the following places of note.

Coron, one of the most considerable towns in the Morea, is situated on the south side of a gulph to which it gives its name, about seventeen miles from Cape Gallo. It is strong both by nature and art. The city is of a triangular form, and opposite one of its angles is a large tower built on a rock. The town, where it is not washed by the sea, is defended by a fortress, encompassed by old thick walls, flanked with large towers.

At a small distance from the town is a suburb, consisting of about five hundred houses. The adjacent country affords plenty of fruit, corn, oil, and silk, which the inhabitants export with great advantage.

Modon, the ancient *Methone*, is seated on the southern shore, opposite the isle of *Sapienza*, and stands on a hill which projects into the sea, at the foot of which is a good harbour. It is a strong, rich, and trading city, the residence of the governor of the Morea, and a bishop's see.

Navarino, the ancient *Pylus*, stands on a rising ground, at the foot of which is the harbour, which is esteemed the best and most capacious of all the Morea, it being able to contain two thousand vessels. It is defended by two castles, one of which stands on a high mountain, and commands the entrance into the harbour on the north side, the other defends the entrance on the south, and at same time defends the city.

Arcadia, formerly *Cyparissa*, is now a mean place, from which a bay takes its name.

Langanico, the ancient *Olympia*, is seated on the river *Carbon*, and was once famous for the games celebrated on the neighbouring plains, every fifth year, from which the computation of time by olympiads took its rise. In this city was also a fine temple of *Jupiter Olympius*, in which the image of that god, which was of an amazing size and beauty, and esteemed one of seven wonders of the world. This city is now but a small and inconsiderable town.

Belvedere, by the Greeks called *Calloscopium*, is situated on the spot where the ancient capital of *Elis* stood. The town received its name from the delightful places round it.

The next division called *Chiarenza* or *Clarenza*, contains *Achaia*, properly so called, together with the following places, viz.

Chiarenza, or *Clarenza*, a pretty good town, seated at the bottom of a gulph on the western shore of the Morea; but it suffered much in the last Venetian war.

Patras, *Patrasio*, by the Turks called *Badra*, or *Balubathra*, is situated upon a hill at the foot of a high mountain, not a mile from the sea. This city is governed by a *cady*, who determines all controversies: here is also a *waywode*, who executes the determinations of the *cady*, and gathers the taxes and duties upon merchandize and provisions. The Turks, who are about a third part of the inhabitants, have six mosques here, one of which was formerly a cathedral church. The Jews, who make also another third part, have four synagogues, and a kind of policy among themselves; for they choose ancient men or elders to decide all the differences that arise amongst them. The whole number of Christians, Jews, and Turks, is computed to amount to about four or five thousand persons. It is the residence of a Greek archbishop, and gives name to the gulph which runs between the coast of the Morea, and the island of *Cephalonia*.

The currants of *Patras* are esteemed the best in those parts; but there are no great quantities of them. The trade of the inhabitants chiefly consists of raw silk, made in great quantities in the Morea. Leather is also cheap, as are also honey, wax, wood, and cheese.

Braccio di Mania, or *Takonia*, comprehends the ancient *Arcadia* and *Laconia*, and contains the following places, viz.

Mistira, the ancient *Sparta*, is situated on the river *Eurotas*, now called *Basilopotamus*. It consists of a castle, the city properly so called, and below it two large suburbs. The town and castle have each their distinct walls. The former is advantageously situated on the top of a mountain, and its walls are strong and kept in good repair. It is defended by eight or ten pieces of ordnance, and the whole garrison consists of eighteen or twenty janizaries, commanded by a governor, who seldom resides in the castle. The Turks imagine, that it can only be taken by famine, and have therefore provided it with magazines constantly filled with corn. Within the place are also cisterns kept full of water.

The town stands at the foot of the castle, which covers it to the north, and consists of two spacious streets, and several narrow lanes crossing them. The old market-place

place has a curious fountain, which throws up water from three brazen pipes, and near it is a church built out of the ruins of Minerva's temple. There are also the remains of four magnificent marble buildings, the Persian gallery, or portico, erected in memory of the victory gained by the Greeks at the battle of Platæa, the temple of Helena, the temple of Hercules, and that of Venus. In the town stands also the cathedral, which is a very noble building. The roof is supported by marble pillars; it has seven domes, and the pavement is a curious piece of Mosaic work. This is the see of a Greek archbishop, who is stiled metropolitan, and has a handsome and commodious palace, in which are lodgings for ten or twelve coloyers, or monks, who are dignitaries of the cathedral.

Towards the south-east part of the town is a convent of nuns, whose church, though not so large, is more beautiful than the cathedral. In one of the suburbs is another church, far more magnificent than the two already mentioned. The inside is adorned with very fine paintings; the marble of its columns is very beautiful, and adorned with the most curious workmanship, and both the portico and the domes are admirable. In each of these churches is a particular inclosure, within which the Greek women are placed separate from the men. In the same suburb stands the finest mosque the Turks have at Mistræ; it was built out of the ruins of antient Sparta. The domes are extremely noble, and its minarets most curiously wrought. Adjoining to it is the best endowed hospital of any in Turkey; provisions are there daily distributed to the poor, and extraordinary care is taken of the sick; and both Jews, Moors, Turks, and Christians are equally welcome. There are also at Mistræ two hans, or caravanseras, for travellers; both of which are fine buildings, particularly the new one, where there are chambers for the merchants, with stables underneath for their horses and other beasts of burthen.

They reckon near two thousand houses at Mistræ, and near as many in the above suburb; but the latter are by far the finest, and therefore the most considerable of the Turks live there; where they have pleasant gardens. The other village contains about a thousand houses, most of them inhabited by Jews, who have a synagogue there, as they have also at Mistræ and in the other village; the Sadducees have also particular synagogues and burying-places, and never intermarry with the other Jews.

The city of Malvesia, by the modern Greeks called Monembasia, and by the Turks Menewtsche, is seated on a little island, on the eastern coast of the Morea, near the mouth of the gulph of Neapoli, thirty-nine miles to the south-east of Mistræ. The island on which it stands is not above a pistol-shot from the continent, and is joined to it by a handsome stone bridge. The town is built at the foot of a steep rock, on the top of which is a good fortress. The walls of the city are towards the sea-shore, and in very good repair; those of the fortress are very indifferent; but its situation renders it in a manner impregnable, there being no ascent to it but by a very dangerous path. It has a pretty good harbour, and is the see of a Greek bishop.

The island on which the city is built is planted with fine gardens and vineyards, which produce that excellent wine called malmsey: but, as the island is small, it cannot produce a sufficient quantity of it to answer the demands of the public; they have therefore planted on the opposite shore a space of ground about eight leagues in extent, with vines from this island; the wine they produce is generally sold for malmsey, and is little inferior to it.

Maina is a town with a district belonging to it on the south part of the island. Its inhabitants, and those in the neighbourhood called Mainotti, are the descendants of the antient Lacedæmonians, and are still distinguished as the bravest of all the Greeks. Though their whole military force is said not to exceed ten thousand men, they have never been conquered, nor even rendered tributary to the Turks. Their country is on all sides surrounded with mountains. Their modern name is derived from *μδνία*, or madness, from their custom of rushing upon the enemy, as if actuated by a phrenzy.

The fourth district is Sacconia, or Romania Minor, which contains the antient cities of Corinth, Sicyon, and Argos.

Corinth, first called Ephyra, and now by the Turks Gerame, was built at the foot of a very high rock, on which stands a castle, that has a most beautiful prospect on every side. It was antiently one of the finest cities of all Greece, and abounded in magnificent buildings, such as temples, palaces, amphitheatres, monuments, baths, and other works, adorned with statues by the greatest masters, and beautiful porticos of columns, whose singular decorations and elegant capitals gave rise to the appellation of the Corinthian order. But these superb edifices are demolished, and all this magnificence buried in the dust; and the spot on which Corinth stood being filled up with fields and gardens, it rather resembles a village than a city. The buildings are not contiguous, but in clusters of half a dozen, ten, or sometimes twenty together, but seldom more, with gardens of orange, lemon, and cypress trees about them. This town has two mosques, and is still the see of a Greek archbishop, who lives in the cathedral, which is the only church here.

Nemea, a village famed for the antient Nemæan games, celebrated in honour of Hercules.

Sicyon, now called Basilica, was once a very considerable city, the capital of the antient kingdom of Sicyona, which stood upon a hill by the river Asopus, about eight miles to the west of Corinth; but is now only a heap of ruins.

Argos, a mean place on the river Najo, or Inachus, formerly a splendid capital, is the see of a bishop, and is defended by a citadel.

Mycene, a village, once the capital of a kingdom.

Napoli di Romania, in Latin Neapolis, was antiently called Nauplia. It stands on the top of a small promontory, thirty-six miles to the south of Corinth. The port, which is one of the best in the Morea, is secured against pirates by a little castle built on a rock, that defends the entrance into the harbour; which is so narrow, that only one galley can pass at a time, though the harbour is so spacious as to be able to contain a large fleet. There is but one avenue, and only one gate to get into the town on the land side; every where else the sea washes the walls, which are pretty strong, and flanked with old towers. Besides the above-mentioned castle, there is another on the north side. As the harbour is more secure, and has better anchorage than any other on the west coast, the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in corn, wine, oil, silks, cotton, and tobacco. The city is inhabited by Christians, Turks, and Jews, and is the see of an archbishop.

SECT. VIII.

Of LIVADIA, or GREECE PROPER.

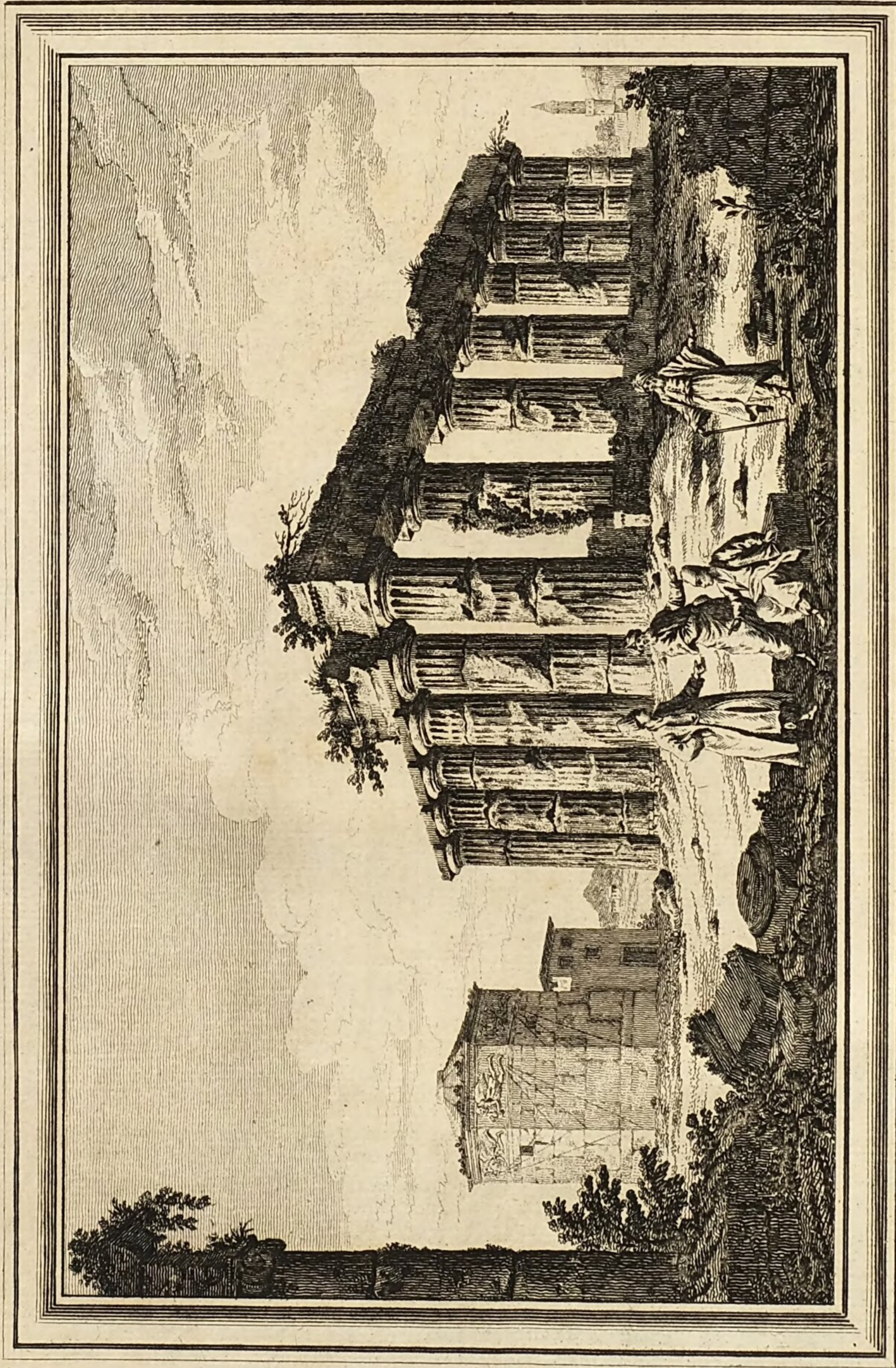
Its Situation, Extent, Mountains, Rivers, with an Account of the most remarkable Places now in that Country.

UNDER the name of Livadia is at present comprized antient Greece, properly so called, to which belonged the little kingdoms of Acarnania, Ætolia, Ozolæa, Locris, Phocis, Doris, Epicnemedia, Bœotia, Megara, and Attica. This province reaches from the Ionian sea to the Archipelago, and is bounded on the north by Epirus, now the streight of Negropont, and by Thessaly, now called Janna; on the east by the Archipelago; on the south by the gulph of Engia, or Egina, the isthmus of Corinth, and the gulph of Lepanto; and on the west by the Ionian sea, and part of Albania.

It is a pleasant and fruitful country, extending about a hundred and thirty miles from the south-east to the north-west, and is for the most part mountainous, containing Mount Oeta, in Bœotia, famous for the pass of Thermopyle, which was not above twenty-five feet broad, and derived its name from the warm baths in its neighbourhood; and for Mount Parnassus, sacred to Apollo; with Mount Helicon and Cytheron, consecrated to the Muses; all of them celebrated by the poets.

The

R U I N S of A T H E N S .



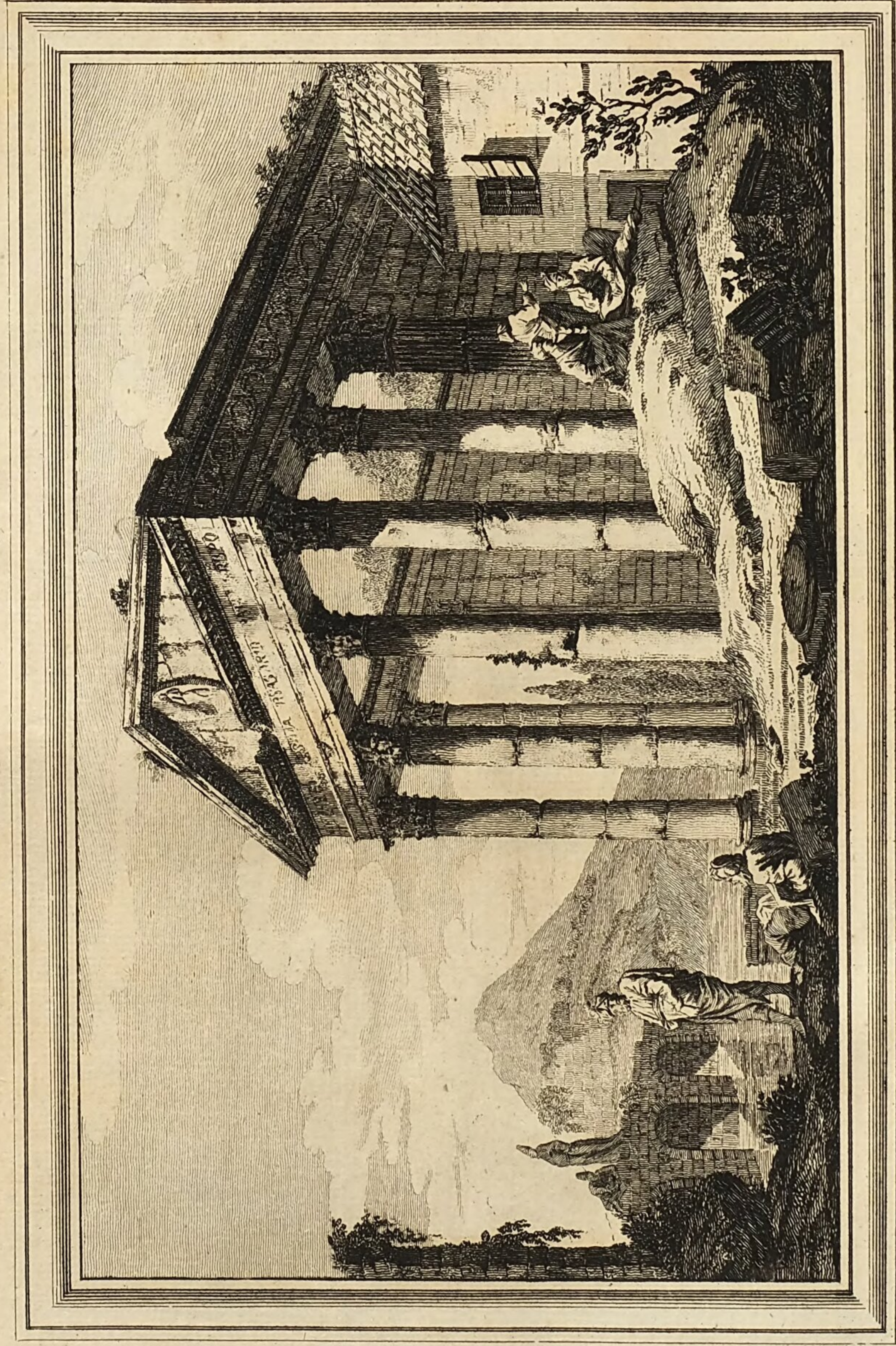
Tower of the Winds. Temple of Corinth. *Brooker Sculp.*



W. H. W. & C. S. A. 1844

W. H. W. & C. S. A. 1844

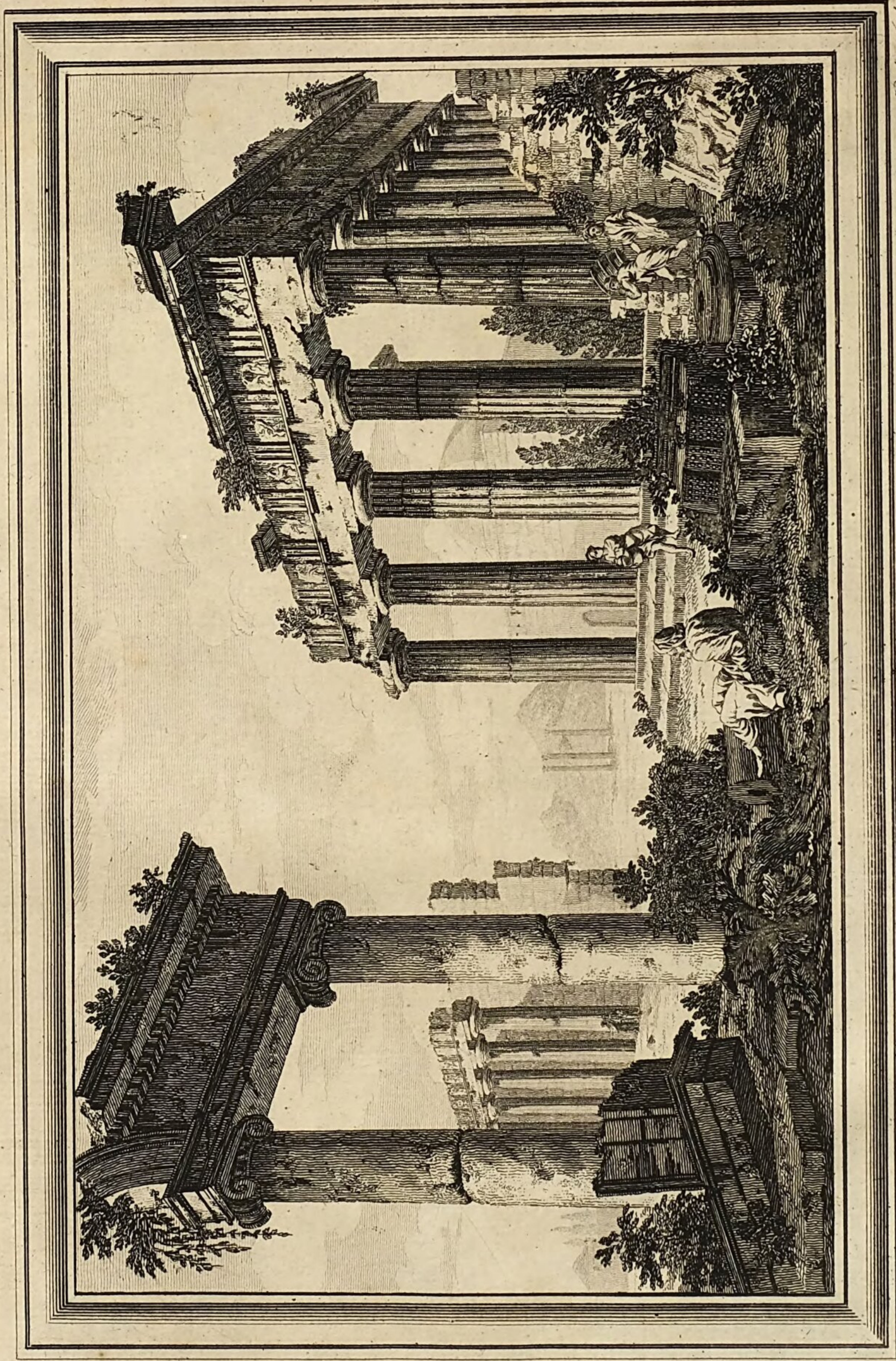
R U I N S of A T H E N S .



*Bridge over the River
Istria: Stadium.*

*Temple of Polus
in Istria.*

R U I N S of A T H E N S .



Hooker Sculp.

Temple of Minerva.

Hadrian's Aqueduct.

The principal rivers of this country are the Sionapro, the antient Achelous, which separated the Arcanians from the Ætolians; the Cephissus, that falls into the lake of Copai, which it properly forms; and the Ismenus, which probably ran into the Asopus, a river that discharges itself into the Archipelago.

The following places are at present the most remarkable:

Lepanto, the antient Naupactus, a town on a mountain that runs along the shore of the gulph of Lepanto, formerly termed the gulph of Corinth. On the summit of the mountain stands a small castle. The town is surrounded by a fertile country, covered with olive trees and vineyards, corn-fields, and plantations of oranges, lemons, and citrons.

The Dardanel, are two castles that defend the entrance of the gulph of Lepanto. Here the Venetians, in the year 1571, gained a most signal victory over the Turkish fleet.

Castri, the antient Delphi, or Delphos, is situated two Turkish miles to the north of the gulph of Lepanto, and stands on a bare mountain. It was antiently very famous for its temple and oracle of Apollo; but is now only a poor place, consisting of about two hundred houses.

Livadia, the capital of the province to which it gives name, is situated twenty-two miles to the north of the isthmus of Corinth, and built round a mountain which, terminates in a peak, on the top of which is an old castle. The river Hercyna rises out of the mountain by the castle with such a plentiful stream, that it turns a considerable number of mills in its passage through the town. This place is large and populous; it is inhabited by many rich Turks, who are here more numerous than the Christians, and have fine mosques. The Christians have four or five old ruinous churches; but there are but few Jews. The city is governed by a vaivode and a cady, and carries on a pretty good trade in woollen stuffs and rice. This town was antiently celebrated for the oracle of Tryphonius, which was in a cave in the hill above the town.

The lake of Livadia is five or six miles to the east of the city, on the north side of a large plain, entirely encompassed with high hills.

Megara, antiently the seat of a monarch, and afterwards the capital of a republic, so formidable as to be able to carry on a war against the Athenians and others, and to plant a colony in Sicily, is now but a poor village, and consists of about three or four hundred pitiful cottages, inhabited only by Christians, who get their living chiefly by tilling the earth, for which they have half the crop, the rest being paid to their Turkish landlords. They also make pitch, and saw boards and planks, out of the pines and firs that grow in great abundance on the neighbouring mountains.

Salona is seated upon a rock in the inmost recess of a fruitful valley, under an high mountain which rises to the northward, about twelve miles to the north-west of Livadia. It is defended by a castle on the top of the rock, and is a bishopric subject to the metropolitan of Athens. The number of Christians and Turks are about equal, the former having six churches, and the latter seven mosques; but no Jews are permitted here. The trade consists in some cotton, but chiefly in tobacco.

Athens, now Setines, the ancient capital of Attica, was at first called Cecropia, from Cecrops its founder; but afterwards was known by the name of Athens, which is derived from the goddess Minerva. Exclusive of its power, amazing grandeur, and opulence, it was highly celebrated for being the nursery of the most eminent philosophers, statesmen, orators, and great commanders. It was at first governed by kings, then by archons, but afterwards fell successively under the power of the Persians, Macedonians, and Romans. In later times it came under the dominion of the Turks, from whom it was taken by the Venetians. In the year 1455 the Turks retook it. In 1687 the Venetians again recovered it; but in the last wars between those two powers, it again fell into the hands of the Turks.

This city, once justly celebrated for the magnificence of its buildings, has no walls; but the avenues to it be-

ing shut by gates, are a sufficient security against the corsairs, which sometimes frequent the coast. The houses are built close together, and the streets are very narrow. The town, which is defended by a citadel, is divided into eight quarters. The inhabitants are computed to amount to about eight or ten thousand, three parts of whom are Christians, and the rest Turks; for no Jews are permitted to live amongst them. It is the see of an archbishop, whose revenue amounts to four hundred thousand dollars a year. There are said to be two hundred churches and little chapels in and about Athens, fifty-two of which have their peculiar priests; the rest are seldom used, except on the days of their founders, and are indeed only little oratories. The catholicon, or cathedral, is the best kept in repair, and the best adorned of any of them; but in reality is but a mean building, and, in point of magnificence, exceeds very few of the ordinary parish churches in England. Here are also several convents of monks and nuns. The Turks have five mosques; one in the castle was the Parthenion, or the stately temple of Minerva, and is now accounted the finest piece of antiquity in the whole world; but in the last Venetian war this building suffered much by the cannon.

The Acropolis, which is the citadel above-mentioned, is situated upon the summit of a rock, in a very considerable elevation above the circumjacent plains. The top of this rock is flat, and about three quarters of a mile in circumference, to which there is an almost perpendicular ascent on all sides, except to the north-west. Its figure is an oblong square, and it is flanked all round with a tolerable good wall. This fortress might be rendered almost impregnable. Besides the temple of Minerva, now a mosque, there is on the south side of the castle the theatre of Bacchus; the magnificent pillars, gate, and aqueduct of the emperor Adrian; the stadium, where the public games, called panathenæa, were exercised; the ruins of the areopagus; the odeum, or music-theatre; the temples of Theseus, Augustus, and Jupiter Olympius; the temple of the winds; the Pharos, or lantern of Demosthenes: all these are still to be seen, either entire or in part.

The two rivers, Ilissus and Eridanus, that water the plain in which Athens now stands, are very small; the former being diverted into several canals for watering the olive yards, and the latter lost amidst the many branches into which it is conveyed over the country. Athens had antiently three harbours, of which those named Phalareus and Munichia lay to the eastward, and Piræus to the west of a small cape. The latter being an inclosed spacious harbour, with a narrow entrance, is still much resorted to, and by the Greeks called Porto Drago, but by the Italians Porto Leone, from a pillar there in memory of a lion which was carried from thence to Venice.

Lepina, the antient Eleusis, now lies in ruins, and is in a manner destitute of inhabitants; but the remains of the magnificent temple of Ceres still invite travellers to visit this place, there being visible marks of a most superb structure, all of very fine white marble, adorned with excellent carvings and statues.

Stibes, or Stives, the antient Thebes, distinguished for its sumptuous temples, palaces, and other noble structures, has at present no remains of its antient grandeur, except its being the see of a bishop. Its present walls seem very antient, and it has a castle of an oval figure. It is said to contain three or four thousand souls. The Turks, who appear to be the least part of the inhabitants, have two mosques, and the Christians several churches.

S E C T. VIII.

Of JANNA, the antient THESSALY.

Its Situation, Extent, Mountains, Rivers, Fertility, and principal Towns.

THIS country derived its antient name from king Thessalus, and is bounded on the north by Macedonia, on the west by Epirus, on the south by Livadia, and on the east by the Ægean sea and the gulph of Salonica, extending about a hundred miles where longest, from east to west, and its greatest breadth from north to south, ninety. It was sometimes annexed to Macedonia,

sometimes divided from it, and then united to it again.

Among its once celebrated twenty-four mountains the most remarkable is Olympus, now called Lacha, which, from its uncommon height, was celebrated by the ancients as the residence of the gods; for they supposed it to reach up to heaven, though it is not much above an English mile in perpendicular height. Mount Ossa, together with Nephele, was, according to the fabulous accounts of antiquity, inhabited by the Centaurs, whom Hercules slew or drove out. Here also are situated the plains of Pharfalia, and between the mountains Olympus, Pelion, and Ossa, is the delightful valley of Tempe, which was so adorned with the gifts of nature, and so delightfully watered by the gently winding streams of the transparent Peneus, now the Salampria, that it was esteemed the garden of the muses.

The principal rivers in Thessaly are the Salambria, or Selampria, the Peneus of the ancients. It springs from the mountains that divide Epirus from Thessaly, runs across the latter from east to west, and, having watered the cities of Janna and Larissa, discharges itself into the gulph of Salonichi. Besides this, there is no other river worthy of notice but the Agriomela, called by the ancients the Sperchius, which springs from Mount Pindus, now Mezzovo, runs eastward through Thessaly, and falls into the gulph of Zeyton.

This country, in its amazing fertility, seems to exceed all other parts of Greece. It produces citrons, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon sweetness, excellent figs and melons, almonds, olives, chestnuts, cotton, and all sorts of grain. It was antiently famous for its breed of cattle and horses, from which, and the extraordinary skill of the Thessalians in horsemanship, the fable of the Centaurs is supposed to take its rise.

The most remarkable towns in this country are,

Larissa, or Larso, by the Turks called Jengishair, the capital, stands on the river Pineus, in a hilly and delightful part of the country. It is seated on a rising ground, with a large plain on the south, and Mount Olympus on the north. Over the river is a handsome stone bridge of nine arches; but the town has lost much of its antient grandeur, though it is still one of the most powerful cities in Greece. It is the see of a Greek archbishop, and yet the Christians are said to have but one church here. There are above two hundred Jewish families, most of them very rich, and a considerable trade is carried on, particularly in leather.

Tornovo is a spacious and pleasant city, in which are eighteen Greek churches, and three Turkish mosques. The present bishop is under the archbishop of Larissa.

Janna, or Jannina, from which the country receives its name, is seated in a little island formed by the river Peneus. It is inhabited by rich Greek merchants.

Zeyton stands on the bay of the same name, fifty miles to the south of Larissa, and was formerly defended by two large castles. Before the city is a beautiful and fertile plain, which abounds with corn-fields, kitchen-gardens, and orchards; and is surrounded by several villages, which, together with the many windings of the river Agriomela, afford a most delightful prospect. The city is inhabited both by Christians and Turks.

Armira, a town on the gulph of the same name, thought to be the Eretria of the ancients.

SECT. IX.

Of MACEDONIA.

Its Situation, Climate, Soil, Gulphs, Rivers, and Mountains; with a particular Description of Mount Athos and its Inhabitants, and of the principal Towns in Macedonia; particularly Salonichi, the antient Thessalonica, and Philippi.

MACEDONIA is of a very irregular figure; it is bounded on the north by Servia and Bulgaria, on the east by the Archipelago and Romania, on the south by Thessaly and Epirus, and on the west by Albania.

Its situation is advantageous, and the air clear, sharp, and wholesome. The soil is for the most part fertile,

particularly on the maritime coasts, which abound in corn, wine, oil, and whatever can be desired for use and pleasure; but in the inland parts are several uninhabited wastes. It had formerly mines of almost all kinds of metals, particularly gold. Here is great plenty of wood, and all kinds of timber; and its many fine bays are of great advantage to trade. The most remarkable of these are the Contessa, or the Sinus Strymonicus, Monte Santo, or the Sinus Singiticus, and the Salonichi, or the Sinus Thermæus.

The principal rivers are the Platamone, the antient Aliacmon, which runs into the bay of Salonichi; the Vistritza, the antient Erigon, which runs into the Vardar, the antient Axios, the greatest river in all Macedonia; and the Strymon, which rises in Romania, or Thrace, and discharges itself into the gulph of Contessa.

Among the many large mountains in this country is the chain of the Scardi, which traverses the northern part of it. Pangæus, formerly famed for its rich gold and silver mines. The mountain of Hæmus joins the Scardi, separating this country from Romania. Mount Athos is one of the most celebrated mountains in the whole world, and therefore deserves a particular description, which we shall give from that accurate geographer Dr. Busching.

Mount Athos, commonly called Monto Santo, lies on a peninsula which extends into the Ægean sea, and is indeed a chain of mountains, reaching the whole length of the peninsula, seven Turkish miles in length, and three in breadth; but it is only a single mountain that is properly called Athos. Its uncommon height appears from the accounts of Pliny and Plutarch, who affirm, that when the sun is at the summer solstice, probably a little before its setting, the mountain casts its shadow as far as the market-place of Myrrhina, in the isle of Lemnos, which, in the best maps, is fifty-five Italian miles distant; whence the height of Mount Athos may be inferred to be about eleven stadia.

It is evident from Ælian, that antiently the mountain in general, and particularly the summit, was accounted very healthy, and conducive to long life; whence the inhabitants were called Macrobii, or long lived. We are farther informed by Philostratus, in the life of Apollonius, that numbers of philosophers used to retire to this mountain for the better contemplation of the heavens, and of nature; and after their example the monks doubtless built their cells.

On it are twenty-two convents, besides a great number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of no less than six thousand monks and hermits; though the proper hermits, who live in grottos, are not above twenty: the other monks are anchorites, or such as live in cells.

These Greek monks, who call themselves the inhabitants of the holy mountain, are so far from being a set of slothful people, that, besides their daily offices of religion, they perform all manner of work, cultivate the olive and vineyards, are carpenters, masons, stone-cutters, cloth-workers, taylors, &c. They also live a very austere life; their usual food, instead of flesh, being vegetables, dried olives, figs, and other fruit, onions, cheese, and on certain days, Lent excepted, fish. Their fasts are many and severe, which, with the healthfulness of the air, renders longevity so common there, that many of them live above a hundred years.

In every convent are two or three studying monks, who are exempted from labour; but use exemplary diligence among the many writings to be found in their libraries; these are highly esteemed for the orthodoxy of their doctrines, and the sanctity of their lives; and here it is that the Greeks properly and chiefly learn their divinity. These convents and churches have bells, which are no where else allowed the Greeks; and are also surrounded with high and strong walls, planted with cannon, as a security from any surprize from Corsairs.

Besides churches and monasteries, the mountain has also a town called Kareis, inhabited by monks, and the residence of a Turkish aga, who commands here in the name of the bostangi basha, to defend the place against the corsairs, it being under the protection of that basha, to whom it annually pays twelve thousand dollars, and near

near as much more is paid at Salonichi for the use of the sultan. This heavy tribute is discharged by alms, and the liberal contributions of Russia, and the princes of Walachia and Moldavia. In this town a market is held every Saturday among the monks and anchorites, which last bring hither knives and little pictures of saints, and with the money they thus earn, they purchase bread; but the monks carry them about every where, and receive alms for them. No fowls or cattle are kept by the inhabitants of this mountain; but graziers on paying a consideration are allowed to fatten their cattle there. On this chain of hills formerly stood five cities.

The principal towns of Macedonia are Salonichi, the ancient Thessalonica, a celebrated trading city in the bay of the same name, and at present the most considerable city in Macedonia. It was once called Halia, and Therma; but Cassander rebuilt it, and in honour of his wife Thessalonica, the sister of Alexander the Great, gave it her name. To its admirable situation for trade is probably owing the regard which the several conquerors of Macedonia have shewn it. The advantages derived from it are such as are scarcely to be met with elsewhere; and as it attracted the encomiums of the ancients, so it has the admiration of the moderns.

This city, which is situated in twelve degrees twenty-three minutes east longitude from London, and in forty degrees forty minutes latitude, is one hundred and sixty miles to the north-west of the isthmus of Corinth, and stands partly on a hill, and partly on its declivity. In its neighbourhood runs the river Vardar, which abounds with fish, and its banks are adorned with beautiful trees. The city is said to be ten miles in compass; its walls are flanked with several towers, and it is defended by three castles: the first, which is the smallest, stands where people land from the sea, at some distance from the walls, and is furnished with twenty pieces of ordnance. The two others are within sight of the sea, on the highest parts of the wall, and are provided with forty heavy cannon. On the land-side is a fortress which commands the city, it being seated on a hill, at the foot of which is a large suburb encompassed by its own walls; but yet contiguous to the town. It is extremely populous; but most of those houses in the plain are too low, and hardly sufficient for the great number of Jews who inhabit them; nor are they less inconvenient on account of the offensive smell caused by the narrowness of the streets. In this city a great quantity of silk, wool, leather of all sorts, wax, powder, grain, cotton, and iron are continually worked. The trade is chiefly managed by the Jews, who have the monopoly of the manufactures of all the stuffs made for the use of the janizaries. The Jews have thirty-six large synagogues here, besides several small ones; and two colleges, to which youth flock from all parts to study. The Greeks have thirty churches, and the Turks forty-eight mosques, among which is one that was formerly a christian church, dedicated to St. Demetrius. This is distinguished by its beauty and magnificence, it consisting of one church built over another, and having in it above a thousand columns of marble, jasper and, porphyry. Among other stately remains of the ancient grandeur of this city are triumphal arches, one of which is almost entire, erected in honour of the emperor Antoninus, and without the city are a great number of antique fragments with inscriptions. Numbers of coins too are also found here.

This city is the residence of a Turkish basha, and likewise of a Greek archbishop, who has eight suffragans under him. The Christians were formerly so considerable, that St. Paul addressed two of his epistles to them. In the year 1313, the city was sold to the Venetians; but they were dispossessed of it about eight years after by Amurath II.

Philippi now an inconsiderable village, seventy miles to the north-east of Salonichi, stood on a hill betwixt the rivers Nessus and Strymon, on the borders of Thrace, to which in its most ancient times it belonged. It was at first called Crenides, or Spring-town, from the many springs issuing from the hill on which it stood; afterwards Dasos or Thasus, from the Thasii who built it,

and lastly Philippi, from Philip of Macedon, who, after reducing it, rebuilt it with considerable improvements; and from thenceforward it belonged to Macedonia. Near this place Brutus and Cassius were defeated by Octavius and Mark Antony. Under Julius Cæsar and Augustus it was a Roman colony. Here the apostle Paul preached, and wrote one of his epistles to the Christians of this city.

On approaching the place you first see the castle seated on the hill; it is very large, and its walls almost entire. On the several hills that surround the castle stand several other fortresses, which have a communication with it, encompassed by large walls that extend into the plain. Within the place are heaps of free-stone, and pieces of marble, but no footsteps of any buildings. Farther up you see a great number of edifices half demolished. It is easily perceived that there were here magnificent temples built of white marble, and noble palaces, the broken remains of which give the beholder the highest idea of the beauty of the ancient architecture. There are, however, only a few houses near the ruins of this celebrated city; and its inhabitants consist of a small number of poor Greeks, notwithstanding which it is the residence of a Grecian bishop, who styles himself metropolitan of Philippi and Drama.

Contessa is a small town twenty miles distant from the ruins of Philippi, and gives name to the gulph into which the river Strymon runs.

Cavalla is situated also on the same gulph between Contessa and Philippi. Its castle is still entire; but what appears more remarkable is, there being still in the neighbouring mountains long and thick walls, and several fortifications, which were probably built for the defence of the city. The walls extend to the top of the highest mountains, and seem to have been designed for shutting up the passes. There are at Cavalla the remains of an aqueduct, with a double row of arches, one over the other, which served to convey water into the city and castle. This place has some trade, and also gives its name to the gulph, which is sometimes called the gulph of Cavalla.

Emboli, the ancient Amphipolis, is seated upon the river Strymon, about six miles above its mouth, and was once famous as an Athenian colony; but is now a very inconsiderable place.

Pirlipe, a town situated among high mountains, which glitter like silver, and besides talc, abound also in metals and minerals.

S E C T. X.

Of ROMANIA, by the Turks called RUMILI.

Its Name, Situation, Mountains, Rivers, and Climate, with an Account of the principal Towns, and a particular Description of Adrianople.

THIS country, which received the name of Romania, either from the Romans, or from New Rome, or Constantinople, the seat of the eastern part of the Roman empire, is the ancient Thrace so often mentioned by the Greek and Roman historians. It is a spacious country, bounded on the north by mount Hæmus; on the east by the Red-Sea, the Hellespont, and Propontis, or Sea of Marmora; on the south by the Archipelago; and on the west by Macedonia, and the river Strymon.

It is situated between the thirty-ninth and forty-third degrees of latitude, and its utmost extent from the south-east to the north-west, that is from the city of Constantinople to the extremity of Macedonia, is about two hundred and eighty miles, and its breadth from north to south one hundred and eighty.

The country is mostly level, though interspersed with some large and remarkable mountains, the most considerable of which is mount Hæmus, which on the north separates Rumili from Bulgaria. The next in bigness is Rhodope, celebrated by the ancient poets for the catastrophe of Orpheus. Mount Pangæus separates this country from Macedonia, and Orbelus lies at no great distance from the river Nessus. Hæmus and Rhodope

dope are two long ridges of mountains, that extend from the frontiers of Macedonia to the Black-Sea.

The rivers worthy of notice are,

The Maritz, called by the ancients the Hebrus, which rises in mount Hæmus, and traversing Romania, falls into the *Ægean* sea. The Carasu, Mestro, or Nessus, rises in mount Rhodope, from whence it discharges itself into the *Ægean* sea; and the Strymon which rises in mount Pangæus, and also falls into the *Ægean* Sea.

The territories situated among the mountains are cold and barren; but those nearer the sea are pleasant and fertile, producing all kinds of grain, and other necessaries, particularly rice, which grows there in great plenty, and is remarkably good.

The country was anciently divided into many independent kingdoms; but the present inhabitants are Greeks, descended from the ancient Thracians, with a mixture of Turks. The flourishing state of the sciences and polite arts was chiefly owing to the Thracians; but at present there is scarce a person of any remarkable eminence in literature in all Romania.

The country is divided into three fangiackships, and is therefore governed by three fangiacks.

The fangiackship of Kirkeli lies to the north, near Mount Hæmus, and contains, among others, the following places:

Basartshick, a considerable town seated on the river Maritz, into which falls at this place another stream, which runs round the town. It is delightfully situated, and universally well built; the streets are broad and clean, and its inhabitants carry on a great trade.

Philippopoli, a very antient city, first founded by Philip, the father of Alexander the Great, from whom it received its name, is still a pretty large town. It is built on three little hills, which in a manner join. Upon one of these hills stands a quadrangular tower, which was once a fortification, but at present is only used for a watch tower. The Maritz, which begins here to be navigable, separates the town from the lower suburb, which is joined to the town by a good wooden bridge. There are here about a hundred and twenty Jewish families; but most of the citizens are Greeks, who have six churches, and it is the residence of a Greek archbishop.

Mustapha Basha Kiuperi, a town which takes its name from a very beautiful bridge erected there over the Maritz, by Mustapha Basha. This bridge consists of twenty arches, all of free-stone, and is said to have cost four hundred purses, or two hundred thousand rix-dollars.

The fangiackship of Byzia extends from the foot of Mount Hæmus to the sea of Marmora, and contains the following places:

Adrianople, called by the Turks Edrene, takes its name from Adrian, who founded or restored it. In the year 1360 sultan Amurath I. took it from the Christians, from which time it became the seat of the Turkish emperors, till they took Constantinople. It is of a circular form, surrounded with a wall and towers, and is said to be eight miles in compass. It has good houses, but narrow and unequal streets. The seraglio stands in a most delightful situation, the country all round being very beautiful; but the air is bad, and the river Maritz, on which it is situated, being dried up every summer, greatly contributes to render it unwholesome: but during the rest of the year it is a very pleasant stream, over which are two noble bridges. The bazar, or exchange, founded by Ali Basha, extends half a mile in length; the roof is arched, and kept extremely neat. It holds three hundred and sixty-five shops, furnished with all sorts of rich goods, which are exposed to sale in the same manner as in Exeter Exchange, in London. The pavement is kept remarkably neat, and the shops as clean as if just painted. Idle people of all sorts walk here for their diversion, or amuse themselves with drinking coffee or sherbet, which are cried about as oranges and apples are in our play-houses. Most of the rich tradesmen here are Jews. Near it is the Sherki, a narrow street a mile in length, covered on the top with boards to keep out the rain, that merchants may meet conveniently in all weathers. The Besisten near it is another exchange,

built upon pillars, where all sorts of horse furniture is sold, and is seen every where glittering with gold, rich embroidery, and jewels, especially when the court is there.

The mosque of Sultan Selim I. is a building well worth the curiosity of a traveller. It is advantageously situated in the midst of the city, and in the highest part of it, whence it is seen on every side to great advantage. The first court has four gates, and the innermost three. They are both of them surrounded with cloisters, with marble columns of the Ionic order, finely polished, and of very lively colours. The whole pavement is of white marble, and the roof of the cloisters divided into several cupolas, or domes, headed with gilt balls on the top. In the midst of each court are fountains of white marble; and before the great gate of the mosque is a portico, with columns of green marble, and five gates. The mosque is covered by one prodigious dome of a vast height.

The lady Wortley Montague, who has given the only intelligible and consistent description of this mosque, and was perhaps the only Christian that ever entered it, says, she thought it the noblest building she ever saw. On the inside it has two rows of galleries, supported by columns of red and white marble, with marble balustrades; the pavement is also marble, covered with Persian carpets. The walls are encrusted with Japan china, in flowers of the most lively colours. In the middle of this structure hangs a vast lamp of silver gilt, and about two thousand of a smaller size, which must have a glorious effect when all are lighted. Under the large lamp is a great pulpit of carved wood gilt, and just by it a fountain to wash. In one corner is a little gallery enclosed with gilded lattices for the sultan; and at the upper end is a large niche, very like an altar, raised two steps, and covered with gold brocade. Before it stands two silver gilt candlesticks the height of a man, and in them were wax candles as thick as a man's waist.

The outside of the mosque is adorned with towers of a prodigious height, gilt on the top, from whence the imaums call the people to prayers. To each of these towers there is but one door, which leads to three different stair-cases, rising to the three different stories of the tower, in such a manner that three priests may ascend, rounding, and descend, without meeting each other; a contrivance very much admired.

Behind the mosque is another exchange full of shops, where poor artificers are lodged gratis.

There are some other mosques built much after the same manner, but not comparable in point of magnificence, to that just described.

Selivrea, the antient Selimbria, is a celebrated port on the sea of Marmora. It has an old ruinous castle, which stands on an eminence, and was formerly very strong. The town is neatly built, and has a bridge of thirty-two arches. In the suburbs is an imperial granary, into which the grain of the province is brought. Here is a famous antient Greek church; but it is an ill built edifice, set out with the same sort of ornaments as the Romish churches, but these are less rich. They here pretend to shew a saint's body, and a picture of the Virgin Mary, drawn by the hand of St. Luke, very little to the credit of his painting; but no picture among the papists is more famous for its miracles. The Greeks have indeed a monstrous taste in their paintings, which, for more finery, are always done upon a gold ground; and they have no notion of either shade or proportion. This town is the see of a bishop.

Heraclea, antiently Perinthus, was formerly a large city; though now it is but a mean palace. It has a good harbour, and is the residence of an archbishop. Here are abundance of fragments of statues, entablatures, columns, and there are still to be seen the remains of an amphitheatre built in the time of the emperor Severus.

Rodoso is a large and populous trading town, lying on the sea of Marmora. It is situated upon the brow of a hill, at the bottom of a bay, and makes a handsome appearance towards the sea.

Belgrade, a village near Constantinople, situated in the midst of a wood, consisting chiefly of fruit-trees, watered by a great number of fountains, famous for the excellence

of their water, and divided into many shady walks, with-in view of the Black sea, from whence a cool breeze perpetually arises that make the inhabitants insensible of the heat of summer. This village is only inhabited by the richest among the Christians.

We might here give a description of Constantinople, which is situated in this sangiacship; but, as that will take up a considerable length, we choose to defer it till the next section.

The third sangiacship is that of Gallipoli, which extends from Mount Rhodope to the Archipelago. To it belongs,

Trajanopolis, antiently called Zernis, but being repaired and beautified by the emperor Trajan, about the end of the first century, was called by his name. It is still the see of a bishop, though the town is but small, and very thinly peopled.

Demetia, a town on the Maritz, the residence of a Greek bishop. Here Charles XII. king of Sweden, spent some time in the year 1713.

The Thracian Chersonesus, which is in this division, is a peninsula washed on the eastward by the sea of Marmora and the Hellespont, on the south by the Archipelago, on the westward by a gulph into which falls the small river of Melas, and on the north it is joined to the continent by a tract of land, the breadth of which was reckoned by the antients to be about thirty-seven stadia. It formerly contained eleven towns, but at present the following are the principal of note:

Gallipoli, the antient Callipolis, was built by Callias, prince of the Athenians, from whom it received its name, and is still a large town, situated on the celebrated strait by the antients called the Hellespont, which divides Europe from Asia, and is said to contain ten thousand Turks, three thousand five hundred Greeks, and not quite so many Jews. The inhabitants are famed for making excellent arrows. The Bazar is a handsome building, with several domes covered with lead. The town has no walls, and is only defended by a castle and an old tower.

At the entrance of this strait, next the Archipelago, are the celebrated Dardanells, two castles which command the whole strait, and are the key of Constantinople. One of them stands in Europe, on the most southern point of the Thracian Chersonesus, where the straits begin, and the other opposite to it in Asia. That in Europe only consists of one round tower, with some out-works; close to which stands a village. Both these castles were built by Mahomet II. in 1452; but, in the year 1656, the Venetian fleet forced their way through, and drove the Turkish fleet ashore. On a rock in the middle of this strait stands a tower, on which the Turks have some small cannon; this serves the mariners as a mark to steer by, and is only used by the Turks as a watch-tower. "Since I have seen this strait, says the ingenious lady Wortley Montague, I see nothing improbable in the adventure of Leonidas, or very wonderful in the bridge of boats of Xerxes. 'Tis so narrow, 'tis not surprising a young lover should attempt to swim, or an ambitious king try to pass his army over it. But then 'tis so subject to storms, 'tis no wonder the lover perished, and the bridge was broken."

S E C T. XI.

Of the Names and Situation of Constantinople; with a concise History of that City: its agreeable Climate, and a Description of its principal Buildings.

THE city of Constantinople, the antient Byzantium, by the Turks called Istambul, the capital of the Turkish empire, is situated on the most eastern part of Romania, on a neck of land which projects towards Nattolia, from which it is separated by a strait about a mile broad. It stands in the forty-first degree of latitude, and the twenty-eighth degree forty minutes east longitude from London; and is also called the sublime Porte, the sublime sultanian Porte, the Port of justice, majesty, and felicity. The appellation of Porte is said to be derived from the large and magnificent port or gate built by Ma-

homet II. at the principal entrance of the seraglio, or imperial palace.

The antient Byzantium was built by Pausanias, king of Sparta, but afterwards becoming subject to the Romans, it was demolished by the emperor Severus, in order to punish the rebellion of the inhabitants. It was, however, afterwards rebuilt by Constantine the Great, who called it New Rome, and removed the seat of the empire thither; but afterwards called it Constantinople, from his own name.

This city, after being the capital of the Eastern empire almost three hundred years, was first besieged in the reign of the emperor Phocas by Chozroes, king of Persia, who blocked it up for eight years together, till it was delivered by Heraclius in the year 611, who on this account obtained the empire.

In 672 it was besieged in the reign of the emperor Constantine Pogonates by Yefid, the son of Moavia, the first caliph of the family of the Ommiades; when the Greek emperor was so pressed, as to be almost reduced to despair; for while the Saracen army lay before it on the land side, they blocked it up with a prodigious fleet at sea. But Callinicus, a famous engineer, invented a kind of wild-fire, that would burn under water, and by this means is said to have destroyed the whole fleet.

In 717 this city was again besieged by Moslemah, the brother of Solyman; but was relieved by Leo the Isaurian, who caused the emperor to be shaven and confined in a cloister, and then seated himself on the throne.

In 780 Haroun Alraschid, son of the caliph Matradi, invested Constantinople with a prodigious army, when the Greek empire being governed by Irene, as regent to her son Constantine VI. surnamed Porphyrogenetes, she was so hard pressed, as to be glad to deliver herself by a treaty, in which she promised to pay an annual tribute of seventy thousand pieces of gold to the caliph. Thus this part of the Roman empire became tributary to the Saracens.

The Greek empire now began to decline, and that of the Mahometans had greatly increased, when crusades, produced by bigotry, began to be formed, under the pretence of recovering the Holy Land. These crusaders committed the greatest barbarities in the Eastern empire; and in one of these expeditions Baldwin, earl of Flanders, in the year 1204, surprised Constantinople, notwithstanding its being a Christian city, and caused himself to be proclaimed emperor of the East; but dying in less than a year, he was succeeded by his brother Henry, earl of Flanders, who held the government ten years; and, at his death, Peter Courteney, of that noble family, which still subsists in England, having married his daughter, succeeded to the throne; but was killed in the sixth year of his reign. His son Philip resigned the empire to his brother Robert, who was murdered, after a reign of seven years, when Robert's son, Baldwin II. though a child, succeeded, under the tutelage of John de Brenne, who stiled himself king of Jerusalem.

At length, in the year 1232, Batu, grandson to Gengiskan, the founder of the Tartar empire, after over-running Moscovy, Poland, Silesia, Bohemia, and Hungary, advanced through Bulgaria to besiege Constantinople, when the Eastern and Western Christians uniting, gave him battle, defeated him, and obliged him to abandon his design.

In the year 1259, or, according to others, in 1262, Michael Paleologus recovered Constantinople from Baldwin Courteney; from which time it continued in the possession of the Greek emperors, till the year 1453, when Mahomet, emperor of the Turks, laid siege to that city on the ninth of April, and took it by storm on Tuesday the twenty-ninth of May, the Greek emperor being, as some say, killed in the breach, or, according to others, trampled to death by his own soldiers in their flight. From this time it has been the seat and capital of the Turkish empire.

The climate of Constantinople is extremely delightful; it would indeed be very hot in summer, were it not cooled by a breeze which blows every afternoon from the mouth of the port; and in winter the air is so moderate, that lady Wortley Montague, in one of her letters, mentions her being writing of it on the fourth of January

with the windows open, enjoying the warm sun-shine; while her friends in England were freezing at a sea-coal fire, and her chamber set out with carnations, roses, and jonquils, fresh from her garden.

The city is of a triangular figure, and has the most agreeable and most advantageous situation in the world. It seems as if the canal of the Dardanells, and that of the Black sea, were made to bring thither the riches of all the four quarters of the earth. Those of the Mogul, the Indies, China, and the remotest parts of the north, come by the way of the Black sea; and by the White sea, or sea of Marmora, come the merchandizes of Arabia, Egypt, the coast of Africa, the West Indies, and whatever is produced in Europe.

To the north of the city lies its harbour, which is both convenient and of so large extent, that it is said to be able to contain a thousand ships, it being formed by an arm of the streight which runs north-west up into the country, and is joined by a river. It is encompassed with walls, which have twenty-two gates, six towards the land, as many along the port, and ten on the streight of the sea of Marmora, antiently called the Propontis: these have all landing-places and stairs. The fortifications, however, are too antique and ruinous to make any tolerable resistance against an enemy.

The city stands, like antient Rome, on seven hills, and makes a grand appearance from without, rising gradually from the shore in the form of an amphitheatre. The unequal heights of the buildings make it seem as large again as it is, showing an agreeable mixture of gardens, pine, and cypress-trees, palaces, mosques, and other public buildings, beautifully rising one above another; but it is not equal within to the ideas formed of it when viewed from the Black sea; for the streets are narrow and slippery, running along a declivity, and most of the houses are low, built only of wood and mortar; but are crowded with inhabitants. The best houses stand in the places least subject to any great concourse of people, and where the city is most thinly inhabited; for the finest buildings are without the city near the harbour.

The castle of the Seven Towers joins the walls on the continent side to those that lie upon the sea of Marmora, but is only used as an honourable prison. On the outside it has two large figures in white marble, done in basso relievo, one of which seems to be Endymion, and the other Diana coming to visit him. There are also the nine muses, and the horse Pegasus, all done by a good hand. A square tower stands in the sea, at about two paces from the city walls, where it is said Justinian imprisoned his brave general Belisarius.

By this tower is a spring, for which the Greeks have a great veneration; and, upon the day of Christ's transfiguration, carry their sick to it, give them some of the water, and cover their bodies for some time with the sand; by which means they pretend that surprising cures have been performed.

Near this spring stands the kiosk, or pleasure-house, of the overseer of the gardens. This is a pavilion just without the walls of the seraglio, affording a view of the sea of Marmora and the Thracian Bosphorus. Beyond this kiosk are many cannon planted level with the water, to secure the entrance into the port, and the seraglio, should any attempt it by force; and in the center of the place where these cannon are fixed is one of the four posterns of the seraglio, called the Gate of the Gardens; it has two large turrets, and is guarded by two companies of gardeners, who keep all from entering at this gate, except the officers of the seraglio.

On passing the cannon and doubling the cape, you come to two kiosks, built by Sultan Solyman, to take a view of the men of war as they sail out and come in, and to divert himself with his women. Both of them are adorned with gilt cupolas and alcoves, with rich sofas, and every thing fit for so great a prince. At these pleasure-houses some small gallies and faics attend to receive the Grand Seignior and his train whenever he pleases to divert himself on the water.

The word seraglio signifies no more than a palace. This edifice is of a triangular figure; but is rather a collection of palaces and apartments joined together by the emperors, as their several fancies led them, than one

single building. It is a mile and a half in compass, and is inclosed by a strong wall that has several watch-towers, on which guard is kept day and night; and though it has many gates, both on the sea and land side, only that towards the sea is daily used, and the rest never opened but upon some particular occasions. The principal gate is of marble, and by the Turks called Capi, or the Porte; and from hence you enter the first court, in which are the mint, the infirmary, and other buildings. The second court is called the Divan-Court, the great council-chamber being there, with the kitchen, the treasury, and stables. To the north adjoining to the divan is the seraglio, properly so called, through which is a narrow passage that leads to the audience-chamber, which is of amazing magnificence, particularly the throne. Thus far ambassadors are permitted to come, and no farther dare any foreigners approach, though not a few travellers have had the boldness to say, that they have penetrated the apartments of the women, and have even described the bedchambers of the sultan.

The gardens take in a large compass of ground full of high cypress trees. The buildings are all of white stone, and have gilded turrets and spires, which have a very magnificent appearance, and it is said that the palace of no Christian king is half so large. It has six large courts all built round, and set with trees for the use of the Sultan, and his officers; and on the ladies side, there are said to be as many more.

As no credible author can give a just description of the inner part of the imperial seraglio, we shall here give one of a grand vizier, who was killed at Peterwaradin, and which he built to receive his royal bride, the daughter of a late sultan. This description we shall take from the letters of the ingenious and learned lady, with extracts which we have already embellished this work. "It is situated, says she, on one of the most delightful parts of the canal, with a fine wood on the side of a hill behind it. The extent of it is prodigious, the guardian assured me, there are eight hundred rooms in it; I will not, however, answer for that number, since I did not count them; but it is certain the number is very large, and the whole adorned with a profusion of marble, gilding, and the most exquisite painting of fruit and flowers. The windows are all lashed with the finest glass brought from England, and here is all the expensive magnificence that you can suppose in a palace founded by a vain luxurious young man, with the wealth of a vast empire at his command. But no part of it pleased me better than the apartments destined for the bagnios. There are two built exactly in the same manner, answering to one another; the baths, fountains, and pavements all of white marble, the roofs gilt, and the walls covered with Japan china. Adjoining to them are two rooms, the uppermost of which is divided into a sofa; and in the four corners are falls of water from the very roof, from shell to shell of white marble, to the lower end of the room, where it falls into a large basin, surrounded with pipes that throw up the water as high as the room. The walls are in the nature of lattices, and on the outside of them, there are vines and woodbines planted, that form a sort of green tapestry, and give an agreeable obscurity to those delightful chambers. I shall only add, that the chamber destined for the sultan when he visits his daughter is wainscotted with mother of pearl, fastened with emeralds like nails. There are others of mother of pearl, and olive wood inlaid, and several of Japan china. The galleries, which are numerous and very large, are adorned with jars of flowers, and porcelain dishes of fruit of all sorts, so well done in plaister, and coloured in so lively a manner, that it has an enchanting effect. The garden is suitable to the house, where arbours, fountains, and walks, are thrown together in an agreeable confusion. There is no ornament wanting except that of statues."

The next remarkable structure is that of St. Sophia, which was formerly a Christian church, built in the sixth century by the emperor Justinian. This is a very noble edifice. The dome is said to be one hundred and thirteen feet in diameter, built upon arches, supported by vast pillars of marble: the pavement and stair-case are

also of marble. There are two rows of galleries supported with pillars of a party colour marble, and the whole roof is covered with mosaic work, which decays very fast, and part of it has fallen down. In this structure they show the tomb of the emperor Constantine, for which they have a high veneration. It was with great difficulty the lady Wortley Montague obtained permission to see this structure, and even the mufti was consulted upon the occasion.

Though the mosque just described is generally represented as the noblest building in Constantinople, there are others which seem still more beautiful. That of Sultan Solyman is an exact square, with four fine towers in the angles. In the midst is a noble cupola supported by fine marble pillars, and two smaller at the end supported in the same manner. The pavement and gallery round the mosque is of marble. Under the great cupola is a fountain, adorned with pillars of such beautiful colours, that they seem to exceed nature. On one side is the pulpit of white marble, and on the other a little gallery for the sultan, which is ascended by a fine staircase, with gilt lattices. At the upper end is a kind of altar, where the name of God is written, and before it stand two candlesticks, as high as a man, with wax candles as thick as three flambeaux. The pavement is spread with fine carpets, and the mosque illuminated with a vast number of lamps. The court leading to it is very spacious, and encompassed with galleries supported by columns of green marble, and on two sides covered with twenty-eight cupolas, with a fine fountain in the middle. In all the mosques are little chapels, where are the tombs of the founders and their families, with wax candles burning before them.

This description may serve for all the mosques in Constantinople; for the model of all is exactly the same, and they differ only in size and the richness of the materials. That of the Sultana Valida is the largest, and built entirely of marble. It was founded by the mother of Mahomet IV. The lady we have just mentioned observes, that the size is prodigious; that it is the most beautiful structure she ever saw; and that St. Paul's church at London would make but a pitiful figure near it. She observes too, that this would be the case with any of our squares were they compared with the alterdan or place of horses. This was the Hippodrome in the reign of the Greek emperors. In the middle of it is a brazen column of three serpents twisted together, with their mouths gaping; for their heads are not broken off, as some travellers have pretended. It is impossible to learn the reason for which this pillar was erected: the Greeks can tell only fabulous legends in relation to it, and there is no sign of its ever having had any inscription. At the upper end of this square is an obelisk of porphyry, brought from Egypt; it is adorned with hieroglyphics, which are all entire, and is placed on four little brazen pillars upon a pedestal of square free-stone filled with figures in bas-relief, on two of its sides, one square representing a battle, the other an assembly. On the other sides there are Greek and Latin inscriptions.

The historical pillar mentioned by several authors is no more; it fell down about fifty years ago. Among the other antiquities are the aqueducts, which are prodigiously large, and as ancient as the Greek empire, tho' the Turks have cut upon them some Turkish inscriptions, to give them the honour of having performed so great a work.

The Greeks have thirty churches, and the Armenians a great many. The Roman catholics have also more than one, and the Swedes have been permitted to build a Lutheran church here. The Greek patriarch has a palace, which stands on a hill about two hundred paces from the harbour near the patriarchal church, which is dedicated to St. George.

The exchanges are all noble buildings, consisting of fine alleys, the greatest part with their roofs supported by pillars, and kept wonderfully neat. Every trade has its distinct alley, where the merchandize is disposed in the same order as in Exeter-Exchange in London. The jewellers quarter is extremely rich, and shews such a vast quantity of diamonds and precious stones of all

kinds, that they dazzle the sight. The embroideries are also very rich. The markets are most of them handsome squares, admirably well provided, and affording every thing in the greatest plenty. The other public buildings are the hans and monasteries of dervises; the first are very large and numerous, the second few in number, and not at all magnificent.

The number of people in Constantinople have been computed at eight hundred thousand. The plague, which visits the city every year, frequently makes dreadful havoc: the city has also often suffered by fires, some of which have destroyed from fifty to seventy thousand houses at once. In the year 1754, it suffered much by an earthquake, a fire breaking out at the same time. In 1755 and 1756, two other dreadful conflagrations happened here.

On the west side of the city are the suburbs of Ejap, or St. Job. The country along the streight into the Black-Sea is covered with towns and villages, noble seats, gardens, meadows, vineyards, and woods. The chief officers of the court generally reside there in spring, summer, and the beginning of autumn, both for the benefit of the fresh air, and in order to be near the emperor, who spends the summer at Besictash, where he has a seraglio.

Galata is a suburb surrounded with walls, towers, and moats. This and the following suburbs are situated on the opposite side of the harbour. The inhabitants of Galata are chiefly Greeks, Armenians, Franks, and Jews, who choose it for their residence, for the sake of living more at liberty than in the city. The catholics have a few churches here, and the Greeks have six. Here also are the warehouses of the merchants, and near them close to the harbour is the dock.

At no great distance is Pera, which is also a handsome suburb standing on an eminence, and is the quarter where the Christian envoys reside, though it is principally inhabited by wealthy Greeks. The air is healthy, and the prospect extremely pleasant.

Tophana, which is so called from its cannon foundery, may be considered as another of the suburbs of Constantinople, and lies directly fronting the imperial seraglio.

S E C T. XII.

Of B U L G A R I A.

Its Situation, Extent, Name, Rivers, Mountains, hot Springs, and principal Towns.

THIS country, which was formerly called the Lower Mysia, is bounded on the north by the Danube; on the eastward by the Euxine or Black sea; on the south by Mount Hæmus, which separates it from Romania, last described; and on the westward by Servia. Its greatest length, from east to west, is about two hundred and eighty miles; and its breadth, from north to south, about a hundred and eighty.

It was antiently subject to Thrace; but being conquered by the Romans, it at length, on the division of that empire, fell to the share of the Eastern emperors. Upon the declension of the empire, it was subdued by a people from Asiatic Sarmatia, supposed to have come from the banks of the Volga; from whence some derive the name Bulgaria, from a corruption of Volgaria. Others maintain, that the people who gave their name to this province were called Bulgar, or Bolgar, and the people originally called Bulgares. However, they rendered this country a part of the kingdom of Hungary, and possessed it till it was taken by Amurath II. emperor of the Turks, about the middle of the fifteenth century, since which it has continued under the government of that empire.

The Danube, which runs through this country for the space of eighty miles, receives the Ister of Axiopolis. There is here another river, called the Ishar, which rises in Mount Hæmus, and falls into the Danube near Nicopolis.

The country is in general very mountainous, but the valleys and plains are extremely rich and fruitful, producing

ducing wine and corn in the greatest plenty. The mountains too are also far from being barren, and in particular afford excellent pasturage. Thus that of Stara Plamina, though bare and desolate towards its summit, is extremely fertile in the middle and lower part.

At the foot of the mountain which divides Bulgaria from Servia is a warm bath, where the water gushes out in a stream that is said to be of the bigness of a man's body, and yet but sixty paces from it is another spring in the same valley as cold as ice; but, from the smell, it evidently appears, that they both contain nitrous and sulphureous particles. Upon this mountain is a Greek convent for monks of the order of St. Basil. On the frontiers of Servia, between the mountain of Suha and the river Nissava, are several warm baths, whose waters are of a sulphureous quality, and issue from the mountain deeply tinged with red sand and stones. At the foot of Mount Witoscha, towards the borders of Romania, are likewise four warm baths of great repute, and the mountain has not only iron mines, but is covered with villages, corn-fields, vineyards, and pastures.

Among the natural curiosities of this country are also the vast number of large eagles in the neighbourhood of the town of Babadagi, where the archers all over Turkey and Tartary supply themselves with feathers for their arrows, though each eagle has no more than twelve fit for their use, and those only in the tail. These feathers are commonly sold for a lion dollar.

The inhabitants, who were antiently renowned for their martial achievements, now apply themselves to graziery, agriculture, and handicraft employments. Their language is Slavonic, but differs a little from the Servian in pronunciation. Some of the inhabitants are Greeks, and others Mahometans. The Greek church has here a patriarch, though he is not acknowledged as such by the other patriarchs, and also three archbishops.

The country, being governed by four sangiacs, is consequently divided into four sangiacships. The sangiacship of Sardic contains the following towns:

Sophia, called by the inhabitants Triaditza, is a very large and populous trading town, well built, but open. It is situated on a large beautiful plain, and surrounded with distant mountains. 'Tis hardly possible to see a more agreeable landscape: but the streets are narrow, uneven, and dirty, being paved only in the foot-ways. However, every house has a garden well planted with fruit-trees and shrubs. The Ischa in some places runs along the skirts of the town, and in others passes through it. The principal part of the traders here are Greeks or Armenians. It is the residence of a beglerbeg, and was built by the emperor Justinian out of the ruins of the antient city Sardica. It is one of the greatest thoroughfares in Turkey, since all who travel from Constantinople to Ragusa, Venice, or into Hungary, must pass through this town; but the air is so unwholesome, from its being surrounded with marshes, that it would be in a much less flourishing condition were it not for the residence of the beglerbeg. The mountains to the south make the winter continue longer than the summer, and are the cause of frequent rain. This town is famous for its hot baths, and for their medicinal virtues.

Among the hills, where the steep rocks and dreadful precipices scarce admit of any access, is Trajan's gate, which that emperor erected in commemoration of his marching with his army through this country, where he made a road through places before impassable. This gate consists of two stone pillars, which support an arch representing a large open gate; but this building is now very ruinous: it consists of hewn-stone and bricks; the curious in antiquity have been, however, too busy in taking off the stones, which has greatly effaced this stately monument. In the mountains leading to this gate are several iron works, and a boiling spring.

Ternowa, the antient Ternobum, was formerly the capital of Bulgaria, a royal seat, and fortified, though at present it is but a mean place. It is situated about a hundred and twenty miles to the east of Sophia, is the residence of a patriarch, and has still an archbishop, who is stiled archbishop of Ternowa and all Bulgaria.

The sangiacship of Bibin, or Widin, among other places, contains,

Widin, by the antients called Viminacium, a strong fortification on the Danube, and a bishop's see. In 1739 the Hungarians made a fruitless attempt upon this place.

Colombotz, or Golombotz, a well fortified castle seated on a mountain, at the foot of which is the strong pass of Urania.

This sangiacship also contains several other fortresses, and some pretty good towns.

The sangiacship of Nicopoli contains,

Nicopoli, or Nigepoli, a large town on the Danube, defended by a castle, and rendered famous in history by the first unfortunate battle fought there between the Christians and Turks in the year 1396, when the emperor Sigismund was defeated by Sultan Bajazet, and lost twenty thousand men; though Bajazet is said to have bought the victory so dear as to have sixty thousand slain.

Preslaw, antiently called Marcianapolis, was built in honour of Marciana, sister to the emperor Trajan; its present name signifies an eminent city.

The fourth and last sangiacship is that of Silistria, which contains the following places:

Silistria, a large and fortified town, situated on the Danube. It is a bishop's see, and stands at a small distance from the remains of the wall erected by the Grecian emperors against the inroads of the barbarous nations, sixty-six miles to the eastward of Nicopoli. Its great antiquity appears from the nature of its walls, which are evidently of Roman, and not Turkish architecture. Very few of the inhabitants are Turks.

There are several other towns, but as they are in general small and inconsiderable places, and have nothing worthy of observation, we shall not trouble our readers with a repetition of their names.

The district of Drobrudsch, which extends to the mouth of the Danube, is an entire plain, interspersed neither by woods nor rivers; though at the end of it is a wood called by the Turks Dali-Orman, or Fools-Wood. The inhabitants, who derive their origin from Tartarian emigrants, are famed for their singular hospitality, which is so great, that when a traveller of any religion or country passes through any of their villages, all the house-keepers of both sexes come out to salute him, intreating him in the civilest manner to take up his lodging with them, and kindly accept of what God has been pleased to bestow. The person whose invitation the traveller accepts entertains him and his horses, if they do not exceed three, for the space of three days, with a cordiality and cheerfulness that can scarce be paralleled. He sets honey and eggs before him, in both of which this country abounds, and very fine bread baked in the embers. They also build a little house for the reception of strangers in particular, with couches round the hearth for travellers to use as they think proper.

Having described the Turkish empire in Europe to the west of the Archipelago, the sea of Marmora, and the Black sea, we shall, before we proceed to describe the more western regions, give a description of the European islands of the Archipelago, the Mediterranean, and the Ionian seas.

SECT. XIII.

Of the principal Islands of Greece, in the Archipelago; containing a concise Description of whatever is most remarkable in each, with respect to their Antiquities and present State.

THE most natural method of classing the many island on the coasts of the countries we have just described, seems to be dividing them according to the seas in which they lie; that is, into those of the Archipelago, the parts about Candia, and in what was formerly called the Ionian sea.

The islands of the Archipelago, antiently termed the Ægean sea, lie to the east of Turkey in Europe, and are comprized by antient geographers under two general names; those called the Cyclades, or the Circle Islands, from their forming a kind of circle round Delos; and those

those which lying scattered at a greater distance from Delos were called the Sporades, or Scattered Islands.

Samondrachi, the Electria and Dardania of the ancients, lies near the coast of Romania, and was famous for the worship paid to certain deities called Cabiri, who were held in such high veneration, that it was thought profane even to mention their name. The town of Samondrachi is situated on a mountain that commands a prospect of its spacious harbour.

Embro, or Lembro, the ancient Imbros, is a mountainous island over-grown with woods, harbouring wild beasts and game. It has four villages, one of which bears the same name as the island, and is defended by a castle. It had formerly a town of the same name consecrated to the Cabiri and to Mercury.

Thassus, the ancient Aeria, or Aethria, lies in the gulph of Contesso, and was once famous, even to a proverb, for its gold mines, its fertility, excellent wine, and marble.

Stalimene, the ancient Lemnos, is a fruitful and well cultivated island, seated opposite the streight of the Dardanells. It is of a quadrangular form, about twenty-five miles over: but the eastern part of the island is dry and barren. It has two mountains, which were once volcanoes, and was formerly sacred to Vulcan, whom the inhabitants worshipped as their patron. This island has always been famous for a kind of earth, or bole, called from the place *terria lemnia*, and from the seals or marks stamped upon it *terra sigillata*. It is thought an excellent remedy against poison, the bite of a serpent, wounds, and the dysentery. It is dug up with many ceremonies, that were probably first introduced by the Venetians. The principal Turkish and Christian inhabitants of the island meet on the sixth of August, and on that day only, at a chapel called Sotira, half way between the village of Cochino and the mountain where the earth is found, and from thence proceed in procession to the top of the mountain, where the Greek priests read the Liturgy; after which several persons appointed for that purpose begin to dig, and as soon as they discover a vein of the desired earth, give notice of it to the priests, who fill small hair bags with it, which they deliver to the Turkish governor and other officers present. After they have taken up as much as they think proper, they fill up the place again, and return back in procession as before. Some of the bags are sent to the sultan, and the rest marked with his seal, or with these words, *Tin imächton*, or, The sealed earth, and sold by the *sangiac*, or his deputies, to the inhabitants and foreign merchants. The *sangiac* must send an account to the sultan's treasury of the money annually produced from it; and the inhabitants are punished with death if they keep this earth in their houses, export, or trade in it without his permission. In this island was formerly a famous labyrinth, which consisted of a stately building, supported by forty pillars of an uncommon height and thickness. This island is the residence of a Greek bishop; the principal places here are Cochino, the ancient Hephestias, and Lemno, or Stalimene, formerly Myrina.

Sciro, antiently Sciros, is of a triangular or rather pyramidal form, with a ridge of mountains that cross it two ways. It has a little town of the same name, which is the see of a Greek bishop: besides this town, which has a safe harbour, it has several villages. The country is stony and barren, and has some quarries of marble. The Greek families in the island are computed at about three hundred.

Negropont, antiently Eubœa, and afterwards from its capital called Egripos, is situated on the coast of Livadia, and extends in length from the south-east to the north-west above a hundred miles, but its greatest breadth does not exceed twenty-five. It is, next to Candia, by far the largest island in these seas, and is supposed to have been antiently joined to the continent by an isthmus, that was broke either by the violence of the waves, or by an earthquake. It is divided from the continent by a streight called the Euripus. This island is very fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle in such abundance, that all sorts of provisions are extremely cheap. The mountain of Caristo is famous for its excellent marble, and the stone *amianthos*, or *asbestos*, of which incombustible cloth was made, was also found here. About the year 1470

this island was attacked by Sultan Mahomet II. with a fleet of two hundred sail, and a hundred and twenty thousand men; he took it, and the Turks have possessed it ever since. The chief towns in the island are,

Negropont, called by the Greeks Egripos, seated on the south-west coast of the island on the narrowest part of the streight, over which is a small stone bridge of four or five arches, that leads from the coast of Livadia, to a little tower in the middle of the channel, from whence to the town of Negropont is a draw-bridge, no larger than just to let a galley pass through. The walls of the town do not exceed two miles in compass; but there are more buildings and people in the suburbs of the Christians, without the walls than in the city, which is inhabited only by Turks and Jews. The number of inhabitants in both is computed to amount to fourteen or fifteen thousand. The Turks have four mosques, one of which was the cathedral of St. Mark, and the Christians have a bishop, and several churches in the suburbs. This is the chief residence of the captain *basha*, or admiral of the Turkish fleet, who is also governor of the island, and the adjacent parts of Greece, and the harbour is seldom without a fleet of galleys.

Castel Rosso, the ancient Carystus, is a good city, with a commodious harbour on the south-east coast of the island, fifty-five miles to the south-east of Negropont. It is a bishop's see, and very populous. In its neighbourhood were formerly some quarries of marble. Four or five miles to the north-east of this city is Cape Doro, the ancient Caphareum, which is so surrounded with rocks, that it is dangerous to come near it.

The Euripus or streight that divides this island from the continent, has been long celebrated for the stated irregularities of the tide. The jesuit Babin observes, that in the first eight days of the month, and from the fourteenth to the twentieth inclusive, and also in the three last days, it is regular both in its ebb and flood; but on the other days of the lunar month very irregular; the ebb and flood returning sometimes eleven, twelve, thirteen, and fourteen times within twenty-four or twenty-five hours. This irregularity has baffled the researches both of the ancients and moderns.

Andra, the ancient Andros, is eighty miles in circuit, and is one of the most pleasant and fruitful islands in the Archipelago; it is watered by innumerable springs, and has prodigious plenty of wine, oil, barley, and all kinds of delicious fruits; but its greatest riches consist in its silk, in which the inhabitants carry on a great trade. The port is a pretty good one, and the town of Arna adjoining to it, has about two hundred houses. It is the residence of a cady and aga, as also of a Romish and Greek bishop. At some distance from the town may be seen the remains of a large and strong wall, with several columns, entablatures, and pedestals, on which stood statues, and various inscriptions, some of which mention the senate and people of Andros, and the priests of Bacchus; whence it is supposed that here stood the city of Andros. In the island are also between thirty and forty villages, and four or five thousand inhabitants, most of them Greeks, with a colony of Albanians. There are many Greek churches in the island, the Romans also have six churches, with a cathedral dedicated to St. Andrew, and the jesuits have a church dedicated to St. Veneranda.

Engia, or rather Ægina, as it is still called by the Greeks, is situated in the gulph of the same name, and is about thirty miles in circumference. There is only one town in the island, which is said to consist of above eight hundred houses, and is defended by a castle, which stands above it, and is remarkable for the fine prospect it affords of many of the islands, and the coast of the continent. In this castle are about eighty houses, and two churches adjoining to each other, the one for the Greeks, and the other for the Latins. This island produces great plenty of corn, almonds, honey, wax, and cotton.

Colouri, the ancient Salamis, lies towards the bottom of the gulph of Engia, near a promontory, between which and this island runs a streight, which in its narrowest part is not above a mile over. This island is about fifty miles in compass, and has a spacious harbour

on the west side, of an oval figure, on which stands a town, which has the same name as the island; but is said to have only about one hundred and fifty poor cottages, and about four hundred persons. There are two villages, one of them named Metropis, seated on a hill, and the other called Ambelachi, situated near the strait, where the ancient city of Salamis stood. This island is famous for the important victory gained there by the Greeks over the Persians, in which the fleet of Xerxes was defeated by Themistocles.

Porus, the ancient Calabria, lies next to the shore of the Morea; it is about eight miles in compass, and is remarkable for being the place to which Demosthenes was banished.

Zia, or Cea, the ancient Ceos, was formerly famous for its fertility, pastures and figs, and is fifty miles in compass. It now produces corn and wine, and the harbour is full of fish. The town of Zia, which gives name to the island, is situated upon an eminence, in the neighbourhood of the ancient city of Carthea, of the ruins of which, as well as of the ancient city of Zulis, some remains are still visible. Those of the last take up a whole mountain. Near this place are to be seen the ruins of a magnificent temple. The houses of Zia are built of stone and earth, with flat roofs, as are all the houses in the Levant, and are ranged on the side of a hill, like the benches of an amphitheatre. On this island resides a Greek bishop.

Tine, the ancient Tenos, is very mountainous; but in many parts abounds with excellent fruit, and still more in silk. The wine of this place was much admired by the ancients. Besides the town, which is defended by a castle, this island contains between thirty and forty populous villages. Here are also a Greek and Latin bishop, the former of whom is very rich, there being many churches and chapels, and five monasteries of the Greeks in the island.

Mycone is thirty-six miles in compass, and produces wine, figs, and some olives, with barley enough to supply the inhabitants; but has little water and wood. The inhabitants are mostly Greek Christians, and have magistrates of their own religion; but a Turkish officer comes every year to collect the tribute paid to the Porte. A cady also sometimes visits them, and holds courts of justice there. In this island are upwards of fifty Greek churches, and several convents of monks and nuns, tho' they are not very well filled: among these the convent of nuns of Paleo Castro, which is situated in the midst of the island, is the principal. The city of Micone is seated on a large harbour; but the number of its inhabitants is variously represented. This island is said to produce the best sailors in the Archipelago, and has at least five hundred sea-faring men, and above one hundred barks, besides forty or fifty saics for the trade to Turkey and the Morea; that of Turkey chiefly consists in goat-skins, and the Morea trade is chiefly in wine.

Delos, once a celebrated island, but at present a desert rock, is not above seven or eight miles in circuit; it is three times as long as it is broad, and is a secure retreat for the corsairs. This being the imaginary birth-place of Apollo and Diana, it was held in the highest veneration, and its oracle of Apollo was the most celebrated in the world. Here are still to be seen the remains of the celebrated pillar of Apollo, and several noble fragments of the famous temple consecrated to him.

Rhenæa, anciently called the great Deli, lies near the last mentioned island, and has fine pastures; but from the dread of the corsairs it is now uninhabited, though it was anciently extremely populous, as appears from the many stately ruins to be found there.

Syra, the ancient Syros, is mountainous, but produces good wheat, and plenty of barley, wine, figs, olives, and cotton. The air is moist, and cooler than in the neighbouring islands. The inhabitants, except a few Greek families, are of the Romish religion. The town of Syra is built round a little steep hill, and between it and the harbour may be seen the remains of superb buildings, which made a part of the ancient city of Syros.

Thermia receives its present name from the *Thermæ*, or hot springs found there: it is thirty-six miles in circumference, and is not so mountainous as the other islands. The soil, when well cultivated, produces large quantities of barley, wine, and figs; with plenty of honey, wax, silk, and as much cotton as the inhabitants require for their own use: it has also a vast number of partridges. The Greek Christians in this island are computed at sixteen thousand. In the city of Thermia is a bishop, with about fifteen or sixteen churches, and several convents. The people are esteemed very honest, and the women virtuous, handsome, and neatly dressed. The inhabitants are governed by a cady, and four procurators, chosen from among themselves. On the island are still visible the ruins of two cities, one of which on the south coast, must have been of extraordinary splendor.

Siphanto, the ancient Siphnus, is thirty-six miles in compass, and enjoys a wholesome air, good water, and a fertile soil that produces great plenty of fine fruit, with grain sufficient for the support of its inhabitants: here is also no want of tame and wild fowl, and other game. It is said to have once had rich gold and lead mines; but the inhabitants knew nothing of the former, and the latter are not worked. The number of people is computed at five thousand, who inhabit five or six villages, and are chiefly Greeks, yet they are said to have above five hundred chapels, four convents of monks, and two of nuns. The island has five secure harbours, and a castle in a rock near the sea.

Milo, anciently called Melos, consists almost entirely of one hollow porous rock, which is macerated, as it were, by the sea water, and the heat of a continual subterraneous fire is felt by only putting the hand into the holes of the rock: a place in the island is always burning, and the earth around it smoaks like a chimney. Great quantities of allum and sulphur are found; for here allum grows in some natural caverns in the form of flat stones, between nine and ten inches thick. The island also produces plume allum, which grows on the rock. Sulphur is found in one particular place perfectly pure, and as it were sublimated; this is in a cavern, the bottom of which is full of sulphur continually burning. The water in the lower grounds is unfit for common use, and at the foot of a mountain, between the town and the harbour, are baths and some springs, so hot as to scald one's finger. The island abounds in iron mines; but though its surface is in general mountainous and rocky, it has many delightful plains, where the soil is extremely fertile, and produces great plenty of corn, exquisite fruits, especially grapes, melons, and figs; with honey, flesh, fowl, game, and fish. The inhabitants are Greeks, and are said to be given up to voluptuousness, and entirely insensible of the danger of their situation; and there is both a Greek and a Latin bishop. The town of Milo has an excellent harbour, at about the distance of half a mile; it contains about five thousand persons, and was it not for its extraordinary filthiness, it would make a tolerable appearance.

Paros, the antient Platea, is seventeen miles to the east of Siphanto, and about thirty-six miles in compass. It is well cultivated, and the inhabitants feed abundance of flocks. Their trade consists in corn, wine, pulse, sesamums, and calicoes; and, before the Candian war, they had a great deal of oil; but the Venetian army burnt all the olive trees, during the nine or ten years in which they continued there. This island has always been famous for its fine white marble, known by the name of Parian marble, and had also most excellent artists for working it. It was once opulent and powerful; but now contains only fifteen hundred families. The celebrated antiques, called the chronicle of Paros, are marbles that have Greek inscriptions performed on this island, and purchased in the year 1627, by Thomas Howard, earl of Arundel; who, in 1667, presented them to the university of Oxford, and they are now called the Arundelian marbles. These inscriptions form the most authentic piece of antient chronology, they being carved two hundred and sixty-four years before the Christian

era; and contain a space of above three hundred years. The town of Parichia seems to stand on the ruins of the antient Paros, the walls and houses being decorated with several fine remains of that city; and there are ancient monuments to be seen in the adjacent country. The Penagia, or Madonia, without the city, is the largest and most splendid church in the Archipelago. There are a great number of churches and chapels in this island, and also several considerable villages. A large fleet may lie conveniently and securely in the harbour of St. Maria; but the usual anchoring-place for the Turkish navy is Drio, on the west side of the island.

Antiparos, the antient Oliaros, stands about two miles to the west of Paros, and is only a rock about sixteen miles in circuit; yet in some part of it is well cultivated, and produces as much barley as serves a small village. The port is navigable only for small barks. This island is remarkable for a grotto, which is one of the greatest curiosities perhaps in nature, and seems to prove one of the most important truths in natural philosophy, the vegetation of stones. This grotto appears to be about forty fathoms high, and fifty broad: the roof forms a pretty good arch, which every where entertains the eye with an infinite variety of figures of a white transparent crystalline marble, representing vegetables, marble pillars, and a superb marble pyramid; all which appear to be natural.

Nixia, the antient Naxos, is a hundred and twenty miles in compass. This is the most fertile island in all the Archipelago, and its wine still maintains its former excellence. Its plains are covered with citron, orange, olive, pomegranate, apple, mulberry, cedar, and fig trees. It was also famed for a kind of marble called by the Greeks ophites, it being green speckled with white like a snake, and some mountains on the western coast afford emery, whence the Italians called the adjoining cape Cape Smerigli, or Cape Emery. It was taken from the Turks by the Venetians, and there are still several noble families in it descended from the latter. All the people of the island do not exceed eight thousand, and there is but little harmony between the Greeks and the Latins, who have each an archbishop here; the former of whom is rich, and has a handsome cathedral. The inhabitants have such violent feuds among themselves, that sometimes they will not speak to one another as long as they live; in this the women are said to be more obstinate than the men. The inhabitants, like those of most of these islands, have the choice of their own magistrates; but sometimes a cady takes a circuit among them, and to him appeals lie. The island contains between forty and fifty villages, and only one town, which is seated on the south side of the island, and is defended by a castle. About a musket shot from it stands, on a rock near the sea, a beautiful marble portal, amidst a heap of fragments of marble and granite, supposed to have been a temple of Bacchus. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in barley, figs, wine, cheese, salt, oxen, sheep, mules, oil, cotton, silk, flax, and emery.

Patino, Palmosa, or Palmora, the antient Patmos, is by some geographers placed in Asia, and by others in Europe; it is about eighteen miles in compass, and has only one well built town, in the middle of which is the castle called the Monastery of St. John, inhabited by two hundred Greek monks. St. John the Evangelist being banished into this island, is said to have written here his Revelations. In their church they carefully keep a body shut up in a case, which they pretend to be that of St. John, and shew a cave where they say he wrote his Apocalypse. There are about three thousand persons in the island, all of whom are Christians, who pay tribute to the Grand Seignior; but the soil being dry and rocky, they find it difficult to live: though no Turks reside in the island, the corsairs put in there to carcen and take in fresh water.

Amorgo, antiently Amorgos, extends from north to south, and does not exceed thirty-six miles in compass: it is exceeding steep towards the south-east, but enjoys a good soil, and produces excellent wine. The town is built in the form of an amphitheatre round a rock, with a castle upon it. At about three miles distance stands a large Greek convent. The island is well cultivated, and

yields oil enough for the inhabitants, and great plenty of corn and wine.

Policandro is eight miles in compass: it is a pleasant island; but has no port, and only a creek on the south-east side. It has but one village, in which there are three well built churches, two monasteries of men, and a convent of women. There are no other houses in the island besides those of this village. The island is rocky, and affords a scanty subsistence to its inhabitants, who are an honest, civil, and courteous people; and carry on some trade in cotton.

S E C T. XIV.

Of Candia, and the Islands lying about it; with a very particular Account of the rising of some new Islands by Means of Earthquakes.

CANDIA, the antient Crete, one of the largest and most celebrated islands in the Mediterranean, is situated between the thirty-fourth degree forty minutes and the thirty-fifth degree forty minutes of north latitude, and between the twenty-third degree fifty minutes and the twenty-seventh degree six minutes east longitude from London; and being a long and narrow island, extending from east to west, its greatest length, from Cape Garabusa to Cape Solomon, is about a hundred and sixty miles; and its greatest breadth, which is towards the middle, does not exceed forty-four miles; every where else it is much narrower. It lies south-east of the Morea, before the mouth of the Archipelago.

The people breathe a pure air; but the south wind is dangerous, and sometimes suffocates those who are exposed to it.

Above half the island is covered with rocky barren mountains, the most famous of which is Psiloriti, the antient Ida, the highest in the island. This is now one continued barren rock, and, for the greatest part of the year, its summit is covered with snow. The only thing it produces is the tragacantha, famous for its gum. This mountain commands a view of both seas.

This island has many springs and rivulets of excellent water, but no rivers proper for carrying boats.

It has many valleys and plains remarkably fertile; and though not half of these are cultivated, yet the country not only abounds in wine, but also supplies strangers with oil, wool, cheese, silk, honey, wax, and opium. Their wine and wheat are excellent; their silk would be exceeding good, did they but know how to manage it; their honey is admirable, and smells of the thyme with which the whole country abounds. The quince-tree was first brought into Italy from the town of Cydonia, in this island, and was therefore called by the Romans the Cydonian apple.

In the island are abundance of cows, sheep and swine, hares and rabbits. There is no want of poultry, and great plenty of pigeons, turtle-doves, woodcocks, red partridges, and wheat-eats.

The antient poets make frequent mention of the hundred cities of this island, on which account it was called Hecatompolis; but it had many more, a hundred and twenty occurring in antient writings; and under the emperor Valentinian I. above a hundred towns were overthrown and destroyed by an earthquake.

The island had originally its own kings; but the republican form was afterwards introduced. It was first subdued by the Romans, and continued subject to the Eastern emperors, till the year 823, when it was conquered by the Saracens; from whom it was recovered again in the year 962. It was afterwards taken by the Genoese, who ceded it to Boniface, marquis of Montferrat; and he, in 1204, sold it to the Venetians. In 1644 the Turks made a descent, and, after a siege of twenty years, reduced the whole country, which, except a few forts, the Venetians were obliged to cede to them at the peace in 1669; and in 1715 the Turks made themselves masters also of the Venetian forts; since which time the island has been entirely in their possession.

The inhabitants are Greeks, who have an archbishop; and Armenians, Turks, and Jews.

In most of the villages the houses are built of rugged unhewn pieces of white marble, joined with mud instead of mortar: they have but one floor, which is divided into two or three apartments. The roof is formed of faggots placed upon joists, and covered with a kind of terrafs.

The city of Candia, the capital of the island, is seated about the middle of the northern coast. It stands on the ruins of Heraclea, which, with great probability, is supposed to have been the same with Matium. The city at present is, however, little better than a desert, except the market-place and a few of the adjoining streets, where the principal inhabitants reside; in the rest there is hardly any thing but rubbish, occasioned by the last siege, which was one of the most considerable that was undertaken in the last century. The harbour is also choaked up, so that no other vessels but boats can enter it. There are computed to be in this city about eight hundred Greeks, who pay the capitation or poll-tax, and their archbishop is the metropolitan of the whole island. The Armenians have but one church here, and are about two hundred in number; and the Jews amount to about a thousand. The rest of the inhabitants are Turks, among whom is a considerable body of janizaries. The country about Candia consists of spacious and fruitful plains, enriched with all sorts of grain; but the exportation of wheat is prohibited, without first obtaining leave from the beglerbeg.

The second city in point of rank is Canea, the antient Cydonia, which stands on the northern coast, and is said to contain above fifteen hundred Turks, two thousand Greeks, fifty Jews, and about a dozen French merchants, who have a consul. It is the see of a Greek bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Candia. This town is pretty strong, it having a good wall faced with stone, and defended by a deep ditch. The entrance of the port is defended on the left by a small fortress, where there is a light-house. The castle is on the left, beyond the first bastion. The houses are very indifferent, and the best of them never exceed two stories high; the first of which, or the ground-floor, has a parlour, warehouse, cellar, and stable. The walls are of brick, with free-stone angles. The ascent from the first floor to the second is by a wooden ladder, set almost perpendicular. The second floor is also divided into several apartments, and covered with deal boards, supported by joists of oak laid two or three feet asunder. On the outside it is covered with earth tempered like mortar, well beaten, and then paved with small flint stones and pebbles. The terrafs is made a little sloping for the rain to run off. In fine weather they walk on these terrasses, and when it is very hot lie upon them. Every house has commonly besides these flat roofs a small terrafs on the same floor with the second story; but this is properly only an open room, adorned with pots of flowers. The country about Canea is extremely delightful, and the forests are diversified with lofty olive-trees, pleasant fields, vineyards, flower-gardens, and streams shaded with myrtle and laurel.

The third city in point of rank is that of Retimo, which stands on the northern coast of the island, twenty-six miles to the west of Candia. The city is encompassed by a mean wall, and is defended by a citadel, which stands on a steep rock that stretches out into the sea. The country about Retimo is all rock on the west side; but towards Candia it is very delightful, nothing being to be seen along the shore but gardens. Cherries are earlier here than in any other part of the island, and all the fruit is better tasted. Their silk, wool, honey, wax, and oil are preferred to all others. The water that supplies the town gushes out of a narrow valley about a mile to the southward, and they have cut a channel to bring it to Retimo; but they lose one-half of it by the way. On the road leading to the valley is a handsome mosque, and in the court before it a han, or caravanfara, where travellers, who arrive after the gates of the town are shut, or design to set out before they are opened, may lodge and eat gratis.

The village of Gartina stands amidst the ruins of a noble city, named Gortyna, about six miles distant from Mount Ida, at the foot of low hills, just at the entrance

of the plain of Messaria, which is properly the granary of the island. These ruins are an evident proof of the magnificence of that city, but it is impossible for a stranger accustomed to contemplation to behold them without concern. The people plough, sow, and feed sheep amidst a prodigious quantity of marble, jasper, and granite, wrought with the most admirable art; and, in room of the great men who once caused these stately edifices to be erected, are only to be seen shepherds and husbandmen.

One of the greatest curiosities of this island is a cave, called the labyrinth, which runs under a small mountain at the foot of Mount Ida, in a thousand intricate meanders, without any appearance of regularity, and is generally thought to be a work of nature. The entrance is a natural aperture, seven or eight paces broad; but in some places so low, that there is no going in without stooping. The ground is rugged and uneven; but the top level, consisting of a horizontal layer of stones. The principal passage, in which there is less danger of bewildering one's self than in the others, is about twelve hundred paces in length, and reaches to the end of the maze, where are two spacious chambers. The most dangerous part of the main walk is about thirty paces distant from its mouth; for if a person happens to take any other course, he is immediately lost, amidst the innumerable windings of this maze, and then it is no easy matter for him to find his way out; on which account travellers always provide themselves with guides and torches. There is little appearance of this place having ever been a stone-quarry, and whether it was ever the famous labyrinth of Crete, is far from being satisfactorily proved.

To the northward of Candia is the island of Santorini, that is Sant Erini, thus named from St. Irene being its patroness. This island, which was antiently called Calista, and afterwards Thera, is about thirty-six miles round; and the coast is so craggy and rugged as to be almost inaccessible, and great part of the island is covered with pumice-stones; yet the inhabitants have, by their labour, rendered the island fruitful, particularly in barley and wine, which is of the colour of rhenish, and cotton, which grows in great plenty. It also produces some wheat. The inhabitants, who are computed to amount to ten thousand, are all Greeks, but one-third of them are of the Latin church, and subject to a popish bishop. There are five populous villages in the island, and several castles erected on the coast.

Cerigo, the antient Cythera, is an island which was in a particular manner consecrated to Venus, and is situated between Candia and the Morea; but being mountainous and rocky produces little corn, wine, or oil, it has therefore no great number of inhabitants, but does not want for sheep and fowls, both tame and wild. The principal town, which is on the south side of the island, has a castle on a very steep rock; but the harbour below it lies open to the south winds.

Acroteri is an island famous in natural history; it seems to be composed of pumice-stones, incrustated with a surface of fertile earth, and the ancients represent it as rising in a violent earthquake out of the sea. Four other islands near Santorini had the same origin, and yet the sea is here of such a depth, as to be unfathomable by any sounding line. The first, which is in the harbour of Apanormia, a port of Santorini, was antiently called Hiera; but is now named Megali Cammeni, that is, the Great Burnt island, rose out of the sea after a violent earthquake in the nine hundred and sixth year before the birth of Christ; and in the beginning of the eighth century, a new island suddenly appeared with a terrible explosion, and adhered to the island of Hiera, which by this means became considerably enlarged. The second island, which lies a little without the harbour, was antiently called Therasia; but now from its whiteness, is named Aspronisi, and sprung from the sea in the first century. In 1573, a sudden fire bursting out of the sea, soon produced a new island, to which was given the name of Micri Cammeni, or the Small Burnt island. Another island arose in the years 1707 and 1708, between this island and great Cammeni. The reader will not be displeased at seeing here a particular account of this

this extraordinary phenomenon; for no circumstance can be more worthy of being preserved in a system of geography, than the birth of an island.

On the twenty-third of May 1707, after an earthquake that happened the night before, the last mentioned island was discovered early in the morning by some seamen, who taking it for a wreck, rowed immediately towards it; but finding rocks and earth instead of the remains of a ship, halted back, and spread the news of what they had seen in Santorini. How great soever the apprehensions of the inhabitants were at the first sight, their surprise soon abated, and in a few days, seeing no appearance of fire or smoke, some of them ventured to land on the new island. Their curiosity led them from rock to rock, where they found a kind of white stone that cut like bread, which it nearly resembled in its form, colour, and consistence. They also found many oysters sticking to the rocks; but while they were employed in gathering them, the island moved and shook under their feet, upon which they ran with precipitation to their boats. With these motions and tremblings the island increased, not only in height, but in length and breadth; yet sometimes while it was raised and extended on one side, it sunk and diminished on the other. Our author observed a rock rise out of the sea, forty or fifty paces from the island, which having continued four days, sunk and appeared no more; but several others appeared and disappeared alternately, till at last they remained fixed and unmoved. In the mean time the colour of the surrounding sea was changed: at first it was of a light green, then reddish, and afterwards of a pale yellow, accompanied with a noisome stench, which spread itself over part of Santorini.

On the sixteenth of July the smoke first appeared, not indeed from the island, but from a ridge of black stones which suddenly rose about sixty paces from it, where the depth of the sea was unfathomable. Thus there were two separate islands, one called the White, and the other the Black island, from their different colour. This thick smoke was of a whitish colour, like that of a lime kiln, and was carried by the wind to Santorini, where it penetrated the houses of the inhabitants.

In the night between the nineteenth and twentieth of July, flames began to issue with the smoke, to the great terror of the inhabitants of Santorini, especially those of the castle of Scaro, who were not above a mile and a half distant from the burning island, which now increased very fast, large rocks daily springing up, which sometimes added to its length, and sometimes to its breadth. The smoke also increased, and there being no wind, it ascended so high as to be seen at Candia, and other distant islands. During the night, it resembled a column of fire fifteen or twenty feet high, and the sea was then covered with a scurf or froth, in some places reddish, and in others yellowish, from whence proceeded such a stench, that the inhabitants throughout the whole island of Santorini burnt perfumes in their houses, and made fires in the streets, to prevent infection. This indeed did not last above a day or two, for a strong gale of wind dispersed the froth; but drove the smoke upon the vineyards of Santorini, by which the grapes in one night were parched up and destroyed. This smoke also caused violent head-achs, attended with reachings.

On the thirty-first of July, the sea smoked and bubbled in two different places near the island, where the water formed a perfect circle, and looked like oil when ready to boil. This continued above a month, during which many fish were found dead on the shore of Santorini. The following night was heard a dull hollow noise, like the distant report of several cannon, which was instantly followed by flames of fire, shooting up to a great height in the air, where they suddenly disappeared. The next day the same hollow sound was several times heard, and succeeded by a blackish smoke, which, notwithstanding there being a pretty fresh gale, rose up in the form of a column to a prodigious height, and would probably in the night have appeared as if on fire.

On the seventh of August the noise was different, it resembling that of large stones thrown all together into a deep well. This noise, having lasted some days, was succeeded by another much louder, so nearly resembling thunder, as hardly to be distinguished from three or four real claps, that happened at the same time.

On the twenty-first, the fire and smoke were considerably diminished; but the next morning they broke out with greater fury than before. The smoke was red and very thick, and the heat was so intense, that all round the island, the sea smoked and bubbled in a surprising manner. At night, our author viewing with a telescope a large furnace upon the highest part of the island, discovered sixty smaller openings or funnels, all emitting a very bright flame, and he imagined there might be as many more on the other side of the great volcano. On the twenty-third of August in the morning, the island was much higher than the day before, and its breadth was increased by a chain of rocks sprung up in the night almost fifty feet above the water. The sea was also again covered with reddish froth, which always appeared when the island received any considerable additions, and occasioned an intolerable stench, till it was dispersed by the wind, and the motion of the waves.

On the fifth of September, the fire opened another vent at the extremity of the Black Island, from whence it issued for several days, during which but little rose from the large furnace: and from this new passage the astonished spectators beheld the fire dart up three several times to a vast height, resembling so many prodigious sky-rockets of a glowing lively red. The following night the subterraneous fire made a terrible noise, and immediately after a thousand sheaves of fire flew up into the air, where, breaking and dispersing, they fell like a shower of stars upon the island, which appeared all in a blaze, presenting to the amazed spectators at once a most dreadful and beautiful illumination. To these natural fire-works succeeded a kind of meteor, which, for some time, hung over the castle of Scaro, which is seated on a high rock in the island of Santorini, a meteor not unlike a fiery sword, and which served to increase the consternation of the inhabitants.

On the ninth of September the White and Black Islands united, after which the western end of the island daily increased. There were now only four openings that emitted flames, which issued forth with great impetuosity, sometimes attended with a noise like that of a large organ pipe, and sometimes like the howling of wild beasts. On the twelfth the subterraneous noise became much augmented, having never been so frequent nor so dreadful as on that and the following day. The bursts of this subterranean thunder, like a general discharge of the artillery of an army, were repeated ten or twelve times within twenty-four hours, and immediately after each clap, the large furnace threw up huge red hot stones, which fell into the sea at a great distance. These claps were always followed by a thick smoke, which spread clouds of ashes over the sea and the neighbouring islands.

On the eighteenth of September an earthquake was felt at Santorini, but did no great damage, though it considerably enlarged the burning island, and in several new places gave vent to the fire and smoke. The claps were also more terrible than ever, and in the midst of a thick smoke that appeared like a mountain, were seen and heard large pieces of rock thrown up with as much noise and force as balls from the mouth of a cannon, which afterwards fell upon the island, or into the sea. One of the small neighbouring islands was several times covered with these fiery stones, which being thinly crusted over with sulphur gave a bright light, and continued burning till that was consumed.

On the twenty-first, after a dreadful clap of subterraneous thunder, very great lightnings ensued; and, at the same instant, the new island was so violently shaken, that part of the great furnace came tumbling down, and huge burning rocks were thrown to the distance of two miles and upwards. This seemed to be the last effort of the volcano, and to have exhausted the combustible matter, as all was quiet for several days after. But on the twenty-fifth the fire broke out again with still greater fury, and

among the claps was one so terrible, that the churches of Santorini were soon filled with crouds of people, expecting every moment would be their last; and the castle and town of Scaro suffered such a shock, that the doors and windows of the houses flew open. The volcano continued to rage during the remaining part of the year; and in the month of January, 1708, the large furnace, without one day's intermission, throwed out stones and flames, at least once or twice, but oftener five or six times a day.

On the tenth of February, in the morning, a pretty strong earthquake was felt at Santorini, which the inhabitants considered as a prelude to greater commotions in the burning island: nor were they deceived; for soon after the fire and smoke issued in prodigious quantities, the claps like thunder were redoubled, and nothing appeared but horror and confusion; rocks of an amazing size were raised up to a great height above the water, and the sea raged and boiled to such a degree, that it occasioned a general consternation. The subterraneous bellowings were heard without intermission, and sometimes in less than a quarter of an hour there were six or seven irruptions from the large furnace. The noise of the repeated claps, the quantity of huge stones that flew about on every side, the houses tottering to their very foundations, and the fire, which now appeared in open day, surpassed all that had hitherto happened, and formed a scene astonishing beyond description.

The fifteenth of April was rendered remarkable by the number and violence of the bellowings and irruptions, by one of which near a hundred large stones were thrown up all together into the air, and fell again into the sea at about two miles distance. From this time to the twenty-third of May, which might be called the anniversary of the birth of the new island, things continued much in the same state; but afterwards the fire and smoke by degrees subsided, and the subterraneous thunders became less terrible.

On the fifteenth of July our author, accompanied by the Romish bishop of Santorini, and some other ecclesiastics, hired a boat to take a near view of the island. They made directly towards it on that side where the sea did not bubble, but where it smoaked very much. Being got into this vapour, they felt a close suffocating heat, and found the water very hot; upon which they directed their course towards a part of the island at the farthest distance from the large furnace. The fires, which still continued to burn, and the boiling of the sea, obliged them to take a great compass; and yet they felt the air about them very hot and sultry. Having encompassed the island, and surveyed it carefully from an adjacent one, they judged it to be two hundred feet above the sea, about a mile broad, and five miles in circumference: but not being thoroughly satisfied, they resolved to attempt to land, and accordingly rowed towards that part of the island where they perceived neither fire nor smook; but when they had got within a hundred yards of it, the great furnace discharged itself with its usual fury, and the wind blew upon them a thick smoke and a shower of ashes, which obliged them to quit their design. Having retired a little, they let down a plummet, with a line ninety-five fathoms long; but it was too short to reach the bottom. On their return to Santorini, they observed that the heat of the water had melted most of the pitch from their boat, which was therefore grown very leaky.

From this time, till the fifteenth of August, when our author left Santorini, the fire, smoke, and noise continued pretty moderate; and, by the accounts he received from thence for several years after, it appears that the island still increased, but that the fire and subterraneous noise were much abated; and as the travellers who have since visited the Levant give no account of its burning, it has doubtless long ceased.

Strange as this account may appear, it is allowed to be unquestionably true; and indeed these are not the only instances in which islands have been known to rise from the bottom of the sea, of which we have a recent instance in the Philosophical Transactions, of an island near the Azores thus raised by subterraneous fires, in the year 1720.

SECT. XV.

Of the Islands in the Sea antiently called the Ionian.

ALL these islands lie on the western coast of Turkey in Europe, and therefore properly deserve a place here. These are,

Le Sapienze, antiently the Sphagi islands, which are three small islands lying near the coast of the Morea. The largest was formerly called Sphacteria, and was famous in antient history for the victory obtained there by the Athenians over the Lacedemonians. The adjacent sea is called the Sea of Sapienza, or of Wisdom, because the pilots are obliged to make use of a great deal of wisdom and caution in getting through the rapid and dangerous currents near this island. The second island is only separated from the first by a channel, which does not exceed two or three miles over: this is called Fuschella, or Catretra, by mariners; and the third, which lies to the east of the former, is named San Venatica.

Strivali, the antient Plotæ, or the Floating Islands, are two small islands, the largest of which is not above two leagues and a half in compass; but they have good springs of water, and the soil is very fruitful. The inhabitants, however, never marry, for they are said to have no women amongst them, and only consist of three or fourscore Greek monks, whose convent is built in the form of a fortress, and is well provided with cannon, in order to keep off the corsairs.

The following islands belong to the Venetians:

Zante, the antient Zacynthus, is situated near the strait of the gulph which runs between the Morea and Livadia, already described, in thirty-seven degrees fifty-seven minutes latitude, and is supposed to be about twenty-four miles in length, twelve in breadth, and fifty in compass. The country is pleasant, and fertile in corn, wine, oil, and all kinds of excellent fruits; especially the finest muscadine grapes, and currants of the sort brought to England. The melons of this island are in particular request, as are also their peaches, which are of a prodigious size, some weighing between eight and ten ounces, and are of an exquisite taste and flavour. On the south and west side of the island is a large chain of mountains, with a mountain also towards the east, and another at the north; so that it is in a manner surrounded by them. In the center is a delightful plain, and near Chieri, a seaport, is a resinous spring. The island contains many towns and villages, and the Greeks, who constitute the majority of its inhabitants, have a bishop, and above forty churches, besides convents. Another part of the inhabitants are Roman catholics, who have a bishop and three convents. The remainder of the inhabitants are Jews. The city of Zante is large and populous: it stands on the east side of the island, and has a commodious and safe port to those who are acquainted with its entrance; but has no walls, and is only defended by a strong fortress, which is erected upon an eminence, and is well defended with cannon. The houses of the city are built with large square stones, but are very low, on account of the frequent earthquakes which generally happen in the spring, when it is said that they seldom fail of feeling one or two, if not more, in a week. In the rock on which the city is built are abundance of fine springs of sweet water. The city is governed by a proveditor and two counsellors, who reside there; and both the English and Dutch have a factory and consul, with a number of merchants and factors for the staple commodities of this place, which are chiefly raisins and currants; but the English are esteemed the greatest promoters of this trade, as they consume more of the latter than perhaps half Europe besides.

Cephalonia, antiently called Cephalenia and Samos, is situated in the thirty-eighth degree of latitude, and is a considerable island, extremely fertile, and producing currants, oil, red wine, muscadine grapes, citrons, oranges, pomegranates, and grain. Most of the trees bear twice a year, that is in April and November; but the fruit of the last month is smaller than the other. It had formerly four

four considerable towns; but has now only some large villages, with a city of its own name, defended by a fortress, seated upon a hill, about six miles distant from Argostoli, the principal port of the island. This port is large, and well sheltered on all sides; but the bottom is not secure, the anchors not sticking fast. At the entrance is a large village, where most of the merchants reside. The island is chiefly inhabited by Greeks, who pay a tribute to the Venetians, who have here a provveditor and two counsellors.

The next island is Val di Compare, the name given to the island of Ithaca, famous for being the country of Ulysses.

Santa Maura, antiently called Neritis, and since Leucas, was in former ages a peninsula connected with the continent of Acarnania; but the Carthaginians, or, according to others, the Corinthians, severed it; so that there is at present a channel about fifty paces broad between the island and the continent. In this island were formerly three considerable towns, with a most magnificent temple of Venus. The best harbours are Santa Maura, Demata, and Englimeno. This island enjoys an uncommon plenty of corn, wine, oil, almonds, pomegranates, citrons, and other fruits, with fine pastures. The inhabitants are Greeks, subject to a bishop. The town of Santa Maura, which gives name to the island, contains about five or six thousand inhabitants; and being situated in the water, and defended by walls and towers, is so fortified, that there is no convenient approach to it, either by land or water. Beyond its works, in a morass, are two well inhabited islands, or suburbs. The cluster of little islands between this and the continent have a communication with each other by bridges. In 1473 the Turks dispossessed the Grecian emperor of the town and island. In 1502 the Venetians made themselves masters of it; but afterwards surrendered it again to the Turks; and in 1684 recovered it from them. In 1715 the town and island fell a second time into the hands of the Turks; but the following year the Venetians drove them out, and have ever since kept a provveditor there.

Corfu, antiently Phæacia, and afterwards Corcyra, takes its present name from the antient castle of Corypho, which stands on a mountain, and is so called from the Greek word *κορυφή*, a hill. It is seventy Italian miles in length, and, from Cape Barbaro to Cape Balacrum, thirty broad; but in most other places scarce twelve. It was famous in former ages for the beautiful gardens of king Alcinous. Its southern parts are barren, mountainous, and destitute of water; but the northern coast is very fertile in all kinds of delicious fruits, excellent wine, grain, olives, &c. It has but two cities, Corfu, the capital, and Cassopo, the Cassiope of the antients. But, besides these cities, it is said to have about a hundred villages. The city of Corfu is very strong, and constantly keeps between fifteen and twenty galleys, besides other vessels, for its defence. It has, besides, two fortresses, the oldest of which is situated on a steep craggy rock, and surrounded below with good strong bastions; the other, though not so advantageously situated, has been fortified at an immense expence, and the city is now one of the strongest places on all these coasts: it is governed by a balio, provveditor, capitano, and castellano, who are all noble Venetians; as is also its archbishop, who is primate and metropolitan of all these islands. The cathedral is a fine building, as is also that which belongs to the Greeks, both of which are adorned with paintings and other expensive ornaments. There are abundance of other handsome churches and structures, both here and in other parts of the island: here is also an academy of the liberal arts and sciences. The island is divided into four parts, called *balias*, or governments, under a balio. To the eastward is the government of Alefchimo, which contains twenty-eight villages, and twenty thousand people. In the middle part is the government of Mezzo, which contains no less than twenty-five thousand people. In this part is situated Corfu, the capital, and thirty towns. Agiru, the western part, comprehends twenty villages, and about eight thousand inhabitants; but the only remarkable place in it is the castle of St.

Angelo. Oros, the north part, contains twenty-five towns, and about eighteen thousand people.

SECT. XVI.

Of ALBANIA, or ARNAUT, and TURKISH DALMATIA.

Their Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers: the Persons and Manners of the Natives; with an Account of the principal Towns.

THIS country, which comprehends the old Grecian Illyricum and Epirus, lies between Macedonia on the east and the gulph of Venice and the Ionian sea on the west, having on the north-east and north a chain of mountains, called Monte Negro, or the Black Mountains, which divide it partly from Macedonia, and partly from Servia and Dalmatia, and on the south is bounded by Livadia. Its greatest length from north to south is about two hundred and ninety miles, and its breadth from east to west ninety-six, extending from latitude thirty-nine degrees to forty-three degrees thirty minutes.

The soil is fruitful, but more so towards the north than towards the south, and produces flax, cotton, and excellent wine; as also wax, and salt dug out of the mountains.

The chief rivers of Albania are the Bojana; the Drino Negro; the Argenta; the Siomini, antiently called Paniafus; the Chrevasta, the antient Apsus; the Pollonia, the antient Laous; and the Delichi, the antient Acheron, frequently mentioned by the poets.

The Albanians are generally tall, strong, and highly esteemed by the Turks on account of their valour. They are subject to the Grand Seignior, and have often distinguished themselves in the wars in Hungary. They are more courageous on horseback than on foot, and their horses are extremely swift. This was the country of the famous prince George Castriot, generally known by the name of Scanderbeg, who, with a small army, opposed for many years all the power of Turkey, and gained twenty-two battles. At his death he left his country to the Venetians; but they were unable to maintain the inland part of it, which was soon reduced by Mahomet II. and his successors have held the whole country ever since.

The inhabitants make tapestry, which they export; but they have scarce any notion of learning, yet are very skilful in laying aqueducts, and without any mathematical instruments measure heights and distances with all the exactness of a geometrician. Those of part of the country are Roman catholics, and most of the rest follow the doctrines of the Greek church.

The principal towns of Albania are,

Scutari, called by the Turks Iscodar, a large and fortified town near a lake of the same name, is well fortified, and defended by a strong castle, seated on a hill; it enjoys a great trade, is the residence of a beglerbeg, and an archbishop. It was formerly the seat of the kings of Illyricum. In the years 1474 and 1478, it was in vain besieged by the Turks; but the Venetians surrendered it to them in 1479.

Dulcigno, or Dolcigno, the ancient Ulcinium, is seated on the gulph of Venice, twenty miles to the south-west of Scutari: it has a good harbour, and a strong castle; it contains seven or eight thousand people, and carries on a considerable trade.

Alessio, the ancient Lyllus, is situated near the river Drin, two miles above its mouth, and sixteen to the south of Scutari. It stands on a steep coast, and is defended by a strong castle. It is by some esteemed the capital of Albania, and is particularly famous for being the place where Scanderbeg died, and was buried in the year 1467. It is said the Turks have such veneration for him, on account of his valour, that they carry away pieces of his tomb for relics, and esteem them as a charm to animate their courage in battle.

Durazzo, the ancient Epidamnus, and the Dyrrachium of the Romans, is a small sea-port on a peninsula in the gulph of Venice, thirty-five miles to the south of Scutari. It has a pretty good harbour and castle.

La Valona, the ancient Aulon, stands on a bay at the mouth of the gulph of Venice, and was anciently fortified. It has a spacious, but not very secure harbour.

Chimera is seated near the coast of the Ionian sea, on the banks of a little river, and has a good harbour. It is famous for its warm baths; but is at present only a mean place. It is, however, the capital of a small country of the same name, the inhabitants of which are stiled Chimarioti, and are descended from the ancient Macedonians. Besides their capital, they have a few inconsiderable towns on the sea-coast; but the mountains of Chimera are so high, and of such difficult access, that they serve them instead of fortresses; and the people trust so much to this advantage, that, according to Mr. Wheeler, they refuse paying tribute to the Turks.

Larta, a large and well peopled town on a bay of the same name, containing seven or eight thousand inhabitants, above half of which are Greeks, and the rest Turks. It is the see of an archbishop, and has a very large cathedral, supported by above two hundred marble pillars, and said to have as many doors and windows as there are days in the year.

Turkish Dalmatia extends from Albania through the country of Herzegowina, to Bosnia. A small part of this country is, at its most southern extremity, bounded on the west by the gulph of Venice; but first extending east through Venetian Dalmatia, then turns to the north-east, on the back of the territories of Ragusa and Venice. Thus it is bounded on the south by a part of Venetian Dalmatia, and Albania, on the north-east by Bosnia, and on the west by Venetian Dalmatia, Ragusa, and the Adriatic sea, or gulph of Venice, extending about one hundred and forty miles from north to south; but no more than forty-five miles from east to west. The soil is in some parts mountainous; but is otherwise very fruitful in corn, wine, oil, honey, and wax.

Its principal towns are,

Great and Little Melanto, two sea ports; but of small importance.

Scardona, in the Sclavonian language Skardin, is situated on the river Kirka, surrounded with walls, and defended by two small forts. It was anciently a considerable town. In the year 1120, the bishopric was removed hither from Jaden. In 1352, it fell into the hands of the Venetians; but the Turks wrested it from them, after which they were several times driven out; but as often recovered it.

Clinowo, or Kliuno, is a well built town, on a rising ground, which the Turks in time of war have generally made their place of rendezvous, and the depository of their magazines of provisions and military stores.

Master, an open town on the Visera, over which is still to be seen an old Roman bridge of stone.

Herzegowina, or Arcegovina, a spacious and well fortified town, in which the Turkish beglerbeg resides.

Popocco, a small district, difficult of access, on account of its situation between two long mountains; but remarkably fruitful in corn, wine, and excellent fruits, though the lands are generally over-flowed in autumn: but the inhabitants of this district in the year 1694, put themselves under the protection of Venice.

SECT. XVII.

Of TURKISH ILLYRICUM, including BOSNIA and SERVIA.

Their Situation, Extent, and Produce. Of the Inhabitants, their Language, Religion, and Learning. With an Account of the principal Places in these Provinces; and a particular Description of Belgrade.

THIS country extends from Sclavonia to Romania and Bulgaria, between Croatia, Dalmatia, and the Danube. It has several mountains, among which the Argentorato is particularly remarkable. Its navigable rivers are the Danube, which constitutes the northern boundary of Servia, the Morau, the Ibar, the Drino, the Bosna, the Verbas, and the Save.

The country is proper both for grazing and agriculture, producing grain, wine, and provender for every kind of cattle; and the mountains, particularly those of Bosnia, contain silver.

The inhabitants are of Sclavonic extraction, and from the middle ages have been divided into Servians, Bosnians, and Ratzians; though without any remarkable difference in their speech and manners. They speak the Sclavonian language, which nearly resembles that of the Russian. As to their religion, they are of the Greek church; but Mahometanism has gained considerable ground among them, which is doubtless owing to their being almost absolute strangers to learning. Their letters for writing are the Ciruli, which are also used by the Russians.

Both Bosnia and Servia were antiently united to Hungary, by what was then called a perpetual compact. The former was governed by a ban, and the latter by a despot, or prince; but now both form a province of the Turkish empire, which appoints beglerbegs and fangiacs over them.

Bosnia, also called Rama, derives both these names from the rivers Bosna and Rama, or perhaps the former from the nation of the Bosneni. This country is bounded on the north by the river Save, which separates it from Sclavonia; to the eastward by the Drino, which divides it from Servia; on the south by a chain of mountains which separates it from Dalmatia; and to the westward by the river Verbas, which divides it from Croatia. It is forty Turkish miles in length, fifteen in breadth, and consists of three fangiacships, in which are several towns, of which little more is known than their names.

Servia is so called from the Serbii, and is sixty Turkish miles in breadth, and thirty in length. At the treaty of Passarowitz, concluded in the year 1718, the greatest part of it was ceded to the Roman empire; but at the peace of Belgrade, in 1739, the Imperialists were obliged to restore it to the Ottoman Porte. It was antiently divided into Proper Servia and Rascia; and to the former, which is in the upper part towards the Danube, belongs the bannat of Masovia; it at present consists of four fangiacships.

The fangiacship of Belgrade lies between the rivers Drino, Save, and the Danube, and contains no other place worthy of notice but its capital of the same name.

The city of Belgrade, the antient Alba Græcorum, is a celebrated and important fortress, situated at the conflux of the Save and the Danube, two hundred and fifty miles from Vienna, and four hundred and fifty-five from Constantinople, in longitude twenty-one degrees east of London, and in forty-five degrees ten minutes latitude. It was formerly accounted the barrier and key of Hungary, to which it was first annexed by the emperor Sigismund. In the years 1440, 1456, and 1494, it was in vain besieged by the Turks; but in 1521 they took and kept it in their possession till the year 1688, when the Hungarians recovered it. In 1690, it fell again under the Turkish yoke, from whence it was unsuccessfully attempted to be wrested in 1693; but in 1717 accomplished. The Hungarians were, however, again obliged to evacuate it in 1739, though not till they had demolished all its outworks, leaving nothing standing but the old walls, and some fortifications inseparable from them.

This city is, however, still large, strong, and populous, and enjoys a considerable trade. It is built on a hill after the antient manner, and encompassed by a double wall, flanked with a prodigious number of towers. The only place not defended by either of the above rivers is fortified with a castle, built with square stones, situated on a rising ground. The suburbs are very extensive, and extremely resorted to by Turkish, Jewish, Greek, Hungarian, and Sclavonian merchants. The city is extremely well seated for commerce; for, besides the Danube and the Sava, which wash its walls, it is but a small distance from the place where the Tibiscas falls into the Danube; nor is it far from the Morawa to the east, and the Drowa towards the west; and as the Danube falls into the Black sea, this city may easily carry on a considerable trade with the most distant countries; accordingly it is the chief staple town in these parts, it being

being traded to by the Ragufans, by the merchants of Vienna, who have factories here, by the Armenians, and the Jews, who are very numerous in this city. The former have a church, and the latter at least one synagogue. The shops are small, and the sellers sit upon tables, from whence they sell their goods out of a window or door, the customers seldom going in. Here are two bazars for their richest commodities, and two exchanges, built with stone, crowded with merchandize. They have also a handsome caravanfera, built by a grand vizier, and a college for young students. This city is the see of a bishop, formerly suffragan to the bishop of Buda.

The second fangiacship is that of Cemender, among the remarkable places of which is,

Tachtali, a dangerous part of the Danube, where the water, after falling from a rocky precipice, forms a whirlpool. This is occasioned by the nature of the two shores, a high rock on the Servian side projecting a great way into the stream, which rushing against it with great impetuosity, recoils as it were against the opposite rocks on the shore of Walachia; so that a vessel missing the right channel is in great danger of being overfet. Beyond this place the Danube, slackening its course, expands itself into a wide curve. At a small distance farther lies Demikarpi, or Iron Gate, commonly called *Cataractæ Danubii*, which is likewise the name of the neighbouring country, where the Danube enters a streight between mountains, and pursues its course over a rocky bottom. The waves and agitations caused by the frequent obstructions of the stream, which is here very rapid, toss a ship with such violence, that unless the steersman be very expert, and well acquainted with the place, the vessel is in great danger, especially in going upwards, which can only be done by the help of sails. In 1737, the Imperialists were obliged to sink their ships here for want of wind to waft them against the stream. In this narrow pass the houses stand within a palisadoe, and are said to have been formerly barricadoed with an iron chain, which first gave rise to the appellation of the Iron Gate.

The next town we shall mention is Fetislan, called in the Rascian tongue Kladowo, a considerable town on the Danube, within a little of which terminates the chain of mountains, and the Danube runs between two plains.

The fangiacship of Kratowo contains the following places:

Nissa, once the capital of Servia, is situated in a fine plain, on the river Nissava, in a very good air, and so fruitful a soil, that the great plenty is hardly credible. There are several fine mosques, two public baths, and several fountains. The town is fortified with a wall and rampart; but in 1737, it was taken by the Hungarians, who lost it the year following. The lady Wortley Montague, in a letter to queen Caroline, when she was princess of Wales, gives a dreadful account of all that part of Servia through which she passed; and observes, that the desarts of Servia are almost overgrown with wood, though a country naturally fertile. The inhabitants are industrious; but the oppression felt by the peasants is so great, that they are forced to abandon their houses, and neglect their tillage; all they have falling a prey to the janizaries, whenever they please to seize upon it. Mr. Wortley had a guard of five hundred of them, and she was almost every day in tears at beholding their insolence in the poor villages through which she past. On speaking of the fertility of the soil at Nissa, she says, "I was certainly assured, that the quantity of wine last vintage was so prodigious, that they were forced to dig holes in the earth to put it in, not having vessels enough in the town to hold it. The happiness of this plenty is scarce perceived by the oppressed people. I saw here a new occasion for my compassion: the wretches that had provided twenty waggons for our baggage from Belgrade hither, for a certain hire, being all sent back without payment, some of their horses lamed, and others killed, without any satisfaction made for them. The poor fellows came round the house weeping and tearing their hair and beards, in a most pitiful manner, without getting any thing but drubs from the insolent soldiers. I cannot express how much

"I was moved at this scene. I would have paid them the money out of my own pocket with all my heart; but it would only have been giving so much to the aga, who would have taken it from them without any remorse."

Procupia, or Procopia, a pretty town thus named from the bishop Procopius, is called by the Turks Urchup.

The fourth fangiacship is that of Scupi, in which is Uscup, Scupi, or Scopia, an open, but large, well-built town, on the confines of Albania and Bosnia, and is the residence of an archbishop. It is seated in a pleasant and plentiful country, partly hills and partly plains, on the river Vardar, or Axios, fifteen miles to the west of Nissa; it has a great trade, and is adorned with fine houses, many mosques, and delightful walks near it. Among the mosques is one built upon a hill, and adorned with a spacious portico, supported by four marble pillars. There is here a fine bridge of twelve arches over the Vardar, and near the city is a noble aqueduct of stone conveyed over a valley between two hills, and supported by two hundred arches. This is supposed to be very antient, and performed by the Romans. The city carries on a considerable trade between Bulgaria, Macedonia, Belgrade, &c. particularly in tanned leather, which here employs above seven hundred tanners.

We shall now proceed to those countries in Europe that are tributary to the sultan, and under his subjection.

S E C T. XVIII.

Of W A L A C H I A.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, and Rivers. The Origin, Language, and Religion of the Inhabitants. Their History, and a concise Account of the most considerable Places in the Country.

WALACHIA is a pretty large province, separated from Moldavia by a chain of mountains and the river Sereth. It is about two hundred and ten miles from east to west, and about a hundred and five from north to south; but this country being of a triangular form, these dimensions can only relate to a very small part of it.

The air is temperate, the soil very fruitful, particularly in grain, wine, and melons: it is also fit for grazing, and the country is famed for excellent horses.

Walachia is watered by a considerable number of large and small rivers, most of which run from north to south, discharging themselves either immediately into the Danube, or doing it in conjunction with other rivers. The principal of these are the Aluta, which rises in the mountains of Transylvania, dividing Walachia into two unequal parts, namely, the east and west; the Jalonitz, which has also its source in the borders of Transylvania; and the Sereth, or Strech, the boundary on the side of Moldavia.

The Walachians who inhabit this country are descended from an old Roman colony settled here by the emperor Trajan. This appears not only from their language, which is a barbarous Latin, but from their customs and manner of diet: as for instance, their thick pottages and onions, of which they are extremely fond, their dress, and their great regard for the Italians, their language, and whatever belongs to that country. They are, however, intermixed with the Sclavi and Pazinacitæ. But, to shew that they are descended from the Romans, they call themselves Romunii.

Historians are far from being agreed about the derivation of the word Walachian; and we shall not here enter into their various opinions, but shall only observe, that the word Wlach in Sclavonic signifies an Italian, as does also the word Welcher.

The Walachians profess the Greek religion, and as in writing they use the same letters with the Russians, so they agree with them in all their religious ceremonies. The common people are wretchedly ignorant; and even the highest attainments to which the ecclesiastics themselves aspire, are seldom more than preaching and singing well. They have a kind of university at Buckereft,

to which they go in order to learn a polite behaviour, the elegancies of the Walachian tongue, and the ceremonies of the church. People of rank are so fond of Italian, that they apply themselves more to it than to their native language, and generally send their sons to study at the university of Padua. A great number of Mahometans live intermixed with the Walachians.

With respect to the history of these people, the Romans, after obtaining a decisive victory over Decebalus, king of Dacia, made themselves masters of his kingdom. Afterwards Trajan sent thither several Roman colonies, who not only cultivated their lands, but built towns, which they embellished with noble edifices. His successor, however, transplanted the greatest part of them into the neighbouring countries, where mingling with the Bulgarians, Thracians, Servians, and Ligurians, they learned to speak a new language, or jargon. These kingdoms, which lie on the Danube, afterwards constituted part of the dominions of the emperors of the East. At length the Walachians moved farther to the north towards the borders of Podolia and Russia, where they applied themselves to agriculture and the breeding of cattle. The conversion of the Bulgarians and their neighbours to Christianity was followed in the ninth century by that of the Walachians, who embraced the doctrines of the Greek church. Towards the beginning of the twelfth century a numerous colony of Walachians, under the conduct of one Nigers, or Negrovot, for the sake of pasturage, religion, and other motives, quitting Transylvania, passed over the mountains, and settled in Modern Walachia, founding the towns of Tergovisto, Buckereft, Longenau, and Pitefto St. Georgi, where they chose their own princes, whom they stiled waywodes, or despots. At length the kings of Hungary becoming powerful, made several attempts against the Walachians, and obliged them, in the fourteenth century, to become tributary to him. But in the year 1391, and 1394, they were greatly harrassed by the Turks, who, in 1415, laid the whole country waste with fire and sword, and compelled the waywode to pay them an annual tribute, which was continued till the year 1608, when the Walachians put themselves under the protection of the emperor of Germany, who at length, by the treaty of Carlowitz, resigned them up again to the Turks. In the beginning of the present century, they suffered various calamities by the plague, war, and many revolutions among their princes. At the treaty of Passarowitz, in 1718, the western part of Walachia, as far as the river Aluta, was ceded to the emperor, but in 1739 was lost again.

This country is governed by a waywode, or prince, also stiled the hospodar, who is a vassal of the Ottoman Porte, and whose annual tribute generally amounts to fifty-eight or sixty thousand ducats.

The arms of Walachia are a black eagle standing on a mount, and in its beak a cross erect, with the sun on one side, and on the other the moon, in a field, argent.

It has been already observed, that the river Aluta divides Walachia into two parts. In the western part, called the bannat of Severin, are the following places:

Severin, a little town on the Danube, but formerly fortified, and the capital of a bannat, received its name from the emperor Severus, its founder.

Upon the Danube are seen the remains of the stone pillars of a bridge, which was probably that which the emperor Trajan built over the Danube, in order to attack Decebalus, king of the Dacians, with greater advantage. According to count Marfigli, the river here is not above a thousand yards over, and the two first piers of the bridge standing seventeen fathoms and a half asunder, he concludes there must have been twenty-three in all; and that the whole length of the bridge was 443 fathoms. He also asserts, that the masonry of the piers was of common quarry stone, lined with bricks; and that probably the twenty-two arches, with all the upper part of the bridge, were of oak. The emperor Adrian caused not only the upper part of the bridge to be removed, but demolished all the masonry above the water.

Walachia, on the other side of the river Aluta, contains the eastern part of the country, in which are,

Langenau, in Latin Campus Longus, a genteel populous town, which suffered greatly in the war with the Turks in 1737 and 1738.

Tergovisto, or Tervis, the capital of Walachia, is situated on the river Jalonitz. It has some fortifications, with a fine palace belonging to the waywode, and is a town of good trade. It is, however, surrounded by marshy grounds, which, while they render it of difficult access, make the air unhealthy.

Buckereft, a fortified city on the river Dembrovitz, is situated thirty miles to the south-east of Tergovisto; it is the usual residence of the waywode, and an archiepiscopal see. Here is also an academy for the sons of persons of quality.

SECT. XIX.

Of MOLDAVIA.

Its Name, Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, Produce, and Rivers. Of the Inhabitants, their History, Government, Arms, and principal Towns.

THIS country takes the name of Moldavia from the river Moldaw, which runs from the upper parts, and falls into the Sereth. It is bounded on the north by Poland, on the east by Oczakow Tartary and Bessarabia, on the south by Walachia, and on the east by Transylvania. It extends about a hundred and seventy miles from the river Sereth to the Niefter; but its length, from south to north, is only about two hundred and ninety.

The air of this province is wholesome; but a considerable part of the eastern division lies uncultivated, and chiefly consists of deserts, and the western is very mountainous; but the middle part is fruitful in corn, pulse, honey, wax, &c. but is chiefly remarkable for the great number of horses bred there.

Its principal rivers are the Sereth; the Pruth, which has its source in the borders of Transylvania and Poland, running through Moldavia from north to south; and the Niefter, which forms the boundary towards the north and east. These three rivers receive several small streams in their course, and the two first fall into the Danube or Ister, which is the boundary to the southward; but the last discharges itself into the Black sea.

The inhabitants are of Walachian extraction, and profess the religion of the Greek church; but many of them are Russians, Poles, Rascians, Armenians, and Mahometans.

Towards the close of the twelfth century a Walachian colony from Transylvania settled in this country, under Bogden, their leader, who established their civil and ecclesiastical government; and, for the support of the latter, obtained an archbishop and other ecclesiastics from the patriarch of Constantinople. He was the first prince of Moldavia, and laid the foundation of the principal towns; for which reason the country was originally called from him Bogdania. The increase of the king of Hungary's power was a misfortune to this country, the inhabitants, after several resolute struggles, being made tributary to that monarch in the fourteenth century. But before that period they had been rendered tributary to the Turks, and soon became so again. In 1686 the Poles over-ran the country, and took the chief cities, which obliged the inhabitants to put themselves under the protection of the German empire; and, at the treaty of Carlowitz, it was agreed, that the Poles should retire, and this country again become tributary to the Ottoman Porte.

This country has a waywode, or prince, of its own, who is stiled hospodar, and is a vassal of the Grand Seignior, to whom he is obliged to pay an annual tribute.

The Moldavian arms are an ox's head, sable, in a field, or.

Moldavia is divided into Upper and Lower.

Upper Moldavia is bounded towards the east by the river Niefter; on the north partly by that stream, and partly by Poland; and on the westward by Transylvania. In the northern part of this division reside the Lip Tartars.

In this division are the following places:

Chotzin,

Chotzin, or Coczim, a town situated on the Niefter, well fortified both by nature and art, and belonging to the Turks. In the years 1621 and 1674 the Turks were defeated here by the Poles. In 1739 the Russians made themselves masters of it, having first beaten the Turks out of the intrenchments, which they had thrown up near the fort; but the Turks soon recovered it again.

Soczowa, or Sotshowa, a small town on the river Sereth, formerly the capital of the country, and the usual residence of the hospodar.

Lower Moldavia borders to the west on the mountains of Transylvania, which run along the road called Tetras, and belong to Moldavia and Walachia. It is bounded on the south by the Danube, on the south-east by Bessarabia, and on the east by the Niefter.

This division contains,

Jassy, the capital, which is a considerable city, and the residence of the hospodar, is seated on the river Pruth, and is a spacious well fortified place, defended by a castle; and is built in a country abounding with wine. In the years 1711, and 1739, it was taken by the Russians; and, in 1753, the whole city, with the palace of the hospodar, some popish convents, and a Lutheran church, which had been newly built, were all destroyed by fire.

Faltshii, a town situated also on the Pruth, is remarkable for having in its neighbourhood ruined walls and foundations of houses, which run in straight lines amidst very thick woods. These are supposed to be the ruins of the antient and large city of Taiphali mentioned by Herodotus, out of the ruins of which Faltshii was built.

S E C T. XX.

Of the several Colonies of Tartars tributary to the Turks, and their different Districts; including an Account of the Tartars of Bessarabia, the Oczakow, the Nojay, and the Crim Tartars; with an Account of their several Towns, and of the Peninsula of Crimea, or Crim Tartary.

FROM the northern branch, through which the Danube enters the Black sea to the river Don, is a winding tract of land, which extends along the Black sea and the sea of Asoph, and is inhabited by several tribes of Tartars, which are generally comprehended by geographers under the title of European Tartars; but there being many other Tartars in Europe, this term is by no means proper. The Tartars made themselves masters of this country in the beginning of the thirteenth century, and some of them still wander about in hords or clans, while others are settled in towns and villages. Some are also immediately dependent on the Ottoman Porte, and others subject to the Crim, who is himself a vassal to the Grand Signior. Geographers vary greatly in their division and the extent they give to these Tartarian districts; for the accounts we have of them are very imperfect. In describing this country along the Black sea, and the sea of Asoph, we shall begin at the west, at the mouth of the Danube, and proceed according to the principal rivers which intersect the country, mentioning what is most remarkable in the several districts formed by those large streams, the Niefter, the Nieper, and the Don. Thus tracing the country from the west, we meet with

Bessarabia, which lies on the Black sea, between the north branch of the Danube and the Niefter, and is by the Turks called Bujack, or Budjiack. The inhabitants still rove from place to place along the Niefter. Their usual food is the flesh of their oxen and horses, cheese, and milk, particularly that of mares.

The chief towns are,

Bender, a Turkish fortification on the Niefter, formerly called Tizene; but being made over to those Turks by one of the princes of Moldavia, they gave it the name of Bender, that is, a pass; it is a small town, but has always a basha for its governor. Warnitz, near this town, is remarkable for being the place where Charles XII. of Sweden, broke up his camp in 1709, and continued till the year 1713, when the Turks were obliged to make use of force to get rid of him.

There are several other towns in this district; but being inconsiderable places, do not deserve being particularly mentioned.

The country between the Niefter and Nieper, by some called Oczakow Tartary, is inhabited only along those two rivers, and near the sea; the other parts being quite waste, and are therefore called the Desert Plains. This plain, however, affords good pasturage, but has not a single tree. The most remarkable place in this district is,

Oczakow, a very strong town, situated at the influx of the Nieper into the Black sea. It lies on the declivity of a mountain, and has a castle above it. When it was invested by count Munich, in 1737, its fortifications were in excellent order, and its garrison consisted of a large body of chosen Turkish troops; but the count, being compelled by want of fodder for the horses and other cattle, risked an assault, and carried it the third day after his opening the trenches. The Russians held the place till the following year, when they evacuated it, after having demolished the works.

The country between the Nieper and the efflux of the Don, contains,

The Lesser Nogay Tartars, who inhabit the main land along the Black sea and the sea of Asoph, and the rest of them belong to Asia. They wander from place to place, each hord or tribe keeping at thirty hours distance, and frequently not so far from each other. These people seldom apply themselves to agriculture. Among them, as well as the Crims, horse-flesh is a favourite food. But however savage this may make them appear, they are so hospitable, that the pleasure they receive from entertaining a traveller and his horse, is with them a sufficient reward; and if they are presented with a little tobacco, or any thing else, they receive it with abundance of thanks, and never fail to make a return. They profess the Mahometan religion, and are governed by murses, or beys, of their own nation, or by such as the kan of Crim Tartary, their sovereign, appoints from among them. With respect to the limits of this district, which it has been said extends from the Nieper to the Don, it was agreed at the treaty of Belgrade, in the year 1739, that a line should be drawn from the river of Zalimy to the river Berda, which falls into the sea of Asoph. The district within this line continues under the kan of Tartary, who enjoys a much larger district northwards, but is dependent on Russia.

In the first district on the Black sea is Kinburn, a Turkish fortification, which lies opposite Oczakow, and east of the Nieper, where it discharges itself into the Black sea. The Russians took this place, and blew up the fortifications in the year 1736; but the Turks thought it worth rebuilding. There are also several small places between the Nieper and the Black sea.

The Crim peninsula, the antient Chersonesus Taurica, is called in the Turkish maps Kiram Athasi, or the Crim island, which is nearly of the same figure with the Morea, and was supposed by the antients to have almost the same extent. It is surrounded by the Black sea and the sea of Asoph, except at the narrow neck of land by which it is joined to the continent. The soil in many parts produces all kinds of grain, wine, &c. but the Tartars seem to despise agriculture, and leave it to their slaves and to strangers. The favourite food of these Tartars is horse-flesh, milk, and cheese; bread being little used among them. Of all the Mahometan Tartars, these have the nearest resemblance to the Calmucs.

The inland country of this peninsula was antiently possessed by the Scythians, who extended themselves northwards beyond Perekop, westward to the Nieper, and eastward as far as the Don. The western and southern coasts were antiently inhabited by some Greek colonies, of which the town of Chersonesus was the most powerful. The east side of the Crim, as far as the Don, and the opposite country, or the tract from the Don along the sea of Asoph, antiently called the Palus Mæotis, to the Black sea, and Mount Caucasus, was under the kings of the Bosphori-Greeks, who were thus called from the streight of Bosphorus. The Scythians proving troublesome neighbours to the Greeks, they solicited the assistance

of Mithridates, king of Pontus, who at last drove the Scythians out of the peninsula, forming the kingdom of Bosphorus, which comprehended the whole peninsula and the country facing it eastward to Mount Caucasus. In the reign of the emperor Dioclesian the Sarmatæ were solely possessed of this kingdom, except the Goths having seated themselves on the west side of the peninsula, and along the tract of land which lies to the northward along the Don. This peninsula afterwards came under the dominion of the emperors of the East, though it was partly shared by the Huns, who were succeeded by the Cozars, as these were by the Polowzers. About the end of the twelfth century, the Genoese, after making themselves masters of the Black sea, and all its harbours, also settled in this peninsula. In the thirteenth century, the Tartars dispossessed the Polowzers of their country, and particularly of Crimea; but the Genoese forts and castles baffled their undisciplined fury, and especially the town of Costa, which held out till the year 1471, when it was taken by the Turks, who also reduced the whole peninsula, and appointed a kan over it. In 1698 the Russians made an attempt to conquer this peninsula, but gained only Perekop; and in 1736 they penetrated a second time into Crimea, under the conduct of count Munich, marched over the line which the Perekop Tartars had thrown up across the isthmus, took Perekop, and opened a way into the peninsula. In the years 1737, 1738, and 1739, the Russians renewed their enterprizes against Crimea with such success, that half of the peninsula was ravaged by them and the Tartars; while many of the inhabitants abandoned the country, and others perished by famine.

Crimea has its own kan, or prince, who styles himself sovereign kan of Lesser Tartary, though he is really a vassal of the Ottoman Porte; and, on a proper summons, must take the field with a considerable body of auxiliaries. The eldest son, who is the kan's presumptive heir, has the title of Sultan Galga; the second son is called Or Beg, that is, lord of Or, or Perekop; the third is styled Noradin Beg, &c.

The peninsula of Crim has many great and small villages, and likewise contains several large but ill built towns; among these are,

Perekop, a fortified town on the isthmus which joins the peninsula to the continent, and has always been esteemed the key to the whole empire. Its name, which is Slavonian, signifies a cut made through a place, and is derived from a ditch antiently dug across the isthmus for the security of the peninsula, which has been repaired from time to time, and of late fortified. It is defended by a castle, but the houses are very mean. In the year 1638 and 1736, it was taken by the Russians; at the last of which times the whole Turkish garrison, consisting of two thousand five hundred and fifty-four men, were made prisoners of war. Though the Russians demolished the place, the Tartars took the pains to rebuild it. In the year 1738, it was again taken by the Russians, but they soon lost it.

Koslow, a town situated on a point of land which projects into the sea of Asoph on the western side of the peninsula, and has a fine harbour; it is defended by a stone-wall, strengthened by towers, and carries on a

very considerable trade. The inhabitants consist of Tartars, Turks, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews. The Turks import rice, coffee, dried figs, raisins, dates, cloth, and silk stuffs; and, in return, receive corn and slaves. Both the garrison and Turkish inhabitants abandoned the town in the year 1736, when the Russians took it without opposition.

Bakshisarai is an open town, notwithstanding its being the residence of the kan. It is situated on the west side of the peninsula near the sea, between two hills, which serve the town instead of walls. Its inhabitants are Tartars, Armenians, Greeks, and Jews; and the houses the best built of any in the whole country. The kan's palace is a large and irregular structure. The Russians made themselves masters of this town in the year 1736.

Karabazar is a large town that carries on a considerable trade; yet its houses are low wooden buildings; but it has four mosques built with stone. The inhabitants are Tartars, Turks, Armenians, Greeks, and Jews. The horse-fair held in this place is the most considerable in all Crimea. This town was laid in ashes by the Russians in the year 1737.

Kersh, or Gerh, the antient Panticapæum, since called the Bosphorus, is a considerable town, situated on a steep mountain near the streight formerly called the Bosphorus, but now termed by sailors the streights of Caffa. It commands the entrance into the Black sea; and is not only surrounded with a high wall, but defended on the south-east by a castle with seven towers; and at the harbour is a mole built with stone. The far greatest part of the houses are likewise built of stone, and have flat roofs. In this town are twenty-two Turkish mosques, and as many Greek churches.

The Turks have a castle on the streight near Kersh, with a harbour, but it is not fit for ships of burthen. They have also the town of Caffa, or Keffeh, the antient Theodosia, a large trading sea-port, situated on the east of the peninsula, supposed to have been built by the Greeks in the fifth century. In 1226, the Genoese having got this place into their possession, they enlarged and fortified it; but in 1297 the Venetians drove them from thence: they soon, however, recovered it again; but, in the year 1474, the Turks took it from them. While this town was in the possession of the Genoese, its commerce rose to such a height, that it exceeded that of Constantinople itself; but, on its falling under the Turkish yoke, its trade greatly declined, and now only consists in slaves brought hither for sale by the Crim and Cuban Tartars, the Georgians, and Mingrelians. The inhabitants consist of Turks, Jews, Greek, Catholic, and Armenian Christians, &c. The Christians constitute the majority of the inhabitants, and enjoy a most perfect freedom with respect to religion. Here are still the descendants of several noble families of Genoa. The town, which is the largest in all Crimea, contains about five or six thousand houses, and is constantly well garrisoned. To the north-west are some high mountains, at the foot of which the town stands in a very delightful and convenient situation; but the harbour, besides having a difficult bar, affords but little shelter in a south-east wind.

C H A P. II.

O F R U S S I A.

S E C T. I.

Of the RUSSIAN EMPIRE in general.

Its amazing Extent : some general Observations on its Climate in different Parts ; and the Progress of the Seasons throughout the Year.

THE Russian empire is of an amazing extent : towards the north and east it is bounded by the main ocean, and towards the west and south its limits are settled by treaties concluded with several far distant powers ; with Sweden, the Poles, the Turks, with the Persians, and with the Chinese, by whose dominions this immense empire is bounded. Voltaire justly observes, that “ it is of greater extent than all the rest of Europe, “ or than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power, “ or the empire of Darius subdued by Alexander ; for it “ contains more than eleven hundred thousand square “ leagues. Neither the Roman empire, nor that of the “ Macedonian conqueror, comprized more than five “ hundred and fifty thousand each ; and there is not a “ kingdom in Europe the twelfth part so extensive as “ the Roman empire. In length, from the isle of Dago “ as far as its most eastern limits, it contains very near “ a hundred and seventy degrees ; so that when it is “ noon-day in the west, it is very near mid-night in the “ eastern part of this empire. In breadth it stretches “ from south to north three thousand wersts, which “ makes eight hundred leagues.”

As this empire consists of a great number of provinces, many of which are very extensive, both the soil and temperature of the air must be extremely various in different parts. In those which lie beyond the sixtieth degree of latitude, there are few places where corn will grow to maturity ; and in the northern parts of the empire, which reach beyond the seventieth degree, no garden-fruits are produced, except in the country about Archangel, where many bushes and shrubs grow spontaneously, and yield several sorts of berries : horned cattle are also bred, and there are plenty of wild beasts and fowls, and several sorts of fish in the neighbourhood of that city.

In the provinces situated in the middle of the empire, the soil produces most kinds of trees and garden-fruits, corn, honey, &c. They are likewise well-stocked with horned cattle ; the woods abound with game ; the rivers are navigable, and full of the best sorts of fish.

In the southern provinces the climate is hot ; and though in some parts there are many barren wastes, yet in others the land is covered with verdure and flowers. Tobacco, wine, and silk, might be there produced, as the two first are at Astracan and the Ukraine ; and they are well watered with rivers, which afford plenty of fish ; nor are they destitute of game in proportion to the extent and number of the woods.

In the middle, and more particularly in the northern parts of the empire, the cold is very severe, and the days extremely short in winter ; but the summers are warm and delightful, and even in the shortest nights the twilight is very luminous. At the winter solstice, when the day is at the shortest, the sun rises at Archangel at twenty-four minutes after ten in the morning, and sets at thirty-six minutes after one. At Petersburg the sun rises at fifteen minutes after nine, and sets at forty-five minutes after two ; but at Astracan the sun rises at forty-eight minutes after seven, and sets at twelve minutes after four.

At the summer solstice, when the day is at the greatest length, this order is reversed, and the sun rises at Astracan at twelve minutes after four, and sets at about forty

minutes after seven ; and at Archangel rises at thirty-six minutes after one, and sets at twenty-four minutes after ten.

It is a common observation, that the eastern countries are much colder in winter, and hotter in summer, than the western that lie in the same latitude : this is particularly true with respect to Russia, for the river Neva, at Petersburg, is in some years covered with ice so early as the twenty-fourth of October ; and in other years, when latest, about the twenty-second of November ; but it generally thaws by the twenty-sixth of April, old style, which it is never known to exceed.

The reader cannot fail of being pleased with seeing here the progress of the seasons at Petersburg, which is situated in the fifty-ninth degree of latitude, from an author of such acknowledged veracity as Jonas Hanway, Esq. February generally brings with it a bright sun and a clear sky, every object seems to glitter with gems, and the nerves become braced by the cold. There is then no small amusement in riding in sledges upon the snow, to those who, from the length of the winter, have forgot the much superior pleasure which nature presents when clothed in all her verdure.

March is frequently attended with showers, which with the heat of the sun, penetrates the ice : this is generally three quarters of a yard thick on the Neva, and in some great rivers to the north-east much thicker. This renders it like an honey-comb, and about the end of that month it usually breaks up.

The month of April is frequently very warm ; summer seems to precede the spring ; for it is sometimes the first of June before any considerable verdure appears, and then the intense heat brings it on so fast, that the eye can discover its progress from day to day. Till the middle of July it seems to be one continued day, the sun not intirely disappearing above two hours in the twenty-four ; but the delight which this season naturally affords, is considerably abated by the extreme heat of the weather ; however, a week seldom passes without the air being refreshed by southerly and westerly winds, which often bring gentle showers. Our author, who resided about five years in this city, once experienced a delightful autumn to the end of September ; but this rarely happens : August closes the scene, so that there are hardly above three months of summer.

September generally brings rain and frost ; the severity of both is increased in October, and in November the Neva is always frozen. Then comes on the season for the easy and speedy conveyance on the snow, which brings fresh provisions to market a thousand English miles by land, and the beef of Archangel is often eaten at Petersburg. In December and January the cold is so very intense, that the poor who are overtaken by liquor, or exposed to the air in open places, are frequently frozen to death. But the abundance of birch and alders with which the Russians are supplied, and the commodiousness of their stoves, enable them to introduce any degree of heat into their houses.

However, not one-tenth of the Russian empire is sufficiently peopled, and not a tenth part of it properly cultivated : for, notwithstanding its prodigious extent, the number of inhabitants who pay the poll-tax, is computed only at five millions one hundred thousand, and the rest, including the females, amounts to about ten millions, exclusive of the inhabitants of the conquered provinces.

As the greatest part of this empire is situated in Asia, and has already been described in treating of Siberia and Russia, the western part of that empire, therefore, now only remains to be treated of.

S E C T. II.

Of the Situation and Extent of Russia, its Rivers and Lakes.

THE boundaries of this part of the Russian empire towards the east, are indeed the same with the limits between Europe and Asia. It extends on the east to the Wercoturian mountains, and to part of the Wolga, which separate it from Siberia; on the south it is bounded by the river Don, and a line drawn from the Nieper to the mouth of the Don, at its entrance into the sea of Asoph; on the west by the Nieper, which separates it from Poland, the gulph of Riga, the gulph of Finland, Sweden, and Swedish Lapland; and on the north by the Frozen Ocean.

The principal rivers of Russia are as follow:

The Wolga, in Latin Volga, which has its source in the forest of Wolconski, and is one of the largest rivers in the world; for it runs a course of above two thousand miles before it falls into the Caspian sea. Its banks are generally fertile, and though not sufficiently cultivated, on account of the frequent incursions of the Tartars; yet the soil naturally produces all kinds of excellent herbs, and in particular asparagus of a very extraordinary size and goodness. It is observable, that most of the oaks in Russia grow in the countries watered by this river. At Iwer, a town little more than one hundred and twenty miles from its source, the Wolga is navigable for large ships; and towards the end of the spring this river is so swelled by the melting of the ice and snow, as to cause great inundations; particularly in the months of May and June. The masters of the vessels which sail down the Wolga to Astracan, carefully observe this season, as at that time they have not only the opportunity of a safe passage over the shallows; but also over several flat islands which then lie at a considerable depth under water. Trees are often torn away by the roots from the banks of this river by the violence of the current, and the anchors of the vessels are frequently so entangled amongst them, that there is a necessity of cutting the cables, so that many anchors are supposed to lie at the bottom. The Wolga abounds with a fine fish called beluga, which is about eight or ten feet in length. It receives several considerable rivers, among which are the Occa and Cama, and discharges itself through several mouths into the Caspian Sea, by which means it forms many islands.

The Don, the Tanais of the ancients, is called Tuna or Duna by the Tartars, and has its source not far from Tula in the Iwano Ossero, or St. John's lake. It first runs from north to south, and after its conflux with the Sosna, directs its course from west to east, and in several large windings, again runs from north to south; but at length dividing into three channels, falls into the sea of Asoph. The waters of the Don are thick and chalky, consequently not very wholesome to drink. This river is very shallow in summer, when it is also full of sand-banks; it, however, affords plenty of large and small fish. The Don in its course approaches so near the Wolga, that in one place the distance between them is but one hundred and forty wersts, or about eighty English miles.

The Dwina is a very large river, the name signifies Double, it being formed by the conflux of the Sukona and the Yug. This river divides itself into two branches or channels near Archangel, from whence it runs into the White Sea.

The Nieper, the ancient Borysthenes, arises from a morass in the forest of Wolconski, about one hundred and twenty miles above Smolenski, and forms several windings through Lithuania, Little Russia, the country of the Zaporog Cossacs, and a tract inhabited by the Nagaian Tartars; and after forming a marshy lake of sixty wersts in length, and in many places two, four, or even ten wersts in breadth, discharges itself into the Black Sea. The banks on this river are on both sides generally high, and the soil excellent; but in summer the water is not very wholesome. The Nieper has no

less than thirteen water-falls within the space of sixty wersts; yet in spring, during the land-floods, empty vessels may be hauled over them. It abounds with sturgeon, sterled, carp, pike, karaush, &c. There is but one bridge over this river, and that is a floating one at Kiew, one thousand six hundred thirty-eight paces in length. This bridge is taken away about the end of September, to give the flakes of ice a free passage down the river, and is again put together in spring. There are to be seen on this river a great number of mills erected in boats.

We shall now mention the principal lakes in this part of the Russian empire, which are,

The lake of Ladoga, situated between the gulph of Finland and the lake of Onega, is one hundred and fifty miles in length, and ninety in breadth. It is esteemed the largest lake in Europe; and is supposed to exceed any other for its plenty of fish, among which are also seals. This lake is full of quick-sands, which being moved from place to place by the frequent storms to which it is subject, cause several shelves along its course, which often prove fatal to the flat-bottomed vessels of the Russians. This induced Peter the Great to cause a canal near seventy English miles in length, seventy feet in breadth, and ten or eleven deep, to be cut at a vast expence from the south-west extremity of this lake to the sea. This great work was begun in the year 1718, and though vigorously prosecuted, was not compleated till the year 1732, in the reign of the empress Anne. This canal has twenty-five sluices upon it, and several rivers run into it. At the distance of every werst along its banks, is a pillar marked with the number of wersts; and it is the constant employment of a regiment of soldiers to keep the canal in repair; for this purpose they are quartered in several places on its banks. In summer-time it is covered with floats and vessels, which pay toll in proportion to the value of their cargo.

The lake of Onega is situated between the lake of Ladoga and the White Sea, and has a communication with the former by means of the river Swir. It is one hundred and eighty wersts in length, and about eighty in breadth; and though it has fresh water, seals are often seen in it.

The lake of Peipus in Livonia, is near seventy miles in length, and about forty miles in breadth. It abounds with fish, and runs into the gulph of Finland by the river Narva.

Medicinal and saline springs are not uncommon in Russia. Fine silver, which also yields some gold, is dug out of the mines of this country, and also exceeding fine copper, iron, and many other minerals, as isinglass and precious stones.

The most fertile part of Russia is near the frontiers of Poland, where the inhabitants are able to supply their neighbours with corn. The northern parts are not only extremely cold, but marshy, and over-run with forests, chiefly inhabited by wild beasts. Besides domestic animals, there are in Russia wild beeves, rein-deer, martens, white and black foxes, ermines and sables, whose skins make the best furs in the world; as also hyenas or gluttons, bears and wolves.

S E C T. III.

Of the Persons, Dress, and Manners of the Russians; the Houses of the common People, and their Furniture; their Food, and Fondness for strong Liquors. Their Roads, Manner of travelling, and Language.

BEFORE the time of Peter the Great, the Russians were little better than savages; but that wise prince, by incredible application, and a proper mixture of severity and mildness, wrought so happy a change in their manners, as in a great measure sets them on a level with the other civilized nations of Europe.

The Russians are for the most part of the middle stature, though many of them are tall and comely. The common people are fond of their ancient customs; and though the majority of them have been gradually brought to

to submit to modern improvements, many choose to suffer great inconveniences, and to pay additional taxes, rather than cut off their beards, and conform to some regulations with respect to religion.

The Russian women are extremely fond of paint, and consider a ruddy complexion as the very essence of beauty; so that in the Russian language, red and beautiful are synonymous terms. Even the poorer sort among the women, in order to mend their complexion, will beg money to buy paint. By this means they daub themselves so much, as to conceal the graces which nature may be presumed to have bestowed on them; for they generally profess, that if they had sufficient plumpness, they can procure themselves beauty. Persons of distinction are very fond of state and splendor. The dress of the common people in Russia is mean; they are clothed with long coats made of dressed sheep-skins, with the wool towards their bodies; their legs and feet are swaddled with a coarse cloth, secured by a cord of reeds, and their sandals are of the same materials. Their caps are lined with fur, and cover the ears and neck, as well as the head: they wear sashes round their waists, and double gloves, one of woollen, and the other of leather, which take in the hand without any distinction, except the thumb, and these are an essential part of their cloathing. However, people of any rank generally dress as we do in England, except wearing a full great coat lined with fur, with a deep quilted or fur-lined cap, when they go abroad. The women of the lower class, besides their petticoats, wear sheep-skins like the men; but those who move in a higher sphere, wear flowered silk cloaks, lined with furs, of which the most common sort is white hares. Ladies of great distinction have them lined with rich furs, and almost constantly wear them. Persons of both sexes hang on their breast a cross, which is put on when they are baptized, and this they never lay aside as long as they live. The crosses of the peasants are of lead; but those worn by persons of wealth are of gold or silver. The Russians seldom fail of bathing twice a week; for which purpose almost every housekeeper is provided with a bath; and he that has none of his own, goes to those that are public. It is remarkable, that they often sally out naked from the warm bath, run about in the cold, roll themselves in the snow, and then plunge again into the warm water; and this vicissitude of heat and cold they consider as beneficial to the constitution, by rendering them hardy and robust.

People even of the common rank salute each other with great civility; but before a Russian welcomes his guest, his visitor is obliged to make the sign of the cross, and at the same time to bow to a picture of some saint, which is so placed, as to be seen immediately at coming in. In visits of ceremony, the men and women usually welcome each other with a kiss; but those of the lower class show their profound respect for persons of high rank, by prostrating themselves on the ground before them.

The most usual method of building, both in the towns and country villages, is to lay one beam of wood upon another, and fastening them at the four corners, fill up the crevices between the beams with moss. The house is afterwards covered with shingles, and holes are made in the timber for doors and windows. A brick stove or large oven is commonly made in the houses of the peasants, and takes up a fourth part of the area: this is flat at the top, and boarded; upon it, and on a kind of shelves round the room, the whole family sleep without beds.

Their furniture consists of three benches, an oblong table, and the picture of a saint or two. Instead of candles or lamps, the Russian peasants usually burn long splinters of deal. The apartments are as black as so many chimnies; for the fire hearth being within the stove above-mentioned, which has no other vent for the smoke but into the room, the walls are covered with soot. It is no sooner dark, than the houses swarm with a species of insects called tarakans, which are a kind of goat-chaffers. The best method of keeping them out is burning a light in the room till break of day. The houses in the villages are contiguous, and built as close together as in the towns.

The insatiable eagerness of the common people after spirituous liquors and other strong drink, especially in the carnival time, is in a great measure owing to the severity of the winter, the rigorous fasts they observe, and the slender diet they live upon throughout the year. Their food chiefly consists of turnips, cabbage, pease, large cucumbers, onions, and coarse ill-tasted fish. Their drink is quas, a kind of small mead; and even among the gentry, brandy always makes a part of every repast. Among the lower class, it is generally the men who give themselves up to these excesses, though it is not uncommon to see at Petersburg a drunken woman staggering along the streets. Some authors indeed say, that drunkenness is so far from being considered as a crime, that they make it part of their religion, and that they do not think they have kept a holiday as they ought, if they are not drunk before night; and Mr. Perry affirms, that if you pass through Moscow on a holiday, you will see both priests and people lie drunk upon the ground; and if you go to help one of them up, he will tell you, by way of excuse, "It is a holiday." He adds, that their ladies of quality are so little ashamed of drinking to excess, that they will frankly acknowledge their having been very drunk, and return thanks for the favour to their friends who made them so.

Not only the common people, but the whole nation, are much more used to fish than flesh; for their fasts take up near two-thirds of the year, during which they are absolutely prohibited by their religion to taste of flesh: this is observed with the utmost strictness; they will not even taste of eggs, milk, or any thing that has even the least relation to flesh; but caviere is a great dish among them. At the other times of the year, people of rank have at their tables a variety of flesh-meat and fowl; but before they sit down, the mistress of the family presents every one of the guests with a cup of brandy on a plate, or salver, with her own hands; and, among particular friends, all the company salute the lady. The first dish usually consists of hams, tongues, and other savoury dishes, with several made-dishes dressed with oil, olives, onions, and garlic; which having remained a considerable time on the table, the second course, consisting of soups and roast and boiled meat, is brought in; after which follows the dessert, and plenty of mead, beer, wine, and brandy.

A person may travel cheap and with great expedition in Russia, both in summer and winter; the post-roads leading to the chief towns are very exactly measured, with the wersts marked, and the post-stages fixed at proper distances; for throughout the whole empire, and even in Siberia, a pillar, inscribed with the number of wersts, is erected at the end of each. The expence of travelling in this manner is so easy, that between Riga and Petersburg the hire of a post-horse for every werst is no more than two copeiks and a half, which is one penny three farthings sterling; between Novogrod and Petersburg only one copeik; and between Novogrod and Moscow but half a copeik. Nothing can be more accommodated to ease and dispatch than travelling in sledges during the winter, when the earth is covered deep with snow, and impassable for wheel-carriages; for in the journey Mr. Hanway made in that season from Moscow to Petersburg, he slept in his sledge, without waking, while he advanced a hundred wersts, or sixty-six English miles. The whole road between those two cities was marked out in the snow by young fir-trees planted on both sides, at the distance of twenty yards, which, at a moderate computation, amount to 128,480 trees. At certain distances were also great piles of wood, to be set on fire, in order to give light to the empress and her court, if they passed by in the night. On these occasions her imperial majesty is drawn in a kind of house that contains her bed, a table, and other conveniences, where four persons may take a repast. This wooden structure, which has a sloping roof, and small windows to keep out the cold, is fixed on a sledge, and drawn by twenty-four post-horses; and if any of them fail on the road, others are ready to supply their places. Our author observes, that the late empress was generally no more than three days and nights on the way, notwithstanding

withstanding her having several small palaces at which she sometimes stopped to refresh herself, though the distance is four hundred and eighty-eight English miles. Peter the Great once made the journey in forty-six hours, but did not travel in the same carriage. Mr. Busching observes, that it is not uncommon to go it with post-horses in seventy-two hours; and that a commodious sledge, drawn by a pair of post-horses for that journey, may be hired for fourteen or fifteen rubles.

The Russian language derives its origin from the Slavonian, but at present it is very different from it; and, with regard to religious subjects, is enriched with a great number of Greek words. The alphabet consists of forty-two letters, most of them Greek characters, as they were written in the ninth century: but as the latter did not express every particular sound in the Slavonian language, recourse was had to several Hebrew letters, and to the invention of some arbitrary signs. In the different parts of the Russian empire various dialects are used, as the Moscovite, the Novogrodian, the Ukrainian, and that of Archangel. The dialect used in Siberia nearly resembles the last.

SECT. IV.

Of the Religion of the Russians.

THE Russians profess the religion of the Greek church, which was first embraced by the great dutchess Ogla, sovereign of Russia, in the 955th year after the birth of Christ. The external part of their religion consists in the number and severity of their fasts, in which they far exceed the Romish church. Their usual weekly fasts are on Wednesdays and Fridays. In Lent, as hath been already observed, they neither eat flesh, milk, eggs, nor butter; but confine themselves to vegetables, bread, and fish fried in oil.

The great fast of Lent is regulated by the moveable feast of Easter, and lasts till that festival begins.

St. Peter's fast always begins on the first Monday after Whitsuntide; and sometimes lasts six weeks; and at others only eight days, according as Easter happens to fall out early or late. The fast of the Blessed Virgin annually begins on the first of August, and continues till the fifteenth of the same month. St. Philip's fast begins on the fifteenth of November, and continues till the twenty-fifth of December.

The eighth week before Easter is called the butter week, and may be considered as the Russian carnival, it being spent in all kinds of entertainments, and every species of licentiousness. Among the diversions exhibited at this time, one of the most singular is riding in sledges down a steep declivity, twenty ells in height, made with boards, and covered with ice, by throwing water to freeze upon it. At this time of public diversions they atone for their bad living in Lent, by feasting and the free use of brandy. On Easter-day most of them eat to such excess, as to throw themselves into a fit of sickness by overcharging their stomachs. On that joyful festival the Russians kiss one another in the most friendly manner, presenting an egg coloured over, and sometimes tolerably painted, with the following salutation: "Christ is risen;" to which the other answers, "He is indeed risen."

The Russians are great enemies to the worship of graven images, and yet are so absurdly inconsistent, that in their private devotions they kneel before a picture of our Saviour, the Virgin Mary, St. Nicholas, or some other saint, which is an indispensable piece of furniture in their closet. To this they bow several times, making the sign of the cross with their thumb, fore-finger, and third finger, on the breast, forehead, and shoulders; at the same time repeating, in a low voice, the Lord's Prayer, and some short ejaculations; particularly, "Lord be merciful to me." Indeed they seldom pass by a church without uttering of these words, at the same time bowing and crossing themselves, without paying the least regard to any person who happens to be present. They likewise practise the same bowings and crossings on seeing a church at a distance.

Many of the common people, and even some persons of rank, either by way of penance, or from other motives of humiliation, prostrate themselves on their faces at the entrance of the churches; and those who are conscious of having contracted any impurity, forbear entering the church, but stand at the door. The church bells are often rung; and as ringing is counted a branch of devotion, the towns are provided with a great number of bells, which make as it were a continual chiming.

The divine service is entirely performed in the Slavonian tongue, which the people do not understand, as it is very different from the modern Russian; and this service consists of abundance of trifling ceremonies, long masses, singing, and prayers; all which are performed by the priests, the congregation only repeating, "Lord be merciful to me." They sometimes add a lecture from one of the fathers; but there are few churches in which sermons are ever delivered, and even in those they preach but seldom.

In the Russian churches there are neither seats or forms, but the whole congregation perform their devotions standing. On festival days the clergy are adorned with very rich vestments, somewhat resembling those of the Levitical priests described in the Old Testament. The people know very little of the Bible, which has never yet been translated into their language. They have, however, one in the Slavonian tongue, with annotations; nor are there any proper measures taken for the instruction of young people among the vulgar, in the principles of religion. The people never sing psalms or hymns, nor have any hymn books in their houses; for none but the choiristers are allowed to sing psalms in the churches, that office being considered as their peculiar province, on which account they are held in some esteem.

Besides the great festivals ordained by the Russian church, there are every year others appointed by the civil power, when all public business and trades are suspended with greater strictness than even during the former; such as the anniversary of the birth, inauguration, and coronation of the person on the throne, and of the saint's day whose name he or she bears; and likewise the festival of the birth and name-day of other persons of the royal family; that of St. Alexander Neufski, which is kept on the thirtieth of August; and the anniversary of the battle of Pultowa, which is commemorated on the twenty-seventh of June.

There are a great number of convents for the religious of both sexes in the Russian empire; but Peter I. prudently ordered, that no person should be allowed to enter on a monastic life before fifty years of age: but this regulation has been repealed since his death, it being thought proper to shew a greater condescension to the monasteries; however, no man is permitted to turn monk till he is thirty, nor no woman to turn nun till she is fifty; and even then not without the express approbation and licence of the holy synod. The abbot, or head of an abbey, is here called archimandrite, and the prior of a convent, igumen; while an abbess is styled igumenia.

Every large village has a church and a priest to officiate in it, and in the towns there is a church almost in every street. It is remarkable, that all the old churches have a crescent under the cross erected on the tops of the towers.

With respect to baptism, they acknowledge themselves conceived and born in sin, and therefore baptize their children immediately after they are born: if they are weak, this is done at home; but if well, in the church; the child being received at the church-door by the priest, who signing his forehead with the sign of the cross, says, "The Lord preserve thy coming in and going out." He then fastens nine wax-candles given him by the godfathers, ready lighted, round the font. Having incensed the godfathers, and consecrated the water, each of them takes a wax-candle, and they all walk three times round the font, which always stands in the middle of the church, the clerk carrying the picture of St. John before them, and the priest reading out of a book. The priest then asks the godfathers the name of the child, which having given him in writing, he puts it upon a small picture, which he holds upon the child's breast, while he mutters certain prayers; and then asks, whether the child believes

in God the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghost; and the godfathers having answered in the affirmative, they instantly turn their backs to the font, to shew their aversion to the three next questions, Whether the child forsakes the devil, his angels, and his works? To each question the godfathers answer Yes, and as often spit on the ground. Then turning again to the font, the priest asks, whether they promise that the child shall be brought up in the true Greek religion? and laying his hands upon him says, "Get out of this child thou unclean spirit, and make room for the Holy Ghost." He then blows upon the child three times to drive away the devil, by whom they suppose children are possessed before baptism. After this he cuts off a little of the child's hair, which he puts into a book; and having asked the godfathers whether they desire the child should be baptized, he takes him naked into his arms, and, dipping him three times into the water, makes use of the usual words: "I baptize thee in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost." He then puts a corn of salt into the child's mouth, and making the sign of the cross on his forehead, hands, breast, and back, with consecrated oil, puts him on a clean shirt, saying, "Thou art as clean from thy original sin as this shirt." He hangs a small cross of gold, silver, or lead, according to every one's ability, about his neck, with a strict charge to wear it all his life-time: in which they are so exact, that if no such cross be found about a deceased person, they will not allow him Christian burial. He also assigns a peculiar saint, whom the child is hereafter to reverence as his patron; and having kissed the child and his godfathers, he exhorts them to mutual love. If more children are to be baptized at the same time, the font is emptied, because they imagine the water to be defiled by the original sin of the preceding child.

As they imagine that children are regenerated by baptism, they think they have a right to the Lord's supper, which is administered in the following manner: the priest going to the altar, attended by the clerk, says the office according to St. Basil's liturgy; and then mixing warm water with the wine, steepes bits of bread in the chalice, and then consecrates them together. The priest takes the bread out with a spoon, and gives it to the communicants, little babes having only half the quantity of grown people, till they are seven years of age.

Their proselytes who are of age are baptized in a river, and three times plunged over head like the children, on mentioning the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost.

Persons who are inclined to change their religion for that of the Moscovites, are instructed for six weeks in some convent; and at their baptism are to abjure their former religion, to desert it as heretical, and as often as it is named to shew their adhorrence, by spitting on the ground.

The metropolitans, who are only two, one at Kiow and the other at Tobolski, differ from the bishops only in their title: above these are the archbishops; and the deacons, popes, or priests, and protopes are exceeding numerous. In antient times the primate, or supreme bishop of the Russian church, was a suffragan to the patriarch of Constantinople; but the czar Feodor Iwanowitz appointed a Russian patriarch to preside over the church; yet as these patriarchs gradually assumed an exorbitant power, dangerous even to the state, Peter I. on the death of the last patriarch, in 1701, suppressed that dignity, and declared himself head of the church of Russia. In the year 1719, the same prince instituted a council that has the direction of ecclesiastical affairs, and is stiled, The most holy synod. Subordinate to this council are two others; the first called the œconomie, which has the management of all the ecclesiastical lands and revenues; the second has power to execute the regulations made in relation to the separatists, called Roskolniki, and levies the tax imposed on them for being permitted to wear their beards. This, however, is allowed to all ecclesiastics of the Russian church, who likewise wear their own hair, and on their heads a high stiff black cap, from which a piece of the same stuff hangs down on their backs, or else a large flapped hat. They have over their shoulders a sort of long cloak; but the secular priests, when out of the church, generally wear a blue or a brown

long coat. The clergy are permitted to marry, but it must be to a virgin; and, on her death, he is neither allowed to marry again, nor to hold his benefice; but must either retire to a convent, or be degraded; and if he chooses the latter, he is at full liberty to marry a second time: hence no wives are better treated than those of the ecclesiastics.

The Russian separatists are, by way of contempt, termed Roskolniki, or schismatics; but they call themselves Starowierzi, or antient believers. Their chief peculiarities consist in having their own books, from the authority of which they make the usual sign of the cross, only with the fore and middle finger, like the orthodox Russian clergy, when they give the benediction, and consequently differ from the laity of the national church, who make it with the thumb and the fore and middle finger. But this is not their only crime; they let their beards grow to the full length, though this privilege can only be procured, as hath been already intimated, by paying an exorbitant tax. They also entirely abstain from spirituous liquors, never enter the national church, and will neither eat nor drink out of any vessel that has been used by those who stile themselves orthodox Russians. This sect is not very numerous in Russia, though it has spread over all Siberia.

The natives of those provinces that have been conquered from Sweden profess Lutheranism; and both the protestants, of whom there are many among the Russians, and those of the Romish church, enjoy full liberty of conscience, and the public exercise of their religion; so that they have churches and priests, or ministers, at Moscow, Petersburgh, Cronstadt, Archangel, and Astracan; but those of the church of Rome have no longer the privilege of hanging bells in their churches. The Armenians have public places of worship only at Astracan. The Jesuits and Jews have been banished from the country; but it is thought that many who secretly adhere to Judaism still remain there.

A considerable number of the Russian subjects are Mahometans, and still greater numbers are Pagans. In order to promote their conversion, the synod has instituted a peculiar society for propagating Christian knowledge, and it is said many thousands of them have been converted to Christianity; but, on the other hand, it appears, from the writings of those who have lately travelled thro' Siberia, that great violence and constraint have been used to bring them over; and, that as most of the people have been baptized against their will, they have very imperfect and contemptible ideas of the religion they are said to profess.

In the thirteenth century several popes laboured hard to put the great duke of Russia out of conceit with the Greek religion, but without success. The doctors of the Sorbonne, at Paris, have since made the same attempt; for when Peter the Great suppressed the patriarchate, they endeavoured to persuade him to bring about an union of the Russian church with that of Rome; but this point they were unable to carry.

S E C T. V.

Of their Marriages and Funeral Ceremonies.

THE marriage ceremonies of the Russians, as described by the author of the Travels of the Holstein ambassadors through Russia to Persia, were very particular; and, as it does not appear that any other alterations on those occasions have been made, than such as necessarily arose from Peter the First introducing a greater degree of familiarity between the sexes, and permitting them to see and converse with each other, we shall here give them to our readers.

When every thing is agreed upon between the parents, if they are of quality, a woman, called the suacha, is appointed by the friends of the bridegroom, and another by those of the bride, to take joint care of the nuptials, who provides every thing fit for the chamber where the new-married couple are to lie. The bed is made of forty sheaves of rye laid in good order, and encompassed with several barrels of wheat, barley, and oats. When all is ready the bridegroom goes late in the evening, accompa-

ried by his kindred; the priest who was to marry him leading the van on horseback. They are received at the bride's door by her relations, invited to come in, and to sit down at table; where only three dishes of meat are served up, and even these are not to be touched by any one present. At the upper end of the table a place is left for the bridegroom, which is taken up by a young lad appointed for that purpose, while the bridegroom is talking with the bride's friends: but at length he having prevailed on the youth by some presents to resign his place to him, takes his seat, and the bride, richly dressed, used to be brought in with a veil over her face, and placed next the bridegroom; two lads at the same time holding a piece of taffety between them, to prevent their seeing each other. The *suacha* then comes in, and paints her, ties up her hair in two knots, puts a coronet on her head, and all the ornaments of a married woman. The coronet is of gold or silver gilt, and lined with silk; having on both sides, near the ears, five or six rows of pearls, hanging down in strings on her breast. The upper garment, which has sleeves an ell and a half wide, is embroidered at the edges with gold and silver, especially about the neck, where it is stiff with embroidery for the breadth of three inches. They sometimes bestow a thousand crowns upon this robe. The bridegroom is then painted by his *suacha*, whilst the women who are present stand singing upon the benches.

At length they all go to church, where the young couple stand upon a piece of taffety, and have a canopy of the same silk over their heads. Here having made offerings of fried meats, fish, and pastry, the priest gives them his benediction, and taking the man by his right hand, and the woman by her left, he asks them three times, whether they are both willing to be married, and to love one another as they ought to do. To which having answered Yes, the whole company join hands, and the priest sings the CXXVIIIth Psalm; which being ended, he puts a garland of rue upon the heads of the young couple, and if one of them be a widow or widower, about their shoulders, saying, "Increase and multiply. Whom God hath joined together, let no men put asunder." While the priest pronounces these words, each of the people invited to the wedding lights a wax-candle, and one of them gives a glass of wine to the priest, which he drinks; and the married-couple having pledged the same three times each, the bridegroom throws down the glass, and he and the bride treading it under their feet, saying, "May they thus fall under our feet, and be trodden to pieces who shall endeavour to sow division or discontent between us." The women then throw some flax or hemp-seed on the young couple, wishing them much prosperity; and some pull the bride by the robe, as if they would take her from the bridegroom, to whom she sticks close, while they seem unable to remove her.

The nuptial ceremony being ended, the bride returns in a sledge, or coach, by the light of six flambeaux, and the bridegroom on horseback. The men immediately sit down at the table, which is covered with provisions; while the women conduct the bride into her chamber, undress her, and having put her to bed, come to the bridegroom, who rising from the table, is conducted to the bride's chamber, by six or eight young men, each with a wax-candle in his hand, which they stick in the barrels of wheat, barley, and oats that stand round the bed: the bride no sooner sees the bridegroom than she slips on a morning-gown, lined with fur, and rising meets and salutes him with a low inclination of the head; and this used to be the first time of the bridegroom's seeing her face. They then sit down to a table, where, among other provisions, they have a roasted fowl, which the bridegroom pulls asunder, and throwing over his shoulder the part he lights on first, they eat the rest, and then go to bed; while the guests employ themselves in several charms to promote the happiness of the new-married couple. Some time after an old servant of the house, who attends at the door, comes and asks whether the business be done; and the bridegroom answering Yes, the word is given for the trumpets and timbrels to strike up, and these sound till the new-married couple are conducted to the stoves, where they bathe themselves apart.

After they have been well washed in the bath with water, mead, and wine, the bride sends the bridegroom a shirt richly embroidered, especially at the neck, and a rich habit. The two next days they spend in mirth and festivity.

Persons of inferior rank are satisfied with fewer ceremonies, for the night before the wedding the bridegroom sends some cloaths, a comb, and a looking-glass; and the next day the priest is brought in by two lads, carrying lighted wax-candles. As soon as he enters the house, he gives his benediction first to the lads, and then to the guests. The young couple being set down at the table, the lads holding a piece of taffety between them, the *suacha* dresses the bride's head, which being done, a looking-glass is brought, and the young couple joining their cheeks, look and smile one upon the other, while the two *suachas* cast hops upon them; after which they go to church, where they are married with the ceremonies already mentioned.

As the Russians esteem marriage a very sacred thing, polygamy is forbidden under pain of death; the emperor himself being allowed only one wife at a time; though if she proves barren, he may send her into a monastery, and marry another. Second marriages they consider as allowable, but not very commendable: a third marriage is not to be undertaken but upon very weighty considerations; and a fourth is punished with death.

Their funerals, like their other public actions, are performed with great ceremony; for the soul of the sick person is no sooner departed, than the widow sends for their kindred and friends, who standing round the corpse break out into lamentations. They then wash the body, and having put a clean shirt or shroud about him, with a new pair of thin Russia leather shoes on his feet, lay him with his arms across his breast, in a coffin made of the trunk of a tree, and in the mean while send a present to the priest to pray for his soul. The coffin is covered with a piece of cloth, or the coat of the deceased. The richer sort, if the season will permit, keep the body eight or ten days, during which the priest comes every day to purify it with incense, and by sprinkling it with holy water.

At length the priest proceeds with the picture of the patron saint of the deceased, followed by four virgins, who are nearest related to the latter, and make very mournful lamentations, but begin and leave off exactly at a time. Then comes the dead body carried by six men upon their shoulders; but if the deceased be a monk, or a nun, this office is performed by those of his own profession. The corpse is surrounded by several priests, who incense it, to keep off the evil spirits, all the while singing Psalms; then follow the kindred and friends with wax-candles, but without any order. On their coming to the grave the coffin is uncovered, and the priest holding over it the picture of the patron saint, says several prayers, in which he often repeats, "Lord look upon this soul in righteousness." Mean while the widow continues her lamentations, and the relations and friends, after kissing either the deceased or his coffin, take their leave. The priest then takes a piece of paper, signed by the bishop of the place and the confessor, and is a kind of ticket for his entrance into paradise. This he puts into the coffin, which is then shut and put into the grave, with the face turned towards the east; while those who return to the house of mourning, drown their sorrow in good liquor.

Their whole time of mourning lasts forty days, during which three feasts are made for the relations of the deceased, on the third, ninth, and twentieth day after the burial; during which the priest says certain prayers morning and evening over the grave, which for that purpose is covered with a small hut of mats: for though the Russians do not believe in purgatory, but maintain that there are two places to which the souls of men retire after their separation from the body, there to wait till the day of judgment, some in a pleasant and delightful abode, where they enjoy the conversation of angels; others in a gloomy and dismal valley, where they see nothing but devils; and that while the soul is yet on its way, it may be diverted from the evil road by the prayers of the priests and monks.



Marriage Ceremony of the Russians.

S E C T. VI.

Of the Learning of the Russians, and their Skill in Arts and Manufactures. The Method of making Caviar. The Exports and Imports. The Trade carried on by Land; and the Manner in which it is conducted at Peterburgh. The Weights, Measures, and Coins of Russia.

LEARNING was but little known in Russia before the reign of Peter the Great; but that illustrious monarch spared neither expence nor trouble to dispel the clouds of ignorance which overspread his empire, and to inspire his subjects with a taste for the arts and sciences: he founded an academy of sciences, an university, and a seminary at Petersburg; besides other schools in the different parts of his empire: invited persons of learning from England, Germany, France, and Holland, to settle at Petersburg: collected a great number of books; and encouraged his subjects to travel into those countries where the arts and sciences flourished. These wise and laudable measures were continued after his death, and the empress Elizabeth erected an university and two seminaries at Moscow. Hence many men of genius among the Russians have cultivated their minds, and made a considerable figure in the republic of letters. Indeed the number of learned Russians is but small; and as there are only three universities in that vast empire, those of Petersburg, Moscow, and Kiow, learning may justly be said to be yet only in its infancy in that empire. The Russians are, however, far from wanting talents and a disposition for learning. The studies to which they chiefly apply themselves are history, geography, and the mathematics.

We find that the members of the academy of sciences at Petersburg not only publish collections of their own memoirs, but compose a variety of books for the instruction of youth in the sciences, and make translations of the most useful books published in foreign countries. Peter the Great established the mystery of printing, that everlasting guardian and friend of the arts, in Russia. His types and other implements for that purpose were brought from Holland. Indeed a press, with letters, had been sent from Poland to Moscow, and a printing-house erected, by the approbation of one of the former czars; but the building was set on fire in the night, and burnt to the ground, by the procurement, as was generally supposed, of the ignorant and superstitious priests, who thought all books, and especially such as treated of their own history, and the miracles of their saints, to be no less dangerous than witchcraft.

All the mechanic arts and trades are continually improving in Russia, and these improvements are far from being entirely owing to the foreigners who reside among them; for the natives being spurred on by emulation, frequently equal, and sometimes exceed their masters. They were formerly almost solely employed in agriculture, feeding of cattle, hunting, and fishing. They excelled indeed in making Russia leather, which had been long practised by them; but they were entirely unacquainted with the more ingenious methanic arts. Great numbers of excellent artificers, invited by Peter the Great, settling in his dominions, the Russians shewed that, with proper instructions, they did not want the capacity of being taught; and they have now flourishing manufactures of velvet, silk, linen, and woollen stuffs; also copper, brass, iron, steel, and tin, are wrought; and great guns, fire-arms, gunpowder, wire, cordage, sail-cloth, paper, parchment, and glass, are made in Russia. All these manufactures are, however, not brought to such perfection as to be carried on without the assistance of foreigners, and additional supplies of those commodities from abroad. Besides, those made by Russian workmen are sold for one-half or a third part less than those made by foreigners at Petersburg and Moscow; and indeed they will not do more than half or a third part of the service: but ship-building is carried to great perfection in Russia. As for the Russian peasants, they are their own artists, and make all the utensils they want.

As caviar forms a considerable branch of their commerce, it will not be improper to give here the manner in which it is prepared. It is made of the roes of the fish called beluga and the sturgeon. The best is made of the beluga roes, and is of two sorts; the granulated and pressed. The former, which is most esteemed, is prepared in autumn and winter, but the latter is made in summer, and both sorts are exported to the southern parts of Europe. The granulated sort is first salted, after taking away the stringy part, with salt well cleaned and made into brine; and, being drained from the oily parts, it is put into kegs for exportation. Caviar is most palatable when fresh and spread on bread with salt, leeks, and pepper, and is therefore sent in the winter frozen to all parts of the empire; but, as it soon becomes tainted by warmth, it cannot well be exported fresh.

Russia affords a variety of articles of commerce, that are of great use to foreigners; and, as the exports of this country far exceed its imports, the balance of trade is considerably in its favour. The other Russian home commodities are fables and black furs; the skins of blue and white foxes, ermines, hyenas, linxes, squirrels, bears, panthers, wolves, martins, wild cats, white hares, &c. Likewise Russia leather, copper, iron, ising-glass, tallow, pitch, tar, linseed oil, train oil, rosin, honey, wax, potash, salt-fish, hemp, flax, thread, calimancoes, Russia linen, sail-cloth, mats, castor, Siberian musk, mamonts teeth and bones, as they are called, soap, feathers, hogs bristles, timber, &c. to which may be added the Chinese goods, rhubarb, and other drugs, with which the Russians partly furnish the rest of Europe.

The fishery of seals, of which about ten thousand are annually caught, yields five thousand measures of oil. The skins and oil are sent to England. Morfes, or sea-horses, from Nova Zembla, used to load thirty boats a year with blubber, and their teeth are esteemed next to ivory: but this trade being monopolized by a company, daily decays. Of cod and stock-fish, about three ships lading are sent yearly to Denmark: of salmon, salted and dried, a ship's loading to Bilboa.

The goods imported into Russia are silk, cotton and other woollen stuffs, fine linen, chintz, toys, French brandy, wine, herrings and other fish, spices, hardware, &c. In 1749, the value of the goods exported from Petersburg amounted to three millions one hundred and eighty-four thousand three hundred and twenty-two rubles, and that of the imports to two millions nine hundred and forty-two thousand two hundred and forty-two rubles. Of these the value of two millions two hundred and forty-five thousand five hundred and seventy-three rubles were exported to England; and the value of the commodities imported from thence amounted to one million twelve thousand two hundred and nine rubles.

But it will not be improper to enter here more minutely into the state of commerce in the Russian empire. The trade of Russia may be divided into domestic and foreign, or that by land and sea. The land-trade chiefly consists of,

1. The trade to China, which is chiefly carried on by caravans, and partly by private adventurers. The most valuable commodities, and those in the greatest quantity, carried by the Russians to China are furs; in return for which they bring back gold, tea, silks, cotton, &c.

2. The trade to Persia, by the way of Astracan and the Caspian sea, is pretty considerable; and the returns are made in raw silks and silk stuffs.

3. The trade with the Calmucs, which is entirely in private hands, consists of all kinds of iron and copper utensils; in return for which they receive cattle, provisions, and sometimes gold and silver; but this trade is of no great importance.

4. The trade to Bochara, one of the chief towns of Ussbec Tartary, is either for ready money or by bartering of goods for curled lamb skins, Indian silks, and sometimes gems brought to the yearly fair of Samarkand.

5. The traders in the Ukraine sell all kinds of provisions to the Crim Tartars; and also carry on a trade with the Greek merchants at Constantinople.

The inhabitants of Kiow trade to Silesia in cattle and Russia leather.

The

The Russians were strangers to the course of exchange, till it was introduced among them in the year 1670. Money was then so very scarce in this empire, that foreigners were obliged to barter their goods for those of Russia. Most of the foreign merchants then resided at Moscow, but took a journey in the summer to Archangel, where they had their warehouses and factors. This practice continued till 1721, when, by the order of Peter the Great, the seat of commerce was removed from Archangel to Petersburg; on which the foreign traders removed their factories thither, where they are not allowed to keep the goods consigned to them in their own warehouses, but are obliged to deposit them in magazines built for that purpose by the government, to which they pay rent for warehouse-room, in proportion to the quantity of their goods.

The merchants and traders of Petersburg, as in other countries, consist of natives and foreigners. The former may sell either by wholesale or retail; but the latter by wholesale only, and that to none but the natives: for they are not permitted to sell any thing to one another, or to have any commercial dealings together. Most of the foreign traders at Petersburg are only factors, and the rest, who trade on their bottoms, deal chiefly in grocery. The factors are intrusted with large capitals, and, without engaging in commerce for themselves, may raise handsome fortunes. The Russian traders, who bring goods to Petersburg and carry foreign commodities farther into the continent, do not reside in that city, but annually bring their goods thither in May or June by water, and in September, October, and December, return with foreign commodities; but the wealthy save the fatigue of travelling, by sending their factor to Petersburg.

All foreign merchandizes are generally sold at a twelve months credit; but the Russian commodities must be paid for at the delivery of the goods, except the natives find a difficulty in selling their stock; in which case they deal by way of exchange; yet will not barter goods for goods, but generally insist on one-fourth, one-third, or one-half of the value of the whole in specie; and of late foreign merchants deal for the Russian commodities by contract, and even advance the money to the Russians in winter, upon condition of their delivering in the goods at a settled price the following summer; but, for the greater security, these contracts are entered in the custom-house books.

The English enjoyed considerable privileges in trade so early as the reign of the czar Iwan Basilowitz, to whom captain Chancellor delivered a letter from Edward VI. in 1553, and received a licence to trade, which was renewed by Peter the Great. In 1742 a treaty of commerce was concluded between Russia and England, by which it was stipulated, that the English should be allowed the privilege of sending goods through Russia into Persia; but captain Elton, an Englishman, having entered into the service of Nadir Shah, and built ships on the Caspian sea for that monarch, the Russians, together with the troubles in Persia, put a stop to this trade. The English, however, still carry on a considerable trade with Russia, which exceeds that of any other nation.

The goods chiefly imported from England are all sorts of woollen manufactures, lead, tin, pewter, dying woods, indigo, olibanum, brimstone, and lignum-vitæ. The Hollanders and Hamburgers, besides these, bring wines, paper, allum, glass-ware, spices, dollars, plate, gold and silver lace, brocades, Silesia cloth, &c.

The exports of the English from Russia are hemp, flax, linen, train oil, pot-ash, rhubarb, isinglass, wax, tar, red hides, and caviar. The Dutch and Hamburgers receive also from thence wood-ashes, masts, hides dried, tallow, fables, hemp-seed, mats, and hogs bristles.

The Dutch carry on the greatest trade, next to the English, with the Russians. Bills of exchange are drawn at Petersburg on Amsterdam only; on which account the traders of other countries, who give commission for buying Russian commodities at Petersburg, are obliged to procure credit, or to have proper funds at Amsterdam.

The trade to Petersburg is now carried to a great height, for the number of ships which entered that port in 1751 from England, Holland, France, Norway, Den-

mark, Lubec, Hamburg, Stetin, Rostoc, Kiel, Prussia, Sweden, and Dantzic, amounted to two hundred and ninety. Indeed there is no nation in the world more inclined to commerce than the Russians are at present; but they are so full of chicanery and art, that a foreigner cannot be too much on his guard in his dealings with them.

The weights peculiar to Russia are a solothnic, which is one-sixth of an ounce, and is divided into halves, quarters, and eighths: a Russian pound, equal to ninety-six solothnics: a pud, or pood, equal to thirty-six pounds avoirdupois: a berkowetz, equal to ten puds. The other weights are the same with those of Germany.

The measures of length are the arshine, or Russian ell, equal to twenty-eight inches and one-tenth English measure: a werloc, which is one-fifteenths of an arshine; and a sashen, or fathom, contains three arshines.

All the Russian coins, ducats excepted, have inscriptions in the Russian tongue. The gold coins are imperial ducats; and the largest silver coin is the ruble, the value of which rises and falls according to the course of exchange. A ruble in Russia is equal to an hundred copeiks, or four shillings and six-pence sterling. The other silver coins are half rubles, which are called poltinnics and quarter rubles. A gryphe, or griwe, is of the value of ten copeiks; and ten griwes are equal to a ruble.

The copper coins are a copeik, which is of the value of about a halfpenny. A denga, or denushka, two of which make a copeik; and a polushka, which is a quarter of a copeik.

There are no other foreign pieces current in Russia than ducats, Holland rixdollars, and Albert dollars.

Besides the Russian coins, the following are also current in Livonia: a white schelling, which is worth two black schellings; three of the former make one grosh, which is seven-fifteenths of a penny: a farding, which is one grosh and a half: a Riga mark, which is six groshes: a Polish guilder, which is five Riga marks: a kopa-shock, or lowenthaler, equal to twenty-five groshes; and a rixdollar, valued at sixty fardings.

SECT. VII.

Of the Coronation, Titles, Arms, Court, Revenues, and Forces of the Emperor, by Land and Sea.

AT the accession of an emperor to the throne, the metropolitans, archbishops, and bishops, with all the nobility and principal merchants throughout the empire, are summoned to Moscow against the day of coronation; when the archbishop of Moscow conducts the emperor to the church of Precheste, or our Lady, where a scaffold is erected, three steps high, covered with rich Persian tapestry, on which are set three chairs at equal distances from each other. One of these is for the emperor, another for the archbishop, and the third for the imperial cap and robe. The robe is of purple sattin, lined with sable, and on the top of the cap, which is embroidered with jewels, is a small crown set as thick as possible with diamonds, and said to be the same which the great duke Demetrius Monomach took at Caffa, in Tartary, and destined for the coronation of his successors.

On the prince's entering the church, the clergy begin their hymns; after which the archbishop prays to God, to St. Nicholas, and the other saints, desiring their presence on that solemn day. The prayer being ended, the chief counsellor of state takes the emperor by the hand, and presenting him to the archbishop, says, "The knez and bojars acknowledge the prince here present to be lawful heir to the crown, and desire that as such you immediately crown him." Upon this the archbishop leads the prince up to the scaffold, seats him on one of the three chairs, touches his forehead with a little cross of diamonds, and blesses him. Then one of the metropolitans reads the following prayer:

"O Lord our God, King of Kings, who didst choose thy servant David, by thy prophet Samuel, and didst cause him to be anointed king over thy people Israel, attend to our prayers, which, though unworthy, we offer up to thee. Look down from thy sanctuary upon this thy servant, whom thou hast chosen and ex-

“ altd

“ altd for king over theſe thy holy nations : anoint him
 “ with the oil of gladneſs ; proteſt him with thy power ;
 “ ſet upon his head a precious diadem ; grant him a long
 “ and happy life ; put into his hand a royal ſcepter, and
 “ make him fit upon the throne of juſtice ; make ſubject
 “ to him all barbarous nations ; may his heart and un-
 “ derſtanding always continue in thy fear, and thro’
 “ the whole courſe of his life may he obey thy com-
 “ mandments : ſuffer not any hereſy or ſchiſm to come
 “ near his perſon or government ; but ſhew him the
 “ ſalvation of thy holy and univerſal church, that he
 “ may judge thy people with juſtice, proteſt the chil-
 “ dren of the poor, and finally attain everlaſting life ;
 “ for thine is the kingdom, the power and the glory.
 “ God the Father, God the Son, and God the Holy
 “ Ghoſt, be with us, and remain with us.”

This prayer being ended, the archbiſhop orders the two metropolitans to take the cap and robe ; and ſome of the bojars, whom he directs to come upon the ſcaffold, are bid to put them on the prince, whom he bleſſes a ſecond time, by touching his forehead with the little croſs of diamonds ; and while they ſet the ducal cap upon his head, the archbiſhop ſays, In the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghoſt, and bleſſes him a third time.

The archbiſhop then bids all the prelates approach, and each of them gives the emperor his benediction. The emperor and the archbiſhop then ſit down, but immediately riſe again, to order the ſinging of the Litany, every verſe of which ends with “ Lord have mercy upon us,” and is frequently intermixed with the emperor’s name. After the Litany they ſit down again, and one of the metropolitans goes up to the altar, and ſings, “ God preſerve
 “ the health of the emperor of all the Ruſſias, whom he
 “ hath of his love beſtowed upon us, and grant him a
 “ long and happy life.” Theſe words are echoed round for ſome time by every one preſent, after which the archbiſhop alone goes up to the prince, and tells him,
 “ That ſince, through the providence of God, all the
 “ ſtates of the realm, as well eccleſiaſtical as temporal,
 “ have eſta bliſhed and crowned him emperor of all the
 “ Ruſſias, and entrusted him with a government of ſuch
 “ importance, he ought to apply all his thoughts to love
 “ God, keep his commandments, adminiſter juſtice,
 “ and proteſt and maintain the true Greek religion.” He then bows down to the ground before the emperor, as a token of his homage ; and all the reſt, eccleſiaſtics, nobles, and others, in their reſpective ranks, do the ſame. They then go to the church of St. Michael the Archangel, and afterwards to that of St. Nicholas, both of which, as well as that of our Lady, are within the walls of the palace, and, after ſinging in each of them the ſame Litany as before, conclude the ceremonies with dining in the great hall of the Kremlin.

The antient ſovereigns of Ruſſia ſtiled themſelves great dukes, and afterwards czars ; but Peter the Great aſſumed the title of emperor, and that title is now given him by all Europe. The titles of the emperor at full length are, Emperor and ſole ſovereign of all the Ruſſias, ſovereign lord of Moſcow, Kiow, Wlodimiria, Novogrod ; czar in Caſan, Aſtracan, and Siberia ; lord of Pleſkow ; great duke of Smoleſko ; duke of Eſthonia, Livonia, and Carelia ; of Tweria, Ingria, Pernia, Wiatkia, Bulgaria, and lord of ſeveral other territories ; great duke of Novogrod, in the low country of Tſhernickow, Reſan, Roſtow, Iaroſlaw, Bielo-ſero, Uldoria, Obdoria, Con-
 “ dinia ; emperor of all the northern parts ; lord of the
 “ territory of Juweria ; of the Carthalianian, Grewzinian,
 “ and Georgian czars ; of the Kabardinian, Circaſſian, and
 “ Gorian princes ; and lord and ſupreme ruler of many
 “ other countries and territories.

Since the reign of Iwan Baſilowitz, the arms of Ruſſia have been, or, an eagle diſplayed ſable, holding a golden ſcepter and monde in his talons : over the eagle’s head are three crowns, and on its breſt it bears a ſhield, with the arms of Moſcow in the center, encompaſſed by ſix others, which are thoſe of Aſtracan, Siberia, Caſan, Kiow, and Wlodimiria.

The power of the Ruſſian emperor is as abſolute and unlimited as poſſible. Peter the Great published an ordinance, by which the ſucceſſion was entirely to depend

on the will and pleaſure of the reigning ſovereign ; and this is the only written fundamental law in relation to the ſucceſſion.

The Ruſſian court has always been very numerous and magnificent, it being filled, particularly on ſolemn occaſions, by the bojars or privy counſellors, and by the nobles and gentry, who are obliged to pay a conſtant attendance, by titles of honour and diſtinction, without any ſalary ; as the carvers, who are always two of the firſt nobility, and whoſe employment is eſteemed extremely honourable ; the ſewers, who carry meſſages of importance, receive ambaffadors, &c. and the gentlemen of the bed-chamber. Theſe two laſt titles are given to a great number of perſons, and deſcend from father to ſon, though they are generally confirmed by the prince ; and laſtly, the chief merchants. On public feſtivals and days of ceremony all theſe antiently received rich brocade gowns, lined with furs, from the treaſury, which they returned as ſoon as the appearance was over. Peter the Firſt, however, aboliſhed theſe formalities, without ſettling any other court, either to ſave the expence during the wars in which he was engaged, or from his particular temper, which was averſe to ſuch conſtraints. On any ceremony he was attended by the chief officers of his army, and only ſome of his nobility. The former pomp has, however, been ſince reſtored, and augmented by the addition of three orders of knighthood, created by the great prince we have juſt mentioned.

The firſt and moſt honourable is that of St. Andrew, or the blue ribbon, inſtituted by Peter the Great in 1698, in honour of St. Andrew, the patron of Ruſſia. The empreſs Catharine gave the ſtatutes, and aſſigned proper habits for this order, which hath its enſigns, motto, and collar.

The ſecond is the order of St. Alexander Newſki, or the red ribbon, which was inſtituted by Peter I. but the czarina Catharine firſt conferred it in the year 1725. This order has alſo its badge and motto.

There is likewiſe a female order founded by Peter in 1714, in honour of his conſort Catharine, and from her called the order of St. Catharine. Theſe honours, as Voltaire obſerves, command reſpect, coſt the ſovereign nothing, and flatter thoſe who receive them, without adding to their power.

The chief officer under the emperor is the chancellor, after whom is the grand maſter of the houſhold, the maſter of the horſe, the treaſurer, comptroller, chamberlain, taſters, harbingers, &c.

An hundred and fifty tables are now ſpread twice a day at the Ruſſian court, and ſerved with eighteen hundred diſhes ; for this purpoſe the court-purveyor receives two thouſand rubles every three days, excluſive of the produce of the crown eſtates, and the proper quantities of wine, ſugar, and ſpices. The daily conſumption of coffee amounts to one pud, or thirty-fix pounds weight, and ſeven thouſand puds of ſalt are expended every month.

The revenues of the Ruſſian empire are variously computed, ſome reckoning that they amount to fixty millions of rubles, others to twenty millions, and others again to no more than eight millions a year : but Mr. Voltaire ſays, that, according to the Ruſſian finances in 1725, they amounted to thirteen millions of rubles, reckoning only the taxes and duties paid in money, excluſive of what is paid in kind ; and adds, that this ſum was then ſufficient to maintain three hundred and thirty-nine thouſand five hundred ſoldiers and ſailors ; and that both the revenue and troops have increaſed ſince. It is, however, very certain that the imperial revenues bear no proportion to the vaſt extent of the Ruſſian dominions ; that they do not all conſiſt of ready money, the country in many places furniſhing recruits for the army inſtead of it ; and moſt of the inhabitants of Siberia pay their tribute in furs.

Theſe revenues ariſe from the annual capitation, or poll-tax, to which the vaſſals of noblemen pay ſeventy copeiks, the burghers a hundred and twenty copeiks, and the Tartars and other nations in the territory of Caſan pay a hundred and ten copeiks a man. This tax, according to Dr. Buſching, amounts to five millions of rubles.

From the demefne lands, occupied by three hundred and fixty thousand peafants, each of whom pays a hundred and ten copeiks a year, amounting in all to three hundred and ninety-fix thousand rubles.

From the inns and drinking-houfes, which are about two millions; the privilege of felling beer, mead, and malt-fpirits being monopolized by the crown.

From the tolls and customs by land and fea, which produce about one million one hundred and fifty thousand rubles.

From the trade carried on by the crown in iron, potafh, afhes of the willow tree, rhubarb, tar, and train oil.

From the falt-works, which yearly bring into the treasury feven hundred thousand rubles.

From the duty on ftampt paper, amounting to one hundred and twenty thousand rubles.

From a tax on law-fuits, which pay ten per cent. of the value contefted; from hearth-money and Bath-ftoves; and from all hackney-horfes and carriages.

From the abbey-lands, fince their being managed by a fecular commiffion, for the benefit of the crown.

From the caravans to China, which is never lefs than a hundred thousand rubles.

The produce of the public fhows of tumblers and rope-dancers, of which multitudes are exhibited at Eafter for the diverfion of the people, who are paffionately fond of them, is allotted for paying the expence of the police, paving the ftreets, &c. Befides this, every houfe-keeper pays an affeffment for his houfe and court-yard, according to the extent of the ground, which is applied to the fame purpofes.

The falaries of all civil officers are paid out of the money received by the offices belonging to their departments; and thofe of the governors, by the offices of their refpective governments. The furplus that remains in the inferior offices is fent to the treasury.

According to the ftate of the Ruffian forces drawn up by Van Hoven, in the year 1746, the army then confifted of two hundred and forty-fix thousand four hundred and ninety-four regulars, and a hundred and twenty thousand irregulars. The fleet confifted of twenty-four fhips of the line, feven frigates, three bomb-ketches, and two flat boats, befides the galley fleet at Peterfburgh, confifting of a hundred and two gallies. The complement of the whole fleet amounted to ten thousand five hundred and feventy men, of whom feven thousand feven hundred and one were failors. The fleet has continued pretty nearly the fame fince that time; for though fome new fhips have been built, others have become unfit for fervice. The men of war are laid up at Revel and Cronftadt, and the gallies at Peterfburgh. The Ruffians indeed have no very good harbour in the Baltick; the water at Cronftadt, by being too frefh, does confiderable damage to the fhips that lie there; befides, the mouth of the harbour is too narrow, and furrounded with rocks and dangerous fands, and is feldom clear of ice before the end of May: nor have they now any conftant fleet in the Cafpian fea.

The high-admiral of Ruffia has the rank and pay of a general field-marfhal; and the Ruffian fleet is divided into three fquadrons, commanded by an admiral-general in the center, who bears a white flag, with a crimfon crofs: the van has an admiral, who bears a blue flag, with a white crofs; and the rear has another admiral, who bears a red flag, with a white crofs. Each of thefe three fquadrons has a vice-admiral, a rear-admiral, and three commodores. The gallies are commanded by an admiral, two vice-admirals, three rear-admirals, and three commodores. Their flags are of the fame colour as thofe of the fquadrons to which they belong, but of a different form. When the emperor commands his fleet in perfon, his fhip bears the royal ftandard of the empire, which is yellow, and in the middle of it are the arms of Ruffia.

S E C T. VIII.

Of the feveral Colleges, or Offices for the Adminiftration of the Affairs of Government; the Laws and Punifhment of Malefaftors.

WE fhall now take a view of the executive part of the government, which was regulated by Peter I.

by whose direction all the affairs of the Ruffian empire were managed by the following councils, offices, colleges, or chanceries, as they are called.

The fenate, or directing council, which takes care of all domeftic affairs, receives accounts from all the colleges, iffues out orders to them all, and is the fupreme court of judicature, to which all proceffes are brought by appeal as the laft refort.

The holy fynod, or ecclefiaftical council, which regulates all affairs relating to the church.

The war-college, which has the care of recruiting and exercifing the whole Ruffian army, except the guards, who are under the direction of the fovereign. This office alfo receives the taxes appointed for the maintenance of the troops, and nominates the officers as high as the lieutenant-colonels. Under the war-college are the office of the general commiffary at war, the office of ordnance, that of the under commiffary of war, the military cheft, the office for cloathing the army, the victualling-office, and the accompting-office.

The admiralty-college has the management of all naval concerns, without exception; and fuch forefts as are near navigable rivers are under its infpection. Subordinate to it are the office of the general commiffary of the navy, which pays and victuals the fleet, and keeps the money affigned for thofe fervices: the ftore-office, which has the direction of the magazines, and every thing that belongs to the equipment of fhips of war: the office which directs the building of fhips, provides the neceffary materials, and has alfo the infpection of the forefts; and the artillery-office.

The college for foreign affairs, which pays the falaries of the Ruffian minifters at foreign courts, and the expences and penfions of foreign envoys, which are always defrayed. This college alfo makes out paffports, and decides the difficulties and difputes that arife in relation to foreign minifters. The members of this college are the chancellor and vice-chancellor of the empire, who, when any momentous affairs come under their confideration, are affifted by fome of the counfellors of ftate.

The college of the treasury, which has the direction of levying all the public revenues, except the poll-tax and the produce of the falt-works. The office that has the care of the money arifing from the conquered provinces is at prefent held at Peterfburgh; but all the other departments belonging to the treasury are at Mofcow.

The ftate-office iffues out the public money, and gives the neceffary directions to the chamber of accounts; hence the revenue-chambers at Peterfburgh and Mofcow are dependant on this office.

The revision-college is a fort of check on the other colleges, and therefore receives and examines their accompts.

The falt-office has the direction of the revenues arifing from the falt-works, which are appropriated to the emperfs purfe.

The confifcation chancery directs the fale of all forfeited eftates, and the levying of all fines impofed by the other colleges.

The colleges for trade, mines, and manufactures, are diftinct offices; and, befides the departments from which they take their names, have alfo the management of the naval customs and tolls, and decide all difputes in relation to commerce between merchants and traders.

The college of juftice at Mofcow, fome of the members of which conftitute a college at Peterfburgh, which determines fuits brought thither by appeal from the conquered provinces; and has likewife a confiftorial jurifdiction over the proteftants and papifts in that city; but on this occafion the minifter of the church to which the plaintiff belongs, is fummoned to attend.

They have alfo a feudal chancery at Mofcow, that has the care of every thing relating to the eftates of private perfons, their boundaries, or limits.

Befides thefe, there is a college of the magiftracy, to which all the magiftrates in the empire are accountable for their conduct; and a privy-chancery, as it is called, that takes cognizance of all hofpitals, difpensaries, medicines, &c.

In order to give a more perfect idea of this government, it is proper to obferve, that formerly the Ruffian nobility confifted folely of knefes, or princes, and gentlemen; and

and that bojar, or boyar, is not a title of nobility, but antiently denoted a post or office, as a privy-counsellor, &c. Peter the Great added the titles of counts and barons to the former: but no birth or title, according to the wise regulations made by Peter I. gives a person rank, unless he merits it by his services and abilities; by which means many foreigners of mean extraction have risen to very great honours in Russia: for in regard to unlimited subjection to their sovereign, the nobility are on a level with the rest of the people. Even the greatest of them used formerly to glory in stiling themselves the slaves of the czar, whenever they either spoke or wrote to him; but Peter I. abolished this harsh term, and ordered them to use instead of it, the word subject.

Yet the peasants are still perfect slaves, and absolutely subject to the arbitrary power of their lords, who may treat them as they please, provided they do not kill them; and are liable to be transferred, with all their goods, from one master to another. The government itself is in the last degree absolute; and, notwithstanding Peter's giving them the name of subjects, the people of all ranks may justly be termed slaves, as their lives and fortunes depend solely on the will of their sovereign. Even such as are employed in the state have their share of arbitrary power; for their proceedings being without appeal, and in the emperor's name, they often abuse their authority, in order to satisfy their avarice, revenge, or other guilty passions. For deciding cases between private men, they have precedents and written laws, particularly a code called *Subornoe Uloshenie*, an Uniform and Universal Law, which Alexius Michaelowitz published in 1649, and has been enlarged by the edicts of the succeeding czars. The process is summary, and the punishment inflicted very severe, though not quite so rigorous as formerly.

In disputes between private persons, where the parties are not agreed as to a matter of fact, and have no evidence on either side, the judge asks the plaintiff, whether he will take his oath, that the affair was as he hath represented it, or refer it to the oath of the defendant. Formerly, he who offered to take his oath was once a week, for three weeks running, brought before the judge, who every day represented to him the importance of an oath, and the dreadful sin of swearing falsely; and if after this he still persisted in his readiness to take his oath, though he swore nothing but the truth, the people would consider him as an infamous person, spit in his face, and turn him out of church; and he was never after admitted to the communion, till his being at the point of death. They now proceed with less rigour: he who is to take his oath is brought before a picture of one of their saints, where he is asked, whether he will swear upon the salvation of his soul? If he persists, they give him a little crucifix to kiss, and afterwards the picture of the saint, which is taken down from the wall for that purpose. Though the oath be indisputably true, the person who takes it is not admitted to the communion for three years; and though he is not treated as infamous, people of any rank will not easily suffer him in their company; but the perjured is punished with the knute, and then banished. Hence the Russians endeavour as much as possible to avoid taking an oath, though they are very guilty of prophane swearing, and particularly the traders have incessantly in their mouths *po Chrestum*, by Christ, making the sign of the cross at the same time. Strangers are permitted to take their oaths, according to the rules of their several religions.

The office of an executioner was formerly esteemed very honourable; but this officer is now esteemed infamous, and the executioner is not permitted to sell his office; for it must continue in his family, on failure of which, the butchers are obliged to choose one out of their body.

The ordinary punishments in Russia are, the battogen, katze, and knute. The battogen is thus inflicted; he who is to receive this chastisement, is stripped to his shirt, and laid upon the ground on his belly, when two men sitting upon him, one upon his neck, and the other upon his feet, beat him on the back with little wands, or switches, during the time ordered by the judge.

The katze is flitting the nostrils, which was formerly inflicted on those who, contrary to an old prohibition, took tobacco in snuff.

The knute, as given in Russia, is a most barbarous punishment. Olearius describes the manner in which he saw it executed on eight men and one woman, for selling brandy and tobacco without a licence. The executioner's man after stripping them down to the waist, tied their feet, and took one at a time upon his back. The executioner stood at three paces distant with a bull's pizzle, to the end of which were fastened three thongs of an elk's skin untanned, with which springing forward, whenever he struck, he lashed their backs with all his strength, so that the blood gushed out at every blow. The men had twenty-five or twenty-six lashes each, till an officer who had in writing the number of stripes they were to receive, cried enough. The woman, who had only sixteen, fainted away. After their backs were thus dreadfully mangled, they were all tied together by the arms, two and two; those who sold tobacco having a little horn full of it, and those who had sold brandy, a little bottle about their necks, and whipped through the city for about half a league, after which they were brought back to the place of their first punishment, and then dismissed.

Many die of this cruel flagellation. But horrid as it must appear to every person of humanity, M. de la Motraye says, that this is only what is called the moderate knute; for when the sentence orders it between the moderate and severe, pieces of flesh are taken off at every stroke of the executioner; and when it is ordered to be given with the utmost severity, the executioner striking the flank, under the ribs, cuts the flesh to the very bowels.

Offenders are sometimes bastinadoed on their soles of their feet in a most cruel manner.

Thieves are tortured to make them discover their accomplices, and confess their other crimes; these tortures are as dreadful as can be conceived. The thief for the first offence is only whipt from the prison to the market-place, where he has his ears cut off, and is sent back to prison for two years. If he offends a second time, he is whipped as before, and afterwards banished into Siberia. Theft is never punished with death in Russia; but the receivers and concealers of stolen goods are punished equally with the thief.

Murder is punished with death. The criminal is kept six weeks in a very close prison, upon bread and water alone; after which he receives the communion, and is beheaded.

Merciful as they appear in case of murder, they seem destitute of all humanity, where a man is so unhappy as to be unable to satisfy his creditors. He who does not pay his creditor at the time agreed upon, is put into the house of an officer appointed for that purpose, and has a certain farther time allowed him to make satisfaction; but if he then fails, he is carried to prison, from whence he is brought every day to a place before the chancery, where the common executioner beats him upon the shin bones with a wand about the thickness of a man's little finger, for an hour together. He is then returned to prison, except he can procure security for his appearing again the next day at the same hour, to be treated in the same manner, till he has made satisfaction. This is rigorously executed upon persons of all ranks, subjects and foreigners, men and women, priests and laymen; and if at last the debtor cannot find wherewith to pay, he with his wife and children are sentenced to be bond slaves to the creditor.

S E C T. IX.

Of the Government of Kiow or Kiew, with an Account of the Zaporog, the Bielgorod, and Don Cossacs, the Haidamacs and Yaik Cossacs; with a Description of the Cities of Kiow, and Pultowa.

HAVING given a description of Russia in general, with the climate, manners, religion, and government of the inhabitants, we shall now give some account of the different provinces, and principal towns of the country, which contains Great, Little, and White Russia, with the provinces that formerly belonged to Sweden.

den. It must here be observed, that White Russia in this empire ought not to be confounded with the country of the same name in Lithuania, and that Red Russia belongs to Poland. Dr. Busching observes with respect to the origin of these names, that it is a custom among these eastern people, to distinguish countries by the epithets white and black; and that by the former, they call the most extensive and fertile, and by the latter, the smaller and less fruitful territories.

The Russian empire in Europe is divided into governments, and every government consists of certain provinces or circles. These governments have been frequently altered, but according to the present division, they are as follow: Kiew, Woranesh and Asow, Bielogorod, Smolensk, Great Moscow, Novogrod, Nishnoy-Novogrod, Archangel, Wiburg, Petersburg, Narva, Reval, and Riga. We shall begin with the countries bordering on Turkey and Poland, and for the sake of method, proceed from south to north.

The government of Kiew consists of part of Little Russia, and is inhabited by the Cossacs, which word signifies irregular troops of horse. The European Cossacs are, the Zaporog Cossacs, who live below the cataract of the Nieper, some on the side next to Russia, and others on the opposite side of the river; but most of them are subject to the Russians: the Bielogorod Cossacs, and a part of the Don Cossacs, both of which are under the Russian government.

The Cossacs were known by that name so early as the year 948, when they lived on mount Caucasus, and were reduced under the Russian dominions in 1021. In the beginning of the sixteenth century, the Zaporog Cossacs fixed their habitations on the spacious plains along the banks of the Nieper. The Poles, sensible of the advantage they might receive from their defending them against the incursions of the Tartars, took them under their protection in the year 1562, and engaged to pay them an annual subsidy, on condition of their keeping on foot a good body of troops, for the defence of the Polish dominions; and to bind them by ties of interest, gave up to them the whole country that lies between the rivers Nieper and Niester, and the borders of Tartary. The Cossacs so industriously cultivated that fertile tract of land, that in a short time it was interspersed with large towns, and handsome villages. They continually harassed the Turks by their incursions, and to prevent the latter from pursuing them, or making reprisals, seized on several small islands on the Nieper, where they kept their magazines.

This alliance, though of such advantage both to the Poles and Cossacs, did not long subsist; for the former envying the latter the fine country they possessed, attempted to bring them into subjection; upon which the Cossacs, fired with indignation, had recourse to arms, and applied both to Russia and the Ottoman Porte for protection. A very bloody war ensued, which, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, was from time to time renewed with the utmost fury and animosity. The result of all was, that the Cossacs remained under the protection of Russia, and their former country being laid waste in the late wars, they settled in the Russian Ukraine; upon their receiving assurances from the Russian court, that they should be free from all taxes, and no alteration be made in their political constitution: in return for which, they were always to keep in readiness a considerable body of troops for the service of Russia. But in 1708, Mazeppa their hettman, or chief, went over from the Russians to the Swedes, under Charles XII. upon which Peter I. resolved to prevent such revolts for the future, and after the battle of Pultowa, sent a strong detachment into the little islands of the Nieper, to which the Cossacs had fled with their wives, their children, and all their effects, and cruelly ordered them, without distinction, to be put to the sword, and the plunder to be distributed among the soldiers. He also sent a great number of his men into their country, and caused many thousands of the Cossacs to be conveyed to the coasts of the Baltic, where they were put to all manner of hard labour.

Upon the death of their hettman in 1722, that office was abolished, but was restored again in 1750, when

they elected for their hettman count Rasumowsky, privy counsellor of the Russian empire, president of the academy of sciences, and lieutenant-colonel of the Ishmailow regiment of life-guards; and this election was confirmed by the reigning empress Elizabeth.

The country of these Cossacs is commonly called the Ukraine, which word properly signifies a frontier; it lying on the borders of Russia, Poland, Little Tartary, and Turkey. By virtue of a treaty concluded in 1693, between Russia and Poland, the latter remains in possession of all that part of the Ukraine that lies on the west side of the Nieper, which is but indifferently cultivated; while the country on the east side, inhabited by the Cossacs, is in a much better condition.

This country, which is subject to Russia, extends about three hundred miles in length, and about as many in breadth. It is one continued fertile plain, watered by a great number of fine rivers, and diversified with pleasant woods. It produces all kinds of grain, pulse, tobacco, honey, and wax, in such quantities, as to supply a great part of the Russian empire with those commodities. The pastures are extremely rich, and the cattle of an extraordinary size; the rivers also abound with excellent fish. This fine country, however, is very much infested by locusts, which are a great plague to the inhabitants.

Most of the houses of the Ukraine are built with wood, after the Russian manner. The Cossacs are tall, and well made; they have generally an aquiline nose, and a good mien. They are vigorous, hardy, brave, and very jealous of their liberty; fickle and wavering: but sociable, chearful, and sprightly. Their forces entirely consist of cavalry. Their dialect is a mixture of the Polish and Russian language; but the latter is most predominant. They profess the Greek religion; but there are also some Protestants and Roman catholics among them; in short, they are a very powerful people. Every town, with the district belonging to it, is governed by an officer called attaman, or ottoman.

The Don Cossacs, who inhabit the banks of the river Don, greatly resemble those we have been describing. In 1549 they voluntarily put themselves under the protection of the czar Iwan Basilowitz, and are at present nearly on an equal footing with the other Russian subjects. These Cossacs have a great number of towns and villages along the banks of the Don; but the scarcity of wood, and in many places of fresh water, prevents their extending themselves farther up the country. They chiefly subsist by grazing and agriculture, and occasionally by robbing and plundering. Every town is governed by a magistrate, whom they call taman; and the tamans, with their towns, are under the jurisdiction of two attamans, who reside at Tsherkasky. The troops of these Cossacs likewise consist entirely of cavalry. Every town and village in this country is fortified and surrounded with palisades, to secure them against the incursions of the Calmucs and Kuban Tartars, with whom they are always at war. The Cossacs in general are of great service in garrisoning of towns and defending them, or in pursuing an enemy; but are not so good at regular attacks.

The Haidamacs have their particular hettman, and live in the Russian, Polish, and Turkish dominions, along the banks of the Nieper.

The Yaik Cossacs live on the south side of the river Yaik, and on the success of the Russian arms in the kingdom of Astracan, voluntarily submitted to them. In stature they much resemble the other Cossacs, though from their boorish manner of living, and intermarrying with the Tartars, they have not the shape and air peculiar to the rest of their countrymen; but resemble them, however, in their natural dispositions and customs. Their chief employments are agriculture, fishing, and feeding cattle; and, like the other tribes, they seldom let slip an opportunity of robbing their neighbours. Their continual wars with the Kara Kalpacs oblige them to keep their towns and villages in a state of defence. They are indeed subject to Russian waywodes, to whom they annually pay a tribute in cattle, corn, honey, and wax; but have their particular chiefs, who govern them according to their antient customs. The greatest part of the Yaik Cossacs profess the Greek religion; but many relics of Mahometism and Paganism are still to be found amongst

amongst them. They are remarkable for their hardiness and courage, and make excellent soldiers. They live in peace, and even carry on a commercial intercourse with the Calmucs.

The government of Kiow consists of ten circles, the most considerable cities of which are Kiow and Pultowa.

Kiow, or Kiew, the capital of this government, which is situated on the Nieper, is said to have been founded by Kius, a Slavonian prince, and, according to the Polish writers, was built in the year 430; but this account is not to be depended upon. However, in the year 1037, the great duke Jaroslaw declared it the capital of all Russia; and it continued to be the residence of the great dukes till the twelfth century. It afterwards fell into the hands of the Poles; but, in 1667, they restored it to the Russians for a certain term of years, and in 1686 ceded it to Russia for ever.

This city properly consists of three small towns, the castle of Petshersky, with its suburbs; the old city of Kiow; and the town of Podol, which lies below the latter: these are partly inclosed with a common fortification, and in other parts have a communication by a large intrenchment, carried on as the inequality of the mountains would permit. The whole garrison consists of seven regiments of foot, and is governed by a statthalter general, a deputy statthalter, and a commandant.

The castle of Petshersky stands on an eminence facing the south, and, besides magazines, barracks for the garrison, officers houses, and some churches, includes a rich and stately monastery, founded in the eleventh century, and called Petshersky, from the monks formerly living in a petshera, or cavern, in the mountain on which the convent now stands. In its subterraneous vaults, which resemble a labyrinth, and contain chapels, cells, &c. are found a great number of undecayed bodies, supposed to be the remains of saints and martyrs; and here the bodies of the deceased monks are also deposited. Opposite to this monastery formerly stood a nunnery, which is now converted into a magazine. The suburbs of Petshersky are very large, consisting of houses belonging to the above-mentioned convent; and also of several convents and churches, the principal of which is the convent of St. Nicholas.

Old Kiow is seated on an eminence facing the north, and is fortified, according to the mountainous nature of the country, with horn-works, &c. Here stands the cathedral of the Greek archbishop of Kiow, Halitsk, and Little Russia, who resides in the convent of St. Sophia. To this church and the convent of St. Michael belong most of the houses in the city.

Podol is situated below Old Kiow, in a plain on the banks of the Nieper, and, except its churches and convents, consists entirely of shops and tradesmen's houses. Its magistrates are independent of the colonels of the regiments in garrison, and receive their orders immediately from the war-office at Glucow. The academy adjoining to the Bratskoi monastery, near the town-house, is entirely built of stone, and is one of the noblest edifices in the city. The university of Kiow has the archbishop for its principal, and under him are two officers, who have the care of the students. There are nine professors, who live in a wooden building, to which belongs a delightful garden: these are all monks, and are not to taste flesh throughout the whole year; but are said to make little scruple of transgressing this rule in private. Their salaries are but small, so that they are chiefly maintained by the stipends and presents they receive from the students, who amount to about one hundred. Public lectures in all the sciences are read to them, and they also perform several exercises, according to the custom of other universities, as public disputations, and the like, besides some others peculiar to themselves. While this city was subject to the Poles, the papists had a bishop, a Dominican convent, a college of Jesuits, and several churches there, which are all suppressed, and appropriated to the use of the professors of the Greek religion.

Pultowa, or Pultawa, a town situated on the river Workla. This town, with the regular fort belonging to it, is subject to a commandant, and not to the colonel of the regiment of Cossacs in garrison there. The burghers carry on a considerable trade to the Crimea,

and through Poland to Germany. It is but an indifferent town, built in the manner of those of the Cossacs; but was rendered famous by its being besieged by the Swedes in 1709, and by its falling into the hands of the Russians after the defeat of Charles XII. near this place. The king of Sweden had his head-quarters at a monastery which stands upon an eminence without the town.

S E C T. X.

Of the Governments of Woronesh and Asoy, Bielogorod, Smolensk, and Nishnei Novogrod; the Number of Circles into which each is divided; and a concise Description of the principal Towns they contain.

THE government of Woronesh and Asoy includes six districts, the most remarkable places of which are,

Woronesh, a large and populous provincial city, seated in a narrow, but very deep, river of the same name. It is surrounded with a wall, and is the residence of the statthalter, or governor, and a bishop's see. Most of the streets, instead of stone pavements, are laid with beams of timber. Peter I. in order to maintain his sovereignty over the Black sea, caused a large dock to be made for building of ships, which drew many new inhabitants thither, among whom were several foreign artificers. This city carries on a considerable trade.

Bachmut, on a river of the same name, is situated partly on an eminence on its western bank, and partly in a plain on the east side of that river. The former is defended by a citadel, and indeed the whole town is fortified for the security of the salt-works. The imperial salt-office at Bachmut maintains a battalion of regular troops, and a company of Cossacs, consisting of a hundred men. The country, which is situated between the Donez, the Don, the Black sea, Mius, and Kalmius, exceeds all the rest of Little Russia in fertility; and has also several spots that are supposed to contain rich ore.

The Don Cossacs who dwell in this government are possessed of many small towns situated on the rivers Don and Donez. Their capital, named Tsherkask, is the residence of the attoman. It is built in the Turkish manner, and part of it encompassed with high palisades fixed on the Don. This city is of large compass; it is inhabited by a great number of Asiatics, and carries on a great trade.

At the distance of four wersts is the city of St. Anna, a new town, regularly built and fortified by the Russians. It is but small, and is seated low on the banks of the Don. It has six bastions and the necessary out-works, with a garrison consisting of two marching and two garrison regiments. The houses are well built, the streets broad and straight.

The government of Bielogorod contains part of Little Russia, and is divided into five districts.

The capital of the government is Bielogorod, which stands on the river Donez, and was built in the year 990. About an English mile from the town is a large chalk hill, where Bielogorod formerly stood, and from which it derives its name, which signifies a white town; but it was afterwards built in a valley between two mountains. It is divided into the Old and New Town; it has three suburbs, and is a bishop's see. The Old Town is surrounded with a rampart and moat, and the New Town with palisades.

The government of Smolensk contains White Russia, properly so called, which was ceded by Poland to Russia by a treaty concluded in 1667, and confirmed in 1686.

The most remarkable place in this government is,

Smolensk, a large and well fortified town on the Nieper, the residence of the governor, and a bishop's see. It carries on a considerable trade, and is famous in history from its being the subject of many disputes between the Poles and Russians; during which it was often besieged and taken by both parties.

The government of Nishnei Novogrod is inhabited by the following tribes: the Morduans, whose language is said to resemble the Finlandish dialect; the Tsheremissians, distinguished into the Logowoi, who inhabit the plain on

the left side of the Wolga; and the Nagornoi, who live among the mountains on the right side of that river. The former belong to this government; but the greatest part of the latter to that of Casan. The Tshuwashians, who live dispersed in this government and that of Casan, are a numerous tribe. They worship one supreme God, whom they call Tora, and consider the sun as a kind of subordinate deity, to whom they pay their adorations; and they have several other inferior deities, which, they say, hold the same rank with the saints of the Russians. Every village has its own idol erected in a square, inclosed with palisadoes. They perform their devotions to it near a fire, where they offer a sheep to the idol, and hang up the skin for a trophy in honour of it. The person who performs this sacrifice, to whom they have recourse in every difficulty, is stiled Yumasse; and both sexes are capable of this religious office. Great numbers of these Pagans have been baptized; and throughout all the Russian towns in the districts where they live schools have been erected, for instructing their youth in the principles of the Christian religion, in order to qualify them for being missionaries among their own tribe. This government contains four circles, and the principal place in this jurisdiction is Nishnei Novogrod, that is Lower Novogrod, which is a large provincial city seated on the Wolga, at the influx of the river Oka. It was built in the year 1222, and has two cathedrals, twenty-eight parish churches, most of which are built with stone, and five convents. It is an archbishop's see, and is defended by a castle surrounded with stone-walls. The trade of this city is very considerable, and the shops make a handsome appearance, from their being richly furnished with all kinds of foreign goods, as well as those made in Russia. In the year 1715 a great fire broke out here, in which some thousands of the inhabitants lost their lives.

SECT. XI.

Of the Government of Moscow; with a particular Description of the Capital of the same Name.

THE government of Moscow is the best cultivated and the most populous in the whole empire, and may be called the garden of Russia. It contains eleven provinces, the principal places in which are the city of Moscow and Yaroslavl.

Moscow, the antient capital of the Russian empire, and the residence of the czars, is situated in the circle of its own name, in the fifty-fifth degree forty minutes latitude, and the thirty-eighth degree east longitude; fourteen hundred and fourteen miles north-east of London. It stands in a pleasant plain on the bank of the river Moskwa, from which it derives its name. Mr. Hanway says, that river runs through it, and, making many windings, adds a very striking beauty to the city; but in summer it is in many places shallow and unnavigable. Several eminences, interspersed with groves, gardens, and lawns, form the most delightful prospects. It is built somewhat after the eastern manner, it having but few regular streets, and a great number of houses with gardens. The number of the churches in the city is computed at sixteen hundred, among which are eleven cathedrals, and two hundred and seventy-one parish churches; the rest either belong to convents, or may be considered as private chapels. Near the churches are hung up several large bells, which are kept continually chiming. One of these is of a stupendous size, and, our author observes, affords a surprising proof of the folly of those who caused it to be made; but the Russians have from time immemorial been extremely fond of great bells. This bell is four hundred and forty-three thousand seven hundred and seventy-two pounds weight, and was cast in the reign of the empress Anne: but the beam on which it hung being burnt, it fell, and a large piece is broke out of it. Many of the churches have gilt steeples, and are magnificently decorated within with paintings; but indeed most of these are miserable daubings, without shade or perspective.

The number of public edifices and squares at Moscow amount to forty-three. The mean houses are indeed much more numerous than those that are well built; the latter are, however, daily increasing; but, as only a part of the streets is paved, they are very dirty.

The city is divided into four circles, one within another. The interior circle, or the Kremlin, which signifies a fortress, contains the following remarkable buildings: the old imperial palace, pleasure-house, and stables, a victualling-house, the palace which formerly belonged to the patriarch, nine cathedrals, five convents, four parish churches, the arsenal, with the public colleges, and other offices. All the churches in the Kremlin have beautiful spires, most of them gilt, or covered with silver. The architecture is in the Gothic taste; but the inside of the churches is richly ornamented; and the pictures of the saints are decorated with gold, silver, and precious stones. In the cathedral called Sobor, which has no less than nine towers, covered with copper double gilt, is a silver branch, with forty-eight lights, said to weigh two thousand eight hundred pounds. Here are deposited, in silver shrines, the remains of three archbishops; and in a gold box is a robe brought from Persia, which is here looked upon as the identical garment worn by our Saviour. The remains of the sovereigns of the Russian empire, and their male descendants, are interred in St. Michael's church; and those of their consorts, and the princesses, are deposited in the convent of Tshudow. All these structures are lofty, spacious, and built with stone. This circle is three hundred fathoms in diameter, and surrounded with very high and thick walls, flanked with six towers, planted with cannon, and also defended by deep moats and ramparts.

From the above circle you pass over a handsome stone bridge into the second, which is called Kitaigorod, or the Chinese-town. There are here five streets, two cathedrals, eighteen parish churches, four convents, thirteen noblemen's houses, and nine public edifices: these are the chief dispensary, in which the medicines are kept in vessels of China porcelain, decorated with the imperial arms; and from this place the whole empire is supplied with medicines: the mint, which is a superb structure: a magazine, or warehouse, to which all goods are brought before they have paid duty: the custom-house: the ambassador's palace, which is now converted into a silk manufactory: a printing-house: a court of judicature: the physic garden: and the exchange, in which are about six thousand handsome shops; here all commercial affairs are transacted, particularly what relates to the trade with China, whence this circle contains many merchants. This part of the city is fortified with a pretty high wall, strengthened with twelve towers and strong bulwarks.

The third circle surrounds the former, and is named Belgorod, or the White Town, from a white wall with which it is encompassed. It is also called the Czar's Town. The Neglina runs through this part of the city, from north to south; but though there are in this circle several kneses, bojars, merchants, and tradesmen, it is in many parts very dirty, and most of the houses are very mean. It includes seventy-six parish churches, seven abbeys, eleven convents, and nine public edifices: these are two palaces, a cannon foundery, two markets, a brewhouse, a magazine of provisions, the salt-fish harbour, and the Basil garden. At the timber-market are sold new wooden houses, which may be taken to pieces and put together again, where the purchaser pleases.

The fourth circle, called Semlanoigorod, that is, a town surrounded with ramparts of earth, incloses the three preceding parts, and its ramparts include an area of great extent. The entrance was formerly by thirty-four gates of timber, and two of stone; but at present only the two last are standing. Over one of these gates is a mathematical school, and an observatory. This circle contains a hundred and three parish churches, two convents, an imperial stable, an arsenal for artillery, a mint, a magazine for provisions, and a cloth manufactory. Round these principal parts of the city lie the suburbs, which are of great extent, and contain sixty parish churches and ten convents. These suburbs resemble the villages

villages in other parts of the country, except the German quarter, which is the largest and handsomest, and contains two Luthern churches, a grammar school, a Calvinist church, and a Romish church. This suburb is situated towards the east on the river Yauza; to the west of it lies the palace of Annenhof, which has a good garden; and towards the north is a large and stately hospital. Farther to the west stands the palace of the empress Elizabeth.

The number of inhabitants are supposed to amount to about a hundred and fifty thousand. These consist of statesmen, noble families, and their servants, merchants, priests, monks, and servants belonging to the churches, mechanics, labourers, carriers, and sledge drivers.

Moscow has greatly declined since the building of Petersburgh, and its being made the seat of the empire. An university and two gymnasia, or seminaries, were founded here in the year 1755. Moscow has often suffered by fires, and in 1737, 1748, and 1752 a considerable part of it was reduced to ashes, especially by the last fire, which consumed above half the city, together with the noble dispensary and the czarina's stables. But the houses are always soon rebuilt after such a calamity, they being for the most part formed of very mean materials. The gardens in its neighbourhood yield a variety of fruit, and are particularly famous for the transparent apple, called by the Russians *naliwy*.

In this government are several considerable places, among which is *Garoslaw*, a large and well built town, the capital of a circle of the same name; it has a good trade, and is celebrated for its Russian leather. The shops in the large exchange make a very grand appearance, and are well stocked both with home and foreign goods. Here is also a considerable manufacture of all kinds of linen and flowered woollen stuffs. The Russian church, which stands near the manufactory, is built in the German taste, and has few equal to it in this country.

One of the most remarkable places in the circle of Moscow is the convent of the Holy Trinity, which is the largest and best endowed of any in Russia; the number of peasants who are its vassals being no less than twenty thousand. It is situated at the distance of sixty wersts from Moscow, and is built in a quadrangular form, in the old Gothic taste. It is inclosed with strong walls, ramparts, and moats, and is always garrisoned by a company of soldiers. The convent itself is a spacious, lofty, and handsome structure. The great church is very splendid, and has a fine tower, in which are several valuable bells. Besides the principal church there are nine others, and a grammar school, within the inclosure of the convent. The number of monks who reside here is said to amount to about six hundred. This was the place where Peter I. took shelter after he had narrowly escaped the hands of the *Strelitzes*, who had been spirited up against him by *Sophia* his half sister. It has been an antient custom for the sovereign of the Russian empire to go in pilgrimage to this place. Here are several dead bodies, which, from natural causes, remain undecayed. There is a small town near the convent.

S E C T. XII.

Of the Governments of Archangel and Novogrod; with an Account of the Samoides, in the former Government; and the principal Places in each.

THE government of Archangel includes a part of Lapland, of which we shall give a more particular account in treating of Sweden; but, as great numbers of the people called Samoides live in this government, it will be proper to take some notice of them.

The Samoides inhabit the coast of the northern ocean both in Europe and Asia, and we have already given some account of them in treating of Siberia. The word Samoiede is said to signify man-eater, it being imagined, without any foundation, that these people devoured their deceased friends and the prisoners taken in war. The Samoides that live in the government of Archangel are entirely separated from the rest of that nation, and as it were excluded from any intercourse with them. They

have also a different language; yet as to their religion and customs, they entirely agree. They are low of stature, and their feet, especially those of the females, are remarkably small. Their tawny complexion, longish eyes, and puffed cheeks, give them a very disagreeable appearance in the eyes of strangers. They are poor, simple, and undesigning.

Their winter-dress is made of the skins of rein-deer, with the hairy side outwards; and the cap, coat, gloves, breeches, and stockings, are generally sewed together; so that the whole suit makes but one piece. In summer they wear fish-skins, and instead of thread use the nerves of wild beasts cut into long filaments.

They all subsist by hunting and fishing: the flesh of rein-deer, bears, seals, fowls, dried fish, and turnips, being their usual food. The flesh they eat partly raw and partly boiled. Their weapons for hunting are javelins, bows, and arrows pointed with bone; they have also some darts bearded with iron. When they find it difficult to subsist in one place, they remove to another. Their summer huts are covered with the bark of birch trees; but in winter, with the skins of rein-deer. Their whole riches, and all they possess consists in tents, cloaths, and rein-deer. Both sexes wear the same kind of dress, and as their features are equally disagreeable, it is not easy to distinguish them.

Their marriages are attended with no other ceremony than merely an agreement between the parties; but though polygamy is not prohibited among them, few of them have more than one wife. The Samoides, like the *Ostiacs*, call their new born children by the name of the first animal they meet, or if they first happen to meet a relation, he generally names the child.

Before they were brought into subjection to the Russian government, the only punishment among them was to sell the perpetrator of any heinous crime, as murder, &c. together with his whole family, for slaves. But the Russian laws are now introduced into the principal places in this country.

They know very little of a Supreme Being, but pay their adorations to misshapen wooden images of men, beasts, birds, and fishes. They also pay a kind of worship to the heads of beasts of prey, particularly those of bears, which they put up in the woods, and fervently pray to. Their priests, whom they term *shamans*, or *codeznics*, are chosen from among those who are most advanced in years, and these they imagine can make known to them the will of their gods, foretell future events, and by their strange gestures, and ridiculous grimaces, perform all kinds of magical operations.

Before the reign of the czar *Iwan Basilowitz*, the only magistrate among them was the oldest man in the family or village, to whom the rest were subject. But in his reign, a person called *Anica Stroganow*, sent his son to make discoveries in this country, who on his return made an ample report to the government. The Russians were not a little fond of the fine furs it produced, and the czar immediately ordered several forts to be built in different parts of the country. The Samoides readily submitted to pay a tribute of furs, which was imposed on them, and by degrees the habitable places were peopled by Russian colonies and governors. The Samoides made two attempts to shake off the Russian yoke; but were soon reduced. They have the finest furs in all the Russian empire, which they dispose of to the Russians for trifles, and when they meet with ill success in hunting and fishing, they exchange them for meal; this they mix with water, and eat it out of a kettle which always hangs over the fire.

In this government are twelve circles, the most considerable places in which are:

Archangel, the capital of this government, which is situated in sixty-four degrees thirty-four minutes north latitude, and in forty degrees twelve minutes east longitude from London, on the banks of the river *Dwina*, about four miles from its entrance into the White Sea. This city is about three English miles in length, and one in breadth, and the houses are all built of wood, after the Russian manner, except the exchange of the merchants, which is of stone. The citadel, where the governor resides, is surrounded with a kind of wall made of large

large pieces of timber. This city is a bishop's see; but both the Lutherans and Calvinists have their respective churches there.

The foundation of its commerce was laid by the English in the year 1553, and the advantages they reaped from the Russia trade, soon prompted other nations to put in for a share of it. Provisions are there sold very cheap; but the gradual increase and prosperity of Petersburg has made this city decline in the same proportion. A post has, however, been established for the convenience of trade between this town and Petersburg.

Ustjug Weliki, or Great Ustjug, the principal town of a circle of its own name, is situated near the conflux of the rivers Sucfona and Jug; but formerly stood at the mouth of the latter, from which it derives its name. This city is about three wersts and a half in length, and half a werst in breadth; it contains twenty-three churches, besides five convents, and is an archbishop's see. Though it is situated in sixty-one degrees fifteen minutes latitude, yet the fruits of the earth often come to maturity. It has a communication by water with Archangel and Wologda, which renders it so convenient for trade, that most of its inhabitants are merchants, and some of them are very wealthy. Those who go from Archangel to Siberia, generally pass through this city.

The last place we shall mention in this government is that of Wologda, which is also a provincial city, and stands on a river of the same name. It has seventeen hundred dwelling houses, sixty-eight churches, two convents, with four churches, and a German suburb, tho' very few of that nation at present live there. It has also two suburbs inhabited by sledge drivers, in which are two churches, besides a convent of monks, which has four chapels. This city, which is the see of an archbishop, was formerly in a flourishing condition, and carried on a considerable trade. Its commerce now consists of hemp, hemp-seed, and matting, made of the bark of lime-trees, which the inhabitants send to Archangel in a few large barges that belong to the town: they also send Russia leather and tallow by land to Petersburg. Archangel, on the other hand, supplies Wologda with foreign commodities, which are sold here very cheap. Most of the inhabitants of this town are traders: the Dutch and Germans have been settled here for a long time past, and upon the taking of Narva, the greatest part of the inhabitants who were made prisoners, was sent to this town, where they provided for themselves so well by their industry, that they returned back with reluctance.

The government of Novogrod or Nowogrod, includes the dutchy of the same name, or the island of Great Novogrod, conquered by the Russians in 1478. In this country lies the lake of Ilmen, from which the river Wolcow runs; and those great rivers called the Wolga, Nieper, and the Polish Dwina, have also their sources in this province. This government includes five circles or districts, the most remarkable places in which are,

Great Novogrod, the capital of a circle, and a very ancient, large, and celebrated city, seated on the river Wolcow, just where it runs out of the lake of Ilmen. This is a place of considerable trade, and the seat of a governor. It was first built in the ninth century by the Slavonians, and was a famous staple of the Hanse-towns, till the year 1494, when it grew so powerful, that it became a proverbial speech, "Can any body withstand God and Novogrod?" But by frequently falling into the hands of its enemies, and the many conflagrations, which, from time to time, have happened in this city, it is so far reduced, as to have scarce any remains of its former grandeur. The churches and convents are alone worthy of notice, the rest of the town consisting of small wooden houses; it is, however, an archbishop's see.

St. Anthony's convent is situated by the river Wolcow, about two wersts from Novogrod, and is the principal monastery in the country. St. Anthony, its founder, was buried there in 1147, and besides his monument, here is shewn a mill-stone, on which his votaries firmly believe, and gravely assert, that he sailed from Rome to this place. They have also some other curiosities of the same ridiculous kind.

Twer, which is also a provincial town, lies on both sides the Wolga, at the influx of the river Twerza. It is large and populous; for it has seventy churches and convents, and carries on a considerable trade in corn. It is at present an archbishop's see, and was formerly the residence of several great dukes and princes.

SECT. XIII.

Of the Provinces conquered by the Russians, and first of the Dutchie of Livonia and Esthonia. Their Situation, Climate, Produce, and Inhabitants. Their Government and History; with a Description of Riga, the Island of Oesel, and the Cities of Reval, Narva, and other considerable Places in these Dutchie.

WE now come to the provinces acquired by Russia, in the present century: these are Livonia, Ingria, and Carelia. We shall begin with the dutchie of Livonia and Esthonia, which were formerly inhabited by three different nations, the Livonians, Lettonians, and Esthonians, whence it became divided into Liefland or Livonia, Lettland, or Lettonia, and Esthland, or Esthonia. In common conversation Livonia includes the country properly so called, together with Lettonia and Esthonia; but, to speak with greater precision, Livonia, or the south part of the country, ought to be distinguished from Esthonia, or the north part.

Livonia and Esthonia border on Courland, the Baltic, the gulph of Finland, Ingria, Russia, and Poland; it extending in length from north to south between two hundred and fifty and three hundred miles, and its breadth from east to west, is from two hundred to two hundred and forty miles, exclusive of the islands belonging to it.

Livonia consists partly of woods and morasses, and partly of a fertile soil, that yields the inhabitants great plenty of all the necessaries of life. The air is clear and salubrious; and though the winter be long and severe, and consequently the summer short, yet the heat of the climate, during the latter season, is such, that the grain sown both in winter and summer ripens at the proper time. In a plentiful year the inhabitants export many thousand lasts of barley and rye to Holland, Spain, and other foreign countries, whence Livonia has been termed the granary of the north. Before the corn is threshed, it is dried and hardened in kilns, heated by large stoves built contiguous to their barns; yet this renders it neither unfit for sowing, nor for making bread and malt, though it has the advantage of making it keep the better.

Formerly this country was over-run with vast woods of oak, fir, pine, and birch trees; but these are now too thin, partly from the method of building practised by the inhabitants, whose houses and other edifices, both in the towns and villages, consist almost entirely of wood, and partly by their clearing of the woods, in order to prepare the land for sowing of corn. The country, however, has reaped one advantage from the want of trees, it being less infested with bears, wolves, elks, lynxes, martens, and other wild beasts: yet Livonia still abounds with the smaller wild quadrupeds, and other game; so that hares, which turn white here in winter, and wild fowl, are sold very cheap; but there are neither deer nor wild boars in this country. The horned cattle, horses, and goats of Livonia are, however, very numerous, and much esteemed; but the sheep are not extraordinary, their wool being coarse, and resembling goats hair.

Vast quantities of flax, hemp, linseed, leather, and skins, are exported from hence in foreign bottoms.

The rivers which water this country are the Duna, the Aa, the Embac, the Pernaw, &c. It has likewise many standing lakes, as that of Peipus, the lake of Werczer, which is thirty miles in length, and twelve in breadth, the lake of Luban, and some others. Both these lakes and rivers afford plenty of the finest salmon and other fish. Turbots are also taken in the gulph of Riga, and a considerable part of the inhabitants are supported by the fisheries. Stromlings, a species of herrings, are found in vast shoals along these coasts, and are the common food

food of the peasants, who salt great quantities of them. A Swede has in the present reign established a pearl-fishery, and there are above forty-five rivulets and lakes in Livonia and Esthonia where this fishery is carried on; but the latter yield more pearls than the former, and those nearly equal the oriental pearls both in size and clearness.

The highways and roads in Livonia are in very good order, and at the end of every Russian werst a red pillar is erected, on which is marked the number of the wersts passed and remaining, in travelling from one capital to another.

This country was formerly interspersed with a multitude of towns and villages; but most of them have been destroyed in the wars which Livonia has so often experienced; and the ruins of many of them are to be seen. Indeed a traveller passes through more towns in a journey of eighty or ninety miles in many countries, than in all this extent of land. To the same cause may be attributed the scarcity of money observable among the Livonian peasants, who, amidst all their affluence, find such difficulty in turning the overplus of their substance into money, that it is said they are obliged to give half of it away, and at the same time they buy whatever foreign commodities they have occasion for at a very high price.

Livonia might doubtless afford subsistence to a much greater number of inhabitants than it has at present; for they have been extremely thinned by war, pestilence, and famine. Their number may in some measure be determined by the following method: the estates are taxed according to the number of hakes, that is of men fit for labour from fifteen to fifty years of age, five of these being reckoned to a hake. The peasants of Esthonia are said to consist only of five thousand hakes, which only amount to twenty-five thousand labouring men, a number that must appear very inconsiderable for so large a province.

Besides those of the inhabitants who are of German extraction, this country contains a great number of Esthonians and Lettonians, who are of a different race, and have a different language; but their manners and customs are nearly the same. The Esthonians seem, from the affinity of the two languages, and other circumstances, to have descended from the same origin as the Fins; but the Lettonians, both from their name and language, appear to be sprung from the same stock as the Lithuanians, who are a mixture of several Sarmatian tribes. The stature of both seldom exceeds the middle size; but they are vigorous and hardy, enduring cold and heat, and cheerfully undergoing the greatest labour and fatigue. Their houses are meanly built, and the rooms quite black with smoak. They are all vassals, or rather slaves, to their lords, who may treat them as they please; so that they do not kill them. Their chief employments are agriculture, grazing, and sometimes fishing; yet they have a good natural genius for mechanics. They are, however, addicted to drunkenness, and still practise in private many superstitious customs. The languages usually spoken by the inhabitants are the German, the Lettonian, the Esthonian, the Russian, the Swedish, and that of Finland.

The nobility of this country are very numerous, and are mostly of foreign extraction; for their ancestors were partly such families as antiently came into Livonia with the king of Denmark; but for the most part removed hither from Germany. Here are also some noble families of Swedish and Polish extraction. The greatest part of the nobility have always applied themselves to a military life; and the others who reside on their estates, and make improvements in agriculture, are generally invested with civil employments. The nobility are far from being sufferers by falling under the dominion of Russia; for since that time all their rights and privileges have been confirmed to them, and the estates which the court of Sweden had reassumed have likewise been restored.

Artificers and mechanics are less common here than in other countries. The commerce of Livonia always flourishes in time of peace; however, the trading towns on the coast suffer greatly by the clandestine trade carried on by land; and, though it has been often prohibited, it still increases. The gentry purchase corn both of their

vassals and other peasants: some of them distil spirits from it, while others send it to the sea-ports, and sell it there to great advantage. The peasants are obliged to bring what corn they intend for sale to the noblemen's seats, where, instead of having ready money for it, they generally receive iron, salt, tobacco, and other utensils and commodities.

The inhabitants of Livonia chiefly profess Lutheranism; but the Calvinists, Russians, and Papists, are indulged with the free exercise of their religion. The Bible has been here published in the Lettonian and Esthonian languages; and there is an annual allowance from the crown of twelve hundred rubles towards the support of the national churches in this country; but the churches of the separatists do not partake of this bounty.

All the country parishes in Esthonia, together with the cathedral of Reval, with regard to ecclesiastical jurisdiction, are subject to the nobility, and are but forty in number; whence we may form a conjecture of the great extent of those parishes. The consistory of nobles is composed of a president, who is a provincial counsellor, provosts, the preachers belonging to the cathedral of Reval, and some other assessors. Here is likewise a supreme court of appeals in spiritual causes, which consists of some ecclesiastics, provincial counsellors, and noblemen. Livonia, or the general government of Riga, contains above a hundred and twenty parishes, which, together with St. James's church in Riga, are under the jurisdiction of the consistory of nobles: over these presides a general superintendent, who resides at Riga, where is also held the high consistory. Every circle has a governor in civil and military affairs, who must be of the class of the nobility. The ministers of Pernau, Dorpt, and other small towns in Livonia, are subject to the general superintendent; but the cities of Riga, Reval, and Narva, have their own consistories, which, as well as the magistracy, are independant of the nobility.

The highest tribunal in Esthonia is the supreme provincial court, called the government, which annually meets to administer justice about the middle of January, and continues sitting till Easter. It consists of the governor, as president, and twelve provincial counsellors, who are all nobles, and have the rank of major-general. The provincial counsellors may fill up the vacancies in their college, without any licence from the crown, from among the nobility; and the senior provincial counsellors compose a government, in the absence of the other governors.

Subordinate to this tribunal are inferior judges, who hold inferior courts. The inferior judge of every circle in Esthonia has two assistants. His office is to take care of the roads and bridges; to levy the money granted by the nobility at the diet, for the public service; and all disputes about limits and other incidents have the first hearing before him. Subordinate to the supreme council is also another court, called man-gericht, which consists of a judge, two assessors, and a notary. These take cognizance of all criminal affairs, and disputes of more importance. An appeal also lies from the former of these inferior courts to the man-gericht. The judge of both these courts must be of the class of nobles, and continues in office only three years.

In the general government of Livonia the chief tribunals are the supreme court of judicature appointed by the czarina, and also two inferior courts. But from all these courts there lies an appeal to the college of judicature established at Peterburgh, for the provinces of Esthonia and Livonia, and from that again to the senate, which is the supreme tribunal for the whole Russian empire.

With respect to the history of these countries, paganism prevailed till the twelfth century, when the Christian religion was first introduced into Livonia. In 1158, some merchants of Bremen, bound to Gothland, were driven by stress of weather on the coast of Livonia; but the inhabitants at first opposed their landing, yet by degrees grew familiar, and traded with them. Of this the merchants of Bremen took advantage, by resorting thither in greater numbers with commodities to trade with the natives; and, with their consent, went about six miles up the Duna, where they pitched their tents.

Afterwards they built a strong warehouse of timber on an eminence, in which they deposited their goods. The Germans increasing in number, brought with them, about the year 1186, an Augustine monk, named Meinhard, who, having learned the language of the country, persuaded some of the inhabitants to be baptized. By this time, instead of a single warehouse, the Germans had formed a town, which was named Uxkul, and this they now built with stone, and erected a castle at the foot of the hill. Meinhard founded a church and convent of Augustine monks in this town, which was soon erected into an episcopal see, of which he was the first bishop.

About the year 1196, Canute VI. king of Denmark, entering Esthonia, subdued that province, introduced Christianity, erected churches in the country, and sent priests to officiate in them. Bishop Albert, in order to promote the conquest of Livonia, instituted the order of knighthood called the Knights of Christ, and pope Innocent III. granted them the same statutes as the Knights Templars, with a cross and sword, as a badge to be worn on their coats; enjoining them, at the same time, to obey the bishop of Riga. In the year 1206, bishop Albert granted to the order the third part of Livonia, with all the privileges of sovereignty, which was confirmed by pope Innocent III. who exempted the knights from tithes and other imposts. In 1231 they were solemnly united with the knights of the Teutonic order, and, as their habit was a white mantle, with a black cross, they styled themselves Brothers of the Cross; a title which they afterwards changed to that of Lords of the Cross. At length the king of Denmark sold Esthonia to this order, and in 1521 their general purchased from the grand master of the Teutonic knights in Prussia the chief jurisdiction in Livonia; at the same time they were discharged from their oath of obedience to the Teutonic grand master. Soon after the emperor Charles V. admitted them among the princes of the empire, by which they had a right of appealing from their high court of judicature to the Aulic council at Spire.

About the middle of the sixteenth century the czar Iwan Basilowitz formed the design of conquering this country, which induced the city of Reval and the duchy of Esthonia to put themselves under the protection of Sweden, on which was grounded the claim of that crown to Livonia, and the superior privileges enjoyed by Esthonia above Livonia. Gotha Ketler, chief of the order, also gave up Livonia to the king of Poland, and having solemnly resigned his command, was created first duke of Courland, which he was to hold as a fief of Poland. The Poles likewise got possession of Riga and Lettonia; but now this country became the scene of the most bloody wars between Russia, Sweden, and Poland, which lasted for a whole century; but by the peace of Oliva, concluded in 1660, Livonia was given to Sweden, and the Duna was agreed to be the boundary between the Swedish and Polish dominions.

At length, in the famous war which broke out in the North in the beginning of the present century between Peter the Great and Charles XII. of Sweden, this country was miserably ravaged, till by the treaty of Nystadt, concluded in 1721, Sweden ceded Livonia, Esthonia, and Ingria, with a part of Carelia, &c. for ever to Russia; when his czarish majesty engaged to preserve and maintain the inhabitants in the enjoyment of all the rights and privileges they had possessed while under the dominion of Sweden, and to permit the Lutheran religion, with the churches, schools, and all the endowments, to continue on the same footing as under the Swedish government; granting the professors of the Greek religion only an entire liberty of conscience, and the free exercise of their religious worship.

In 1741, Sweden attempted the recovery of part of these ceded countries; but this was only attended with a loss of part of Finland; and by the peace of Abo, concluded in 1743, Russia was not only confirmed in the possession of all its conquests, but acquired some additional districts in Finland.

Since this country became subject to Russia, it has been divided into two general governments and one city; these governments are those of Riga and Reval.

The general government of Riga contains Lettonia, to which the name of Livonia is given in a more limited sense, and consists of the circle of Riga, Windin, Pernau, Dorpt, and the province of Oesel; the principal places of which are,

Riga, the capital of the whole country, seated in the fifty-sixth degree fifty-three minutes north latitude, and in the twenty-fourth degree east longitude from London, on the north-east side of the Duna; and, tho' it is not of any great extent, it is populous, well fortified, and famed for its trade and opulence. The houses are handsome, and for the most part built of stone. They are seldom above two stories high, and have steep roofs, for the better carrying off the water, which is very penetrating on the melting of the snow, wherein they have the advantage of the Russians, who have still greater occasion to provide against the like inconvenience. The cellars are used as warehouses for flax, and other goods; and the entrance or first apartment in many houses is the coach-house, through which you must pass to the parlour and dining-room. The streets are narrow. The Lutheran churches, as the cathedral, St. James's, St. Mary Magdalene's, St. Peter's, and St. John's, are handsome structures. The seminaries, called the imperial Lyceum, and the city Gymnasium, are in a flourishing condition; and the masters have very considerable salaries. Here are also an old castle, a strong citadel, and two arsenals well stored with arms, one at the charge of the crown, and the other of the city. The fortifications both on the land and water side have been improved under its present masters, and those towards the sea are enlarged by additional works. This city, by means of its excellent harbour, has, during the summer season, a good trade with England and Holland, and in winter a trade with the Russian provinces by sledges.

The Duna is generally frozen about the end of November, and open again near the middle of March; so that it has the advantage of Petersburg, where the Neva is closed about six weeks longer. When the ice breaks up, it frequently comes down in such large pieces, as to remove points of land, and form banks that sometimes remain for several years. For this reason no standing bridge can be built over the river, and there is only one of rafts and boards during the summer season.

The chief commodities here are masts, timber, flax, and hemp; great part of which is brought from the Polish Ukraine. Near five hundred ships have been annually loaded at Riga.

Its privileges, which are very considerable, were confirmed by the empress Anne. The supreme court of judicature for Livonia and the high consistory was held in this city, which is also the residence of the governor and general superintendent. This city was built in the year 1200, and soon after inclosed with a wall. It has suffered much by fires and sieges: the most remarkable of the latter are those it sustained from the Russians in 1656, the Saxons and Poles in 1700, and a second time by the Russians in 1710, when it was obliged to submit to the victorious arms of Peter the Great.

Dunnamunde is a noble fortification, about twelve miles from Riga, situated at the mouth of the Duna, where the ships which sail out of the Baltic into that river pay customs. This place was taken by the Swedes in 1609, and 1618, and by the Saxons in 1700, who gave it the name of Augustusburg. In 1701, it surrendered a third time to the Swedes, and in 1710, was taken by the Russians.

Dorpt, a town situated on a plain, watered by the river Embec, in the circle of the same name, in latitude fifty-eight degrees, was built in the year 1030, by the great duke of Russia, from whom it was taken by the religious knights in 1191; afterwards it was rebuilt, and created a bishop's see. It was formerly in a flourishing condition, being a member of the Hanseatic confederacy, and by means of its communication with Pernau, by a canal which was destroyed in the last Russian wars, carried on a considerable trade by sea. An English staple was also fixed in this town. It has undergone many remarkable sieges, particularly in 1704, when it was taken and plundered by the Russians, and the inhabitants

habitants treated with great cruelty. But its total ruin happened in 1708, when all the inhabitants were carried away by the Russians as prisoners of war, and the castle and fortifications blown up; but these captives, being afterwards permitted to return, rebuilt it with mean timber-houses.

Since the peace of Nyftadt, the number of its inhabitants have been considerably increased; many foreigners have settled there, which has rendered the town more populous than it was under the dominion of the Swedes; yet most of the buildings still lie in ruins, and the fortifications, walls, and gates, with most of the public edifices, fallen to decay, make a melancholy appearance. There are yet but fifteen private houses built of stone, and among the public buildings, none but the magazine and the German church. The present inhabitants though very numerous, are generally indigent, and its university, which was for a time removed to Pernau, is quite fallen to decay. Its trade chiefly consists in corn and flax.

Pernau is situated on a river of the same name, near the Baltic, and is a small town mostly built with timber; it has some trade, and is defended by a castle.

The province of Oesfel, includes the islands of Oesfel, Moon, and Runoe. The island of Oesfel is at the entrance of the gulph of Riga: it is eighty-four miles in length, and between sixteen and eighteen in breadth, and contains ten parishes. The soil is stony but fertile; it was formerly subject to the grand master of the Teutonic order; but without prejudice to the crown of Denmark's pretensions to it. At last the knights resigned it up to the Danes, who ceded it to the Swedes, and the latter by the treaty of Nyftadt, gave it up to Russia. It has a deputy-governor, and a college of provincial counsellors. A light-house has been erected on the island. The little island of Moon, situated near Oesfel, constitutes a parish; and the island of Runoe, which is also situated in the gulph of Riga, has a light-house erected upon it.

We now come to the general government of Revel, or Reval, which includes the province of Esthonia, or the small districts of Wyk. The principal town in this government is,

Revel, which is seated on the Baltic, in latitude fifty-nine degrees twenty-three minutes, and twenty-four degrees east longitude, though not very large, is an opulent well fortified city, that has a considerable trade. The houses are mostly of brick, and well built; but the streets are somewhat irregular. The only churches here, besides those of the Russians, are those of the Lutherans. The Germans, including the superintendant, have four ministers, which constitute the town clergy: but the cathedral, in which two bishops officiate, belongs to the nobility, who have also their chapter of nobles. There is also a Swedish congregation, and another of native Esthonians. The imperial seminary has four professors, and one teacher of the Russian language. Here is also a school for the use of the town, and another for the nobility. The tolls or customs are considerable, of which the magistracy have a part, and the rest belongs to the crown. Revel has its own arsenal, and maintains a number of matrosses, and a company of soldiers. It formerly made no inconsiderable figure among the hanse-towns. Its harbour is convenient and spacious, and has usually lying in it a part of the Russian fleet. The town is surrounded with high walls, strengthened with bastions and a deep ditch, and is likewise defended by a castle, which stands on a rock, and has several towers. The citizens have very pleasant gardens without the walls.

A quarter of a league from this city, near the sea-side, is the fine imperial garden called Catharinen-Thal.

The city of Narva is situated on the borders of Ingria, on a rising ground by the banks of the river Narva, which runs from the Lake Peipus, and discharges itself into the gulph of Finland, about twelve miles from the city. There is a high water-fall in this river, between the city and the lake; so that goods brought thither from the lake, must be taken out there and carried by land. This city stands in the latitude of fifty-nine degrees eight minutes, and in twenty-seven degrees twenty-five minutes east longitude. It is not very large, but is commodiously

situated for trade, and the houses are handsomely built with stone. In the market-place stands an elegant triumphal arch, erected in 1746, in honour of the late empress Elizabeth. Besides the Russian churches, it has a Lutheran church for the Germans, and two other churches for the natives of Finland and the Swedes. It is well fortified, and has a strong garrison. The chief commodities exported from thence are flax and timber, and a great quantity of salt is imported.

This city has frequently felt the calamities of war, when it was close pressed by the Russians in 1700, it was relieved by Charles XII. of Sweden, who, with a handful of men, defeated a hundred thousand Russians, with a very great slaughter, and raised the siege. But in 1704 it was again besieged by the Russians, and carried by assault; since which time it has been a part of the Russian dominions; but with the full enjoyment of all its rights and privileges, the Russians only reserving the right of appeal to the senate at Petersburg.

S E C T. XIV.

Of the Province of Ingria, or Petersburg & its Situation, Extent, Rivers, and principal Places; with a particular Account of Cronstadt, Petersburg, and the neighbouring Palaces; and other Places most worthy of Notice.

THE province of Ingria, called by the Russians Ingermanland, is situated between the gulph of Finland, Carelia, and Russia properly so called, and extends in length a hundred and eighty miles, and in breadth almost as much. The country is fertile, producing both corn and pasture, and abounds in all kinds of game, particularly elks.

The principal rivers of Ingria are the Luga, the Sista, the Cowassa, and the Neva. This last has its source on the lake of Ladoga, and is a broad, rapid, and navigable river. It runs throug Petersburg, where it divides itself into several branches, particularly into the Great and Little Neva, and the Newka; and, after a course of forty English miles, discharges itself into the gulph of Finland.

While the Swedes were in possession of Ingria, Lutheranism was the only religion professed in the country: but at present great numbers of the Russians, who are of the Greek church, are mixed with the old inhabitants.

In the year 1702 this province was recovered by the Russians, who had been masters of it once before, so early as the thirteenth century, but had been obliged to give it up to Sweden. It was confirmed to Russia, with their other conquests, by the treaty of Nyftadt and Abo. Ingria at present constitutes the government of Petersburg, and has the following remarkable places:

Cronstadt, a good town, and excellent fortification, is seated on the island of Retufari, which is about six miles in length, and two in breadth. This island lies in the gulph of Finland, about eight leagues by water from Petersburg, and near two leagues from the coast of Ingria. This town was built by Peter I. and is pretty large and regular in those parts that were first built; but the original plan has not been entirely executed. The streets are broad; but only some parts of them are paved. The palace of Peter the Great, which is built of stone, is now uninhabited, and, together with other handsome stone buildings, which make a grand appearance on the side next to Ingria, is falling to decay. The other buildings are but mean. Besides two principal, and several dependent Russian churches, here is a small Lutheran church; but the English congregation is no longer in being.

The wall round the town is planted with great guns, and defended by the citadel, and the fort of Cronshlofs, which is at a small distance from the town, on the Ingria side. Cronstadt has three harbours, all of which are large, safe, and commodious: that for merchantmen lies to the westward, and is very convenient; but that for ships of war, in which the greatest part of the Russian fleet is laid up, is towards the east. The powder magazine is erected in the water in this harbour. The mid-

dle harbour is for other ships and yachts belonging to the crown.

This place Peter the Great intended to fit up for repairing his large men of war, by cutting a stone canal of an extraordinary breadth and depth, with several docks in it: but this great work was not completed till the reign of the late empress. The canal alone is two wersts and fifty fathoms in length, and from the outward sluice of the dock to the sea is four hundred and seventeen English fathoms. The water in it is raised to the depth of twenty-four feet, by means of the two large sluices. The canal, when full, is a hundred feet on the surface of the water, and at the bottom from fifty-four to sixty-seven in breadth: the outward and inward walls of the canal, and the mole, are hewn out of the solid rock. At the end of the canal is a deep basin lined with stone, which intersects the former at right angles, and is designed for a reservoir for the water of the canal, when the docks are to be cleared of it. At the first opening of the canal in the year 1752, it received the name of Peter the First and the Great; and at its mouth were erected two pyramids. This great and useful work has not its equal in any part of the known world.

The castle of Cronshlofs, just mentioned, is built on a sand-bank in the sea, at the distance of a cannon-shot from the harbour of Cronstadt, towards Ingria, and was erected by Peter I. for the defence of his conquests; and such improvements have been since added, that, like Cronstadt, it may justly be esteemed the bulwark of Petersburg. It is erected in the form of a round tower, with three galleries one above another, and is well provided with cannon on every side. All the ships that sail to Petersburg are obliged to pass between this castle and Cronstadt, within reach of the cannon on both sides.

Directly opposite to Cronstadt, near the gulph of Finland, is the fine palace of Oranienbaum, built by prince Menzshikow; and nothing can be more delightful than the garden adjoining to this seat.

Peterhoff is an imperial seat on the coast of Ingria, where the late empress usually spent the summer season. From the time of Peter the Great no expence has been spared in adding to the fine situation of this palace all the embellishments of art. The house indeed is far from being regular; but whoever views the elegance of the gardens, which are adorned with fountains that throw up vast columns of water to an extraordinary height, with the grottos, double cascades, pleasant groves, and many other ornaments, will not think them much inferior to those of Versailles, which they excel in the sweetness of the water. The palace stands on a hill about sixty feet high, and on one side has a most extensive prospect, diversified with noble objects, as the city of Petersburg, Cronstadt, and the gulph of Finland. Among the summer-houses belonging to this palace is one distinguished by the name of *Mon Plaisir*, or *My Delight*, and is particularly remarkable for its curious paintings.

At no great distance is Strelenhoff, or Strelna-Musa, an imperial palace built in the water, erected by Peter the Great, who employed many thousand men in this work; for he intended to make it a superb palace, and to form a garden with a labyrinth and other embellishments; but his plan has never been completed.

Catharinehoff, Annenhoff, and Elizabethhoff are imperial palaces, or pleasure-houses, on the river Neva. The former was the favourite residence of the empress Catharine, and properly consists of two edifices. It stands in a wood, on one side of the finest spots in the neighbourhood of Petersburg; but, from its low situation, is exposed to frequent inundations.

We shall now give a particular description of Petersburg, one of the capitals of the Russian empire. The beginning and increase of this great city were very extraordinary; for, till the year 1703, the only buildings on the spot where it stands were two small fishing-huts. But Peter the Great having in that year taken the town of Nyen-shanze, seated on the Neva, and made himself master of this country, its commodious situation for the Baltic trade induced him to build a town and fortress here, and he immediately began to put his project in execution.

It was indeed first designed only for a place of arms, to which all kinds of military stores might be conveniently brought from the interior parts of the empire, by which means the war with Sweden might be carried on with more vigour and dispatch. Hence the public edifices and private houses were built only with timber, and neither the dock nor the town had any other fortifications than a mean rampart of earth, nor were the streets paved. But the victory at Pultowa, and the conquest of Livonia, inspired Peter with the hopes of being able to preserve his conquest, and to render Petersburg the capital of his empire. His fondness for maritime affairs, a desire of perpetuating his name by having it called by that of St. Peter, and his aversion to Moscow, where, in his younger years, he had received much ill treatment, were the chief motives that induced him to lay the foundation of a new city that was to become the capital of his dominions.

Peter had no sooner formed this design, than he ordered the castle to be built of stone, the admiralty to be walled in with the same materials, and all the buildings to be erected in a more handsome and durable manner.

In 1714 he removed the council to Petersburg, and noble edifices were erected in a straight line for the public offices, which, in 1718, were also removed thither. The principal families of Russia were likewise ordered to reside there, and build houses according to their abilities. But this occasioned some irregularity in the buildings; for the nobility and burghers had been directed to build their houses on the island of Petersburg, and many public and private structures were accordingly erected there; but, in 1721, the emperor determined that the whole town should stand on the island of Wafili. The streets were marked out, canals were dug, the island was fortified with fifty-seven bastions, and the nobility were to begin their houses a second time: but the death of the emperor put a stop to the execution of his plan; and the stone buildings that had been erected went to ruin.

The Russian nobility were naturally averse to settle in Petersburg, as they could neither live there so cheap, nor so commodiously as at Moscow. The country about Petersburg is not very fertile, so that provisions are brought thither from a great distance, and must be paid for in ready money; which was no small grievance to the nobility, who chiefly subsisted on the produce of their estates; but seldom abounded in cash. Besides, Moscow seemed much fitter for being the imperial seat, as it is in the center of the empire, from whence justice might be more easily administered, and the national revenue be received and disbursed with more convenience and dispatch. Besides, Petersburg seemed to them to lie too near the frontiers of Sweden. However, this city in the time of Peter I. became large and splendid, and under his successors received additional improvements, so that it is now ranked among the largest and most elegant cities in Europe.

Petersburgh is partly seated on the continent of Ingria and Finland, among thick woods, and partly on several small islands formed by the branches of the Neva, in the fifty-ninth degree fifty-seven minutes north latitude, and in the thirty-first degree of east longitude from London. The low and marshy soil on which it stands has been considerably raised with trunks of trees, earth, and stone. However, its situation is pleasant, and the air salubrious. The city is about six English miles in length, and as many in breadth, and has neither a wall nor gates.

The river Neva is about eight hundred paces broad near Petersburg; but has not every where a proportionable depth of water, so that large merchant ships are cleared at Cronstadt, and the men of war built at Petersburg are also conveyed thither by means of certain machines called camels. Besides the Neva, the rivers Fontanca and Moica contribute to form the islands on which the city stands, which is also watered by several canals; for in this respect Peter took his model from Amsterdam. There is but one bridge over the Neva, which is constructed with large flat-bottomed boats, and joins the dock-yard to Basili Ostrow, or Basil's Island. These are laid across the river in spring, so as to form a safe and convenient passage; but they are always removed in autumn, before the frost begins. The only communication

cation between the other islands is either by boats or barks, which cross the water at stated times; but bridges are built over the Moica and Fontanca, and likewise over the canals.

The number of houses at Petersburg are computed at eight thousand, about six hundred of which are of stone; but the rest are built with timber, and for the most part in an irregular manner, after the Russian taste. There are about twenty Russian churches in the city, besides four Lutheran churches for the Germans, and several Calvinistical for the Swedes, Fins, Germans, and French protestants; and likewise other places of worship for the English, Dutch, and Roman catholics. In giving a more particular description of this city, we shall begin with Petersburg Island, including the small island on which the fort, which is in the middle of the Neva, and also of the city, stands.

Petersburgh Island is formed by the Great and Little Neva and the Newka. The above fort is of an hexagonal form, and built of stone, according to the modern improvements in fortification. It is planted with a great number of cannon, and additional works are continually made to it, which are all vaulted. In the middle of it stands an elegant church, where the remains of Peter the Great, his consort Catharine, and several other persons of the royal family, are deposited in magnificent mausoleums. In the high beautiful tower belonging to this church, which is covered with gilt copper, hangs a fine set of bells, with chimes, made in Holland, that always play at twelve o'clock. On one of the bastions of the fort facing the imperial palace is always hung out a flag, which on state holydays is exchanged for a finer that bears the Russian eagle. As this fort stands in the center of the city, it is not only a defence but a very great ornament to it. It also serves for a secure prison, and on any exigency might prove a convenient asylum to the sovereign. On state holydays the bastions and curtains of this fort are finely illuminated with lamps.

On the island of Petersburg, properly so called, is a horn-work that belongs to the castle. This island is above two leagues in circumference, and is extremely well peopled; but most of the houses are mean buildings, and the five Russian churches, the shambles, inns, and corn-market, have nothing worth notice. There is still to be seen on this island the small wooden house which Peter the Great ordered to be built, and lived in, the first time he arrived on the spot on which this city stands; and, that it may remain as a lasting monument of that circumstance, it is kept in repair, and inclosed with a stone-wall.

From the island of Petersburg you cross the Little Neva, and come to the island of Wafili, or Basil's Island, which is the largest of them all. It lies towards Cronstadt, and is surrounded by the Great and Little Neva. The greatest part of it is covered with woods, and the rest with buildings, it having twelve broad streets of an uncommon length, running in a direct line, and intersected at right angles by six cross streets; but they are not paved. The vistas from these street are very broad and beautiful at both extremities, the largest extending the whole length of the island as far as the Galley Harbour. Opposite to Petersburg Island, and adjoining to the hemp-warehouse, are the exchange, the custom-house, the pack-house, and the quay, where the merchant ships unload. Contiguous to these are several large stone buildings belonging to the imperial academy of sciences, founded in 1724 by Peter the Great, and endowed with an annual revenue of twenty-four thousand nine hundred and twelve rubles. That monarch also intended to erect an academy of polite arts; but as estimates of the necessary charges of such an institution were not made, the late empress Elizabeth increased the above endowment to fifty-three thousand two hundred and ninety-eight rubles.

The academy is divided into two classes, the first constituting the academy properly so called, and the second the university. The members of the former are employed only in finding out new inventions, or improving the discoveries of others, and are under no obligation to instruct youth, unless particular pupils are recommended to

them, or they do it voluntarily for their own advantage. The university has its particular professors, who read lectures in the sciences, both in the Latin and Russian languages. Difference of religion does not disqualify a person from being a professor; but they are enjoined not to inculcate to their pupils any thing contrary to the doctrines of the Greek church. In the buildings which belong to the academy are the imperial library; a museum, containing natural and artificial curiosities; the printing-house; the bookseller's-shop; and apartments for binding, letter-founding, painting, engraving, and the room where mathematical instruments are made. Among these last curiosities is the famous copper globe of Gottorp, which stood on a tower of the academy, and was almost destroyed by fire when that tower was burnt in 1747; but has been repaired at a great expence, and with admirable skill: you ascend a few steps, and enter into the globe through a small door: within stands a table with benches round it, on which twelve persons may conveniently sit. The inside contains the celestial globe, and the outside the terrestrial; its diameter is eleven feet, and it at present stands in a stone edifice by itself.

The next remarkable place is the fire-work theatre, built on piles opposite to the imperial winter palace. Here is a very long stone building appropriated for the state colleges and offices. Just behind these stands a spacious and elegant structure, formerly prince Menshikow's palace, but now the academy of the corps of cadets of noble families, who are educated gratis, according to their rank. Near this academy is another for three hundred and sixty sea cadets.

The Admiralty Island is the most magnificent part of the city: here is the victualling-office; the galley dock, in which all the gallies are built; and vast store-houses for ship-building. Here are likewise a great number of handsome stone houses and elegant palaces extending along the river side. The English factory have their place of worship in this part, and behind it is New Holland, with the Rope-walk. The admiralty, or dock-yard, is fortified with a wall and five bastions, planted with many guns; and all ships that enter the harbour salute it. The top of the tower belonging to the admiralty is gilt, in the same manner as that of the great church in the castle.

The imperial winter-palace, near this place, is a large square building three stories high; but the architecture is not extraordinary. Behind it, in a spacious area, stands a noble equestrian statue of brass gilt, erected in honour of Peter the Great. Adjoining to this, along the banks of the Neva, are several other palaces, among which is the old imperial winter palace; several elegant stone buildings; the new play-house, which is built of timber; and a delightful imperial summer palace, which is all of wood, and, being only one story high, resembles a pleasure-house. Behind it are several stone buildings for the officers belonging to the court. It has a fine orangery, and a large beautiful garden, most admirably adorned with a grotto, fountains, and other water-works, with a great number of valuable marble and alabaster statues brought from Italy; but all of them are not executed with equal skill. Two of these statues which stand near the grotto, representing Faith and Religion, are greatly admired by the connoisseurs for the appearance of the faces through thin transparent veils, which seem to cover them. This garden is famous for a fine grove of oaks, that has not its equal in all the Russian empire. The dock affords a double vista, one to the Russian church of the Ascension, the other terminated by the convent of Alexander Newski. The elegant buildings on both sides the river Fontanca have also a beautiful appearance from hence.

The streets that lie behind the admiralty, and behind the imperial summer palace, are very grand and magnificent; but those are equalled, if not excelled, by Great and Little Million-street, which are embellished with the most superb buildings. At the end of Million-street, near the garden of the summer palace, the emperor has a curious dispensary. In this part also lie the imperial stables, and the dwellings of the officers who belong to them; the church of the Swedish Fins; the German Lutheran church, dedicated to St. Peter, which is an elegant

elegant structure; the menagery; the park; and the elephant-yard, where several of those animals are kept.

The Moscovite side, which is properly the city, is on the continent, and part of it very well built. In this quarter are the private dock; the court victualling-office; a foundery on the Neva, in which are cast a great number of mortars and cannon; the fire-work elaboratory; the aqueduct, which supplies the fountains in the emperor's garden; the German Lutheran church, dedicated to St. Anne; three Russian churches; the barracks for the horse-guards, with the stables for their horses; a structure called the Pleasant-house; the Italian garden; the Moscovite *Iemskoi*; and the convent of St. Alexander Newski, built in honour of that pious prince, in the form of an eagle, but not yet completed: it contains about two hundred apartments. In the middle of the building stands a very large and beautiful church, which represents the eagle's body, the two towers its neck and head, the spire the imperial crown, and two small churches on each side the two wings. In this convent are said to be deposited the remains of that saint; for which the empress Elizabeth caused a silver shrine to be made, which is fixed on a superb monument covered with silver plates of a considerable thickness.

Jonas Hanway, Esq; observes, that, with respect to the modern palaces and other buildings, an Italian architect having settled in Russia, notwithstanding the difference of climate, the taste of Italy is adopted; and though the severity of the cold is so great in winter, they abound much more in windows than our houses.

There is a great variety of curious manufactures in this city, as that of looking-glasses, gold and silver works, tapestry, &c. Its extensive commerce also renders Petersburg of great importance; for a multitude of ships from all the maritime countries in Europe frequent this port, as the mart for buying all Russian commodities; and find a vent for all the goods they import, and for which there is a demand in Russia.

The inhabitants of Petersburg, besides Russians, consist of all nations; so that a person hears a variety of languages, and sees a surprising diversity of fashions and customs. The citizens, properly so called, do not exceed two hundred; but the city contains above a hundred thousand persons, or according to some authors, two hundred and fifty thousand, including the garrison. The inhabitants in general imitate the splendor of the court, though every thing belonging to dress, especially if made by foreign artificers, is very dear; as is also furniture; and houses in a good situation sometimes bear a very high price. On the other hand, all kinds of provisions, except wine, oranges, lemons, and some other foreign articles, are now sold very cheap, and in winter are brought in great abundance from the distance of many hundred miles.

The morals of the people, as in all large cities, are much depraved, and the suspicious vigilance of the Russian government renders it necessary for a stranger to be very circumspect in his words and behaviour. Foreigners, however, enjoy all possible liberty of conscience, while they take care to say nothing against the Greek religion.

When a person intends to set out from the city, in order to travel into the country, he must be furnished with a pass, and advertise his name and intention of travelling in the news-papers. No sooner is the winter set in, than near three thousand Russians repair with their sledges to Petersburg, where they stand in every street; and this method of carriage is so cheap and convenient, that few go on foot even about the town. A sledge and a horse may be hired for the value of about five-pence sterling an hour, and within that time the horse will go about seven or eight English miles. It is sufficient for a stranger to know the place or house to which he would go, and to understand three or four Russian words. Most house-keepers have their own sledges and horses, and persons of distinction have also their postilions. In summer time those who are not inclined to go on foot in this extensive city, must either make use of their own carriage or hire boats.

About thirty wersts from Petersburg is Sarfkoe-Selo, a pleasant imperial palace, with a park and garden. In

the hermitage is a table which may be raised up by screws into the apartment above, and let down again at pleasure.

Besides the fortifications already mentioned in this province, there is the strong fort of Schlusselfburg, which stands on a small island in the midst of the Neva, where it runs out of the lake of Ladoga. It was formerly called Oreshec, from the form of the island, which resembles a nut; but Peter the Great having made himself master of it in 1702, changed its name to Schlusselfburg, or Key-town, that monarch esteeming it the key of his conquest. Its walls are two fathoms and a half thick, and built in the old manner; and in one angle of the fort is a small strong castle. The Russians have improved this fort both within and without, and added new works to it; it has undergone many sieges, and when Peter I. took it in 1702, he ordered two medals to be struck in commemoration of his success.

SECT. XV.

Of the late Acquisitions in Carelia, or the Government of Wiburg; with a concise Account of the principal Places it contains.

WITHIN this province is included part of the great dutchy of Finland, which the Swedes ceded to Russia, and contains three districts, Finlandish, Carelia, Kexholm, and Sawolax.

Carelia has frequently proved a bone of contention between Russia and Sweden. In 1293 it fell under the Swedish dominion, but in 1338 part of it was yielded up to Russia. By the peace of Nyfadt, concluded in 1721, a still greater part was resigned to the Russians, the western part alone being left in the possession of the Swedes. Afterwards Sweden was obliged to give up, by the treaty of Abo, the fort of Fredericsham and Wilmanstrand, with part of the parish of Pythis, situated on the other side of the eastern branch of the river Kymmene. In this part of Carelia are the following places:

Sufterbec, which is seated in the gulph of Finland, is remarkable for the excellence of its muskets, swords, and iron utensils. The greatest part of the arms used by the Russian troops are made in this place.

Wiburg, once the capital of Carelia, a bishop's see, and the bulwark of Sweden against Russia, is situated on the gulph of Finland, and carries on a considerable trade. Peter the Great having taken this town by capitulation, in the year 1710, improved its fortifications, which have ever since been kept in such good condition, that Wiburg may now be considered as the bulwark of Russia against Sweden.

Wilmanstrand is seated on the lake Saima, and is called by the Finlanders Lappi Wessi, or Lapp Water. It had formerly the name of Lapstrand, and was only a market-place, but was afterwards made a town; yet it has no magistrate of its own, it being dependent on Fredericsham. It was a considerable mart for tar, and the residence of a Swedish governor. On the twenty-third of August, 1741, an obstinate battle was fought about an English mile from this town between three thousand Swedes and sixteen thousand Russians; but the former were at last obliged to yield to superiority of numbers. The Russians, after they had gained the victory, burnt Wilmanstrand, which was before fortified with a wall and moat; but they have since caused it to be rebuilt.

Fredericsham is situated on the gulph of Finland. This town was governed by two burgomasters, and was defended by a castle built in 1722: it had also a good harbour and a considerable trade in tar; but in the last war between the Russians and Swedes it was burnt to the ground, and ceded to the latter; afterwards it was rebuilt, and the limits between Sweden and Russian Carelia were fixed near this place.

The district of Kexholm has been frequently contended for by the Russians and Swedes, and was restored to the former by the treaty of Nyfadt. The most remarkable place in it is,

Kexholm,

Kexholm, a strong town situated on two small islands at the influx of the river Woxen into the lake of Ladoga. The town is built on one of these islands; but the houses are all of wood; and on the other island stands the castle.

In that small district, which is a part of Sawolax that was yielded up to Russia by the treaty of Abo in 1743, is only the town of Nyflot, and the country nine miles round it.

This town is situated on the Samian lake, and was built so lately as in the year 1745; its castle, which stands on a rock in a river near the town, is extremely well fortified both by art and nature. In the year 1495 it baffled the attempts of Russia, but in 1714 was obliged to submit to their arms. It was restored to the Swedes at the peace of Nyftadt, but they were constrained to give it up to the Russians by the treaty of Abo.

C H A P. III.

OF POLAND, LITHUANIA, POLISH PRUSSIA, and COURLAND.

S E C T. I.

Of POLAND in general.

Its Name, Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, mineral and vegetable Productions; Animals, Lakes, and Rivers.

THE limited Kingdom, or, as it is also termed, the Republic of Poland, is called by the natives Polska. These names are deduced from the word Pole, or Poln, which in the Slavonic tongue signifies a country adapted to hunting, the whole kingdom being composed of vast plains, and antiently of forests that afforded shelter for an infinite number of wild beasts.

In its largest extent it is bounded on the east by Russia and Little Tartary; on the south by Moldavia, Transylvania, and Hungary; on the west by Silesia, Brandenburg, and Pomerania; and on the north by Russia, Livonia, Courland, and the Baltic; extending from forty-seven degrees forty minutes to fifty-six degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and between sixteen and thirty-four degrees east longitude from London.

The air is pretty cold in winter, but very healthy; and the country is for the most part level, it having but few hills. On the Carpathian mountains, which separate Poland from Hungary, the air is so very cold, that it frequently snows there in the midst of summer; and in some parts of them the snow never melts.

The soil is exceeding fertile, and yields plenty of corn, which evidently appears from there being near four thousand vessels and floats, most of them laden with corn, that annually pass down the Vistula to Dantzic. In Podolia, Volhinia, the Ukraine, and the province of Russia, corn grows in vast plenty, even with little culture or manure; but in Great and Little Poland agriculture requires more labour and attention: however, the harvest amply rewards the pains of the industrious peasant. The soil of Lithuania is as fruitful as that of Podolia, and Samogitia produces abundance of grain, besides flax and hemp. Polish Prussia is likewise a very fertile country, that also abounds in excellent pastures; and in Podolia the grass grows so high, that sometimes a person cannot see the horns of the cattle when they are grazing in the meadows.

In this country are found peat, oker of all kinds, beryllites, agate, chalcedony, cornelians, onyxes, opals, jasper, fine rock-crystal, amethysts, topazes, sapphires, and even rubies. This country likewise affords marien-glass, or moscovy-glass, talc, allum, salt-petre, amber, pit-coal, and an inexhaustible quantity of salt, which is hewn out of the rock in large blocks; salt springs, spar, quicksilver, lapis calaminaris, iron, lead, and a small quantity of tin.

With respect to the vegetable productions of this country, they have fruit, herbs, roots, and other garden-stuff in great plenty; but though their grapes are well tasted, they will not make wine.

Polish manna is produced by an herb that grows in the meadows and fenny grounds, and is gathered in great quantities from the twentieth of June to the end of July.

The Polish berries called kermes, are always gathered in May, before they are quite ripe; for in the month of July they swarm with insects, which render the berries unfit either for dying or medicine. These berries are found on an ever-green of the oak kind, adhering to its leaves; but generally to its stem or branches. They are of a spherical form, as large as a pea, smooth, shining, and full of a mucilaginous juice of a beautiful red colour. After the most diligent enquiries of naturalists into the production of this grain, it is found to be the nest of a small fly or worm, which pricking the bark or leaf, in order to deposit its eggs, raises a little tumour, which by degrees fills with a red pulp, impregnated with the numerous progeny of that animalcula. Great quantities of these berries grow in the Ukraine, and in the neighbourhood of Warsaw and Cracow, and were formerly exported to Genoa and Florence. Here are several woods of oak, beech, pine, and fir trees. Poland also yields abundance of honey and wax, and of the former is made a great quantity of mead.

Horned cattle are bred in such numbers, that eighty or ninety thousand oxen are every year driven out of Poland. The Polish horses are strong, swift, and beautiful, and of these they have also great numbers. Among the wild beasts are the elk, the bison, which resembles the buffaloe; and also deer, hares, wolves, foxes, bears, and wild asses; and in the Ukraine, near the Nieper, are wild sheep and wild horses.

In great Poland are several lakes, some of which abound in fish: the most remarkable of these is the lake of Gopler, which is near twenty miles in length, and two miles and a half in breadth.

Among the Polish rivers the following are the most remarkable.

The Duna, called by the Poles the Cubo, which has its source in Russia, and after running through Lithuania, discharges itself into the Baltic.

The Memel, in Polish Niemen, which rises in the palatinate of Novogrodec, and running through Lithuania and Prussia, enters the Baltic.

The Weisel or Vistula, in Polish the Wisla, rises among the Carpathian mountains, runs through Poland, and after receiving several other streams, discharges itself into the Baltic.

The Niester, which rises in a lake among the Carpathian mountains, and dividing Poland from Moldavia, falls into the Black Sea.

The Nieper, the ancient Borysthenes, which rises in the mountains of Budin, in Russia, and after a course of near a thousand miles, discharges itself into the Black Sea.

S E C T. II.

Of the Persons, Dress, Manners, and Customs of the Poles. Their Houses, Food, Diversions, Method of Travelling; Language and Skill in the Sciences.

THE Poles are generally pretty tall, and inclinable to be fat; they have fair complexions, and their hair is usually of a pale yellow; they have good constitutions,

tutions, and have a healthful look. They cut the hair of their heads short, and shave their beards, leaving only large whiskers: in short, they have a stately mien, and great gravity of countenance.

The dress of the Poles is pretty singular: they wear a vest which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it, lined with furs, and girded with a sash; but the sleeves fit as close to their arms as a waistcoat. They wear a fur cap, but have neither stock nor neckcloth; for though they wear a shirt, it is almost like a woman's shift, without a collar or wristbands. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their stockings. Instead of shoes they always wear Turkey leather boots, both abroad and at home, with thin soles, and deep iron heels bent like an half moon. They carry a pole-ax, and a sabre or cutlass, by their sides, which they never put off but when they go to bed. The sabre hangs by a leathern strap, with their handkerchief, knife and sheath, and a small stone set in silver, to whet their knife on. When they appear on horseback, as they frequently do, they wear over all a short cloak, which is commonly covered with furs, both within and without. The people of the best quality wear fables, and others the skins of tygers, leopards, &c. The peasants usually wear a sheep-skin with the wool on, for their winter dress; but in summer, a thick coarse cloth, and instead of boots, wear buskins and shoes made of the bark of trees; but as to linnen, they wear none at all.

The habit of the women comes very near to that of the men, only people of quality affect the French mode of dress. The Polish ladies are amiable, witty, and sprightly, and are passionately fond of plays and music. They are generally modest, and according to Dr. Conner, so submissive to their husbands, as to ask them on the knee for what they want, and dispose of no money without their consent. Those who are very rich, seldom go to church, or to pay a visit, without their coach and six, a great number of servants, and particularly an old gentleman for their usher, and an old gentlewoman for their governante, with a dwarf of both sexes to bear up their train; and if it be night, their coach is surrounded by a great number of flambeaux.

These people have long been celebrated for their courage, their strength, and their longevity; no country in the world affording more extraordinary proofs of bodily vigour, and an uninterrupted flow of health, which are justly ascribed to the temperature of the climate, their inuring themselves to manly exercises, and the continual use of the cold bath, even in the coldest parts of Poland: this last is supposed to contribute greatly to that muscular strength for which they are remarkable.

The nobility are open, affable, liberal, and hospitable, polite to strangers, rigid to their dependents, punctilious in point of honour, vain, ostentatious, and magnificent in their apparel, equipage, and manner of living: for some of the wealthy will have forty suits of cloaths as rich as possible. Though the Poles are passionately fond of liberty, they live in a perpetual state of servitude to their profusion and necessities, which frequently make them stoop to be the tools of some political faction. The constitution of Poland has been the source of continual misfortunes, yet the nobility are attached to it to a degree of enthusiasm, and especially to those parts of it which produce the greatest inconveniences. Poor in the midst of a fertile country, they abhor the notion of improving their circumstances by trade, and are, perhaps, the only people upon earth who have provided by law against raising a maritime power. Prodigality and debauchery are said not to be reputed vices among this martial nobility: they borrow without intention of paying, with the same freedom that they squander. Constant in their friendships, bitter in their enmity, open to imposition, unsuspicious, opinionated, and haughty, their only care is to distinguish themselves in arms, in finery, equipage, and splendor.

As to the vulgar, they are mean, mercenary, ignorant, indolent, and indigent to an extreme. This is the character given by several authors of the Poles in general, as the distinguishing features of that people; but it is not to be doubted, that there are many exceptions to whom this character would be highly unjust, and

who are distinguished by their learning, their good sense, and their humanity.

The Polish houses chiefly consist of ground rooms; for they seldom live above stairs. The dwelling house is usually opposite the gate, the kitchens and offices on one side a round, or square court, and their stables on the other; they are generally of wood; but those who affect the Italian architecture, build much higher with brick or stone. Every nobleman has a hall or large room set apart for entertainments, in which is a place railed in with ballusters, in which the plate is placed, and over it a gallery for the music. The rooms are usually hung with tapestry, and the rest of the furniture is proportionably rich, except where they are liable to the incursions of the Tartars, and there they have as little furniture as possible. The Polish nobility have seldom any gardens or orchards to their houses, though the soil is extremely proper for them. But there are bagnios and stoves in every house, and the women have them separate from the men. There are also baths in every town for the use of the common people, who bathe every day.

The houses of the peasants consist only of huts built with poles in a round form, and open on the top, to let out the smoke. They are covered with thatch, or with boards; and as they frequently consist but of one room, the people and their cattle sleep together.

To the character that has already been given of the love of splendor which prevails among the Polish nobility, it is proper to add, that those of high rank and great estates have their horse and foot guards, which stand centry day and night at the gates of their houses, and in their anti-chambers, and that they march before their master's coaches in the street. But these nobles never appear with such splendor, as when they are at the general diet, where they will have four or five hundred, and some a thousand guards to attend them; for they esteem themselves not only equal but superior to any of the German princes: and indeed, they want little to distinguish them from sovereigns in their respective districts, but the privilege of coining money.

When they sit down to dinner, or supper, they have their trumpets and other music playing, and a great number of gentlemen to wait on them at table, some to carve, others to serve their wine and place the dishes, all serving with the most profound respect; for though the nobility of Poland are all said to be equal, as having votes in the diet, yet wealth will ever create a distinction, and the nobles who are poor frequently find themselves under the necessity of serving them that are rich. Their patron indeed usually treats them with civility, and permits the eldest to eat with him at his table with his cap off, and every one of them has his peasant-boy to wait on him, maintained by the master of the family. Yet if any of these noble servants neglects his duty, so little regard is paid to his quality, that he is stripped naked and whipped, and this is reckoned no disgrace; but if a nobleman should apply himself to trade, he would be deemed infamous.

Their ordinary food is beef or veal, mutton being little esteemed; but they have plenty of wild-fowl and river-fish. Though they have such plenty of corn, they eat but little bread, preferring roots to it, which they dress different ways. They are not fond of soup and broth, nor do they roast their meat too much: they are general admirers of pig and bacon; pease are also esteemed a genteel dish by the great. In their sauces they use a great quantity of saffron and spices; for they season their dishes high: they are also fond of mushrooms and pickled cabbage.

At an entertainment the Poles lay neither knives, forks, nor spoons, but every person brings them with him; and they no sooner sit down to table than all the doors are shut, and not opened till the company return home. Those who are invited, bring their servants with them; and it is said to be no uncommon thing for a nobleman to give his servant part of his meat, which he eats as he stands behind him, and to let him drink out of the same cup with himself; but this is the less extraordinary, if it be considered, that these servants are esteemed his equal. Though there are usually great plenty of provisions,

provisions, very little is left for the rest of the family, it being seized by the servants of the visitors, who have a napkin in order to carry off the sweetmeats for their ladies. After the cloth is taken away the gentlemen usually sit down to drinking, and after the ladies are retired, smoke tobacco; for the other sex are not excluded from their feasts. Bumpers are much in fashion, both here and in Russia; nor will they easily excuse any person from pledging them.

Their usual drink is beer, which in Polish Prussia they make only of malt; but in other parts of Poland of wheat ground. In Lithuania, and several other provinces of Poland, they have mead and metheglin; and at Warsaw they frequently mix the juice of cherries, blackberries, &c. with their honey, upon which the liquor receives different names. But besides beer and mead produced in the country, great quantities of wine are imported from Hungary, France, Spain, Italy, and Germany. That of Hungary is said to exceed the Spanish in strength, and is brought over the Carpathian mountains in large casks drawn upon carriages by oxen, which makes it very dear, the best sort being sold for twenty shillings the Polish pot, which is three quarts. The Italian wines come also over land; but are not much drank. The French and Rhenish wines come by the way of the Baltic to Dantzic. Their strong waters and spirits are drawn from wheat, barley, oats, and cyder; but these are chiefly drank by the common people, though sometimes the nobility will drink them in winter, when impregnated with anniseeds, cinnamon, and other spices.

The people are in general so extremely hardy, that the boys slide naked on the ice: the Poles will sleep upon the ground without a bed in frost and snow, and carry about their young infants naked in the severest weather. Hunting and feats of horsemanship are the diversions of the great; and leaping, vaulting, and dancing, are also favourite diversions.

The usual method of travelling is on horseback; for a Polish nobleman will scarce walk a stone's throw in a town without his horse; but as it is a champaign country, a calash and a pair of horses are very much used on a journey.

There are very few inns upon the roads, and in those a traveller meets with he can seldom find any thing to eat; hence he is obliged to buy provisions in the towns, and carry them with his baggage. This inconvenience is said to be owing to a want of honesty in the natives when they travel; and the inn-keepers never make any extraordinary provision, from their finding by experience that their guests are seldom disposed to make any returns for their entertainment.

The Polish language is derived from the old Slavonic; yet differs extremely from all the other languages derived from the same source.

High Dutch is very much spoke in Poland; and indeed the Germans first introduced into Poland a taste for learning, opened the channels of commerce, built several towns, and raised them to a flourishing condition: for Casimir the Great, sensible of the advantages Poland might reap from German colonies, invited them to settle in this kingdom by the greatest encouragements, granting them the most improveable spots in Poland, and permitting them to be governed by their own laws.

The Latin tongue is likewise commonly spoken in Poland, even by the lower class of people; but without the least regard to accent, quantity, or purity of language.

Dr. Busching observes, that from the time of king Sigismund I. to the reign of Uladislav IV. was the interval when arts and sciences flourished most in Poland. Since that æra the Polish muses seem to have drooped and languished: however, they now begin to revive; for at present the purity and elegance of the Polish and Latin tongues are studied, the new philosophy is introduced, the mathematics are taught, and natural philosophy flourishes in Poland. The learned in this country also apply themselves to the study of the history of Poland, which they cultivate and improve, and endeavour to make the good writers of former ages better known, and use of to the present; and for this purpose the library of

count Zalufki, at Warsaw, opens an inexhaustible treasure of antient authors.

The Greek language also begins to be studied in Poland, and literary correspondences are carried on with learned foreigners; but the press has not yet produced so many books as in other countries.

Poland exports none of its manufactures, its commodities being carried out of the country unwrought. Dr. Busching observes, that religious bigotry is of infinite detriment to the trade and commerce of Poland, which, notwithstanding all its natural advantages, has been long gradually sinking into poverty. The Poles, indeed, export grain of all kinds, masts, deal-boards, ship and house timber, pitch, flax, hemp, linseed, hops, honey, wax, hides, horned cattle, tallow, leather dressed in the Russian manner, pot-ash, horses, and other home commodities: but these are much over-balanced by the imports, as wine, that of Hungary alone, annually carrying vast sums out of the kingdom; the other articles of commerce imported are spices, plate, copper, brass, and steel.

S E C T. III.

Of the different Classes of the People; the Privileges of the Nobles, and the Slavery of the Peasants; with a concise Account of the Nature of the Wealth of the Poles.

THE Poles, when considered as members of the community, are either nobles or citizens, under which class are included merchants, artists, and mechanics; or peasants, who are mostly vassals to the nobles.

The Polish nobility have from time immemorial resided in the country; for every nobleman lives in his own village, seat, or castle; manages his estate by his vassals, or hired servants; and maintains himself and family by agriculture, breeding of bees, grazing, and hunting. Some of the nobility also spend part of their time in cities and towns.

Though Poland has its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility are naturally on a level, except the difference that arises from the posts some of them enjoy. Hence all who are of noble birth call one another brothers. They enjoy many considerable privileges, and, indeed, the boasted Polish liberty is properly limited to them alone; for they have the power of life and death over their vassals, who on that account groan under an oppressive slavery. Besides, every nobleman is absolute lord of his estates; so that the king can require no subsidy from him, nor is he obliged to maintain or find quarter for any soldiers. If a foreigner dies on a nobleman's estate in Poland, without leaving any heirs, his effects fall to the lord of the manor; but on the decease of a nobleman without heirs, his estate does not fall to the king, while there are any persons living who are related in the eighth degree to the deceased; and if a nobleman dies without heirs, or any such relations, the king can appropriate his estate to himself; but is obliged to bestow it on some other nobleman of merit.

The house of a nobleman is a secure asylum for persons who have committed any crime; for none must presume to take them from thence by force; and even the judges in the towns dare not cause a nobleman's vassal to be arrested, or his effects to be seized; nor can any magistrate, not even the king himself, cause a nobleman to be arrested, without signifying the crime of which he is accused, and giving a previous citation, except he be a robber, and has been three times impeached by his associates, or be surprized in the commission of a crime; or lastly, when he cannot or will not put in bail.

All ecclesiastical dignities and civil posts are to be held only by the nobility, and they alone are qualified to be proprietors of estates, except the burghers of the cities of Thorn, Cracow, Vilna, Lemberg, and Lublin, who have the privilege of purchasing lands. Any nobleman may purchase a house and live in a city or town, but he must then submit to serve municipal offices; and if he be concerned in trade or commerce, he forfeits the privileges of a noble Pole. Every nobleman has not only a vote in the election of a king, but is even qualified to wear

the crown, if he be raised to it by the free choice of the rest of the nobility. All civil causes relating to the nobility are tried in the provincial courts of judicature; but if a nobleman commences a suit with the farmers of the royal domains, a commissarial court is appointed to terminate the dispute.

Nothing can be more abject than the peasants of Poland. If one lord kills the peasant of another, he is not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation, by another peasant equal in value. The peasants have no property, and all their acquisitions serve only to enrich the master. They are indispensably obliged to cultivate the earth; they are incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might procure them freedom, without the permission of their lords; and they are exposed to the dismal and frequently fatal effects of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity of their tyrannical masters, who oppress them with impunity, and having the power of life and property in their hands, too often abuse it in the most gross and wanton manner, their wives and daughters being exposed to the most brutal treatment.

According to Mr. Hauteville, a nobleman who is desirous of cultivating a piece of land, builds a little wooden house, in which he settles a peasant and his family, giving him a cow, two horses, a certain number of geese, hens, &c. and as much corn as is sufficient to maintain him the first year, and to improve for his own future subsistence, and the advantage of his lord. In return, he obliges him to till a particular quantity of land, and to pay a number of live animals out of the produce of the original stock.

In autumn all the peasants are employed in cutting down and reaping the master's harvest, who appoints overseers to reward the diligent, and punish the indolent with stripes. Pillories are erected in every village, on which these wretched beings are obliged to stand a whole day, for crimes of a very trivial nature.

One blessing, however, attends the wretched situation of the Polish peasants, which is their insensibility. Born slaves, and accustomed from their infancy to hardships and severe labour, they scarce entertain an idea of better circumstances and more liberty. They regard their masters as a superior order of beings, and hardly ever repine at that severe lot which has deprived them of all the comforts of life, in order to heap them upon a cruel, despotic, and unworthy tyrant. They seldom want for provisions, and think that a man can never be very wretched while he has any thing to eat. Our author adds, a total want of sentiment, and of mental enjoyments, prevail through the whole order, as if Providence had wisely mixed the stupifying drop, to render more tolerable the nauseous draught of servitude.

This is the boasted liberty of the Poles, in which the multitude are reduced to the most abject slavery; and those who enjoy estates, though ever so small, are allowed the privilege of being tyrants, and have greater power over their vassals, than God ever gave to kings. But now let us take a view of the property of the great, and see in what their wealth consists.

Every Polish noble must be possessed either of an estate in land, a share in the salt-works, or the revenues of the city of Dantzic, which are esteemed equivalent to an estate in land. The Polish estates in general may be divided into royal, ecclesiastical, or patrimonial. The greatest number of them consist in starosties, which must be given away by the king six months after a vacancy, and are regarded as the rights of old military officers, and the reward of their past services, the word starost signifying old age. Each starosta pays a fourth of his revenue to the republic.

The ecclesiastical estates consist of bishoprics, benefices, priories, canonries, and all the land possessed by the regular clergy, which is of vast extent. Some of the bishoprics exceed five thousand pounds sterling a year, which is an immense sum of money in a country that does not abound in specie.

The patrimonial estates compose the solid wealth of the Polish nobility, they being entirely independent of the court, and descend by inheritance from generation to generation. These consist of lands, houses, towns, villages, woods, and especially peasants, which are va-

lued as the slaves in our colonies, at so much a head, according to their age, strength, and constitution. They are in general reckoned worth a hundred livres each a year, to the master, and have only one chance for becoming free, by entering into orders, and enrolling themselves in the long catalogue of priests and friars, for which a very small degree of learning is necessary: but as it is for the interest of the master to disqualify them, he obliges them to marry when young, and by this means not only preserves, but increases his wealth, by the multiplication of the species.

S E C T. IV.

Of the State of Religion in Poland.

THE Poles were first converted from idolatry to the Christian religion, about the year 964; when St. Adelbert, afterwards archbishop of Gnesna, was the instrument of this revolution; and the arts of the church of Rome have, since that time, kept the Polish government firmly in the interest of the Romish pontiff. Hence popery is the national religion; for none but persons of that persuasion are permitted to sit in the senate, rise to eminence in the army, or preside in the courts of justice; yet the government tolerates Lutherans, Calvinists, Jews, Armenians, and Greeks.

Formerly Poland had a number of Protestants of many different sorts, which were established there soon after the Reformation, when above half the nobility of the kingdom became Socinians, and the palatine of Podolia erected a printing-house, and founded an academy for their use; but they were expelled by John Casimir in 1658. The bulk of the Protestants now reside in Polish Prussia, at Dantzic, Elbing, Thorn, and Marienburg, where they enjoy privileges which are not granted in any of the other provinces.

Indeed, the Lutherans, Calvinists, and Greeks, by the treaties concluded with the Protestant powers, and particularly the constitution of 1717, are promised security as to their effects, and an equality with the other subjects as to their persons. The Protestants therefore, by virtue of the above articles, have frequently solicited for the free exercise of their religion, and the Protestant powers have interested themselves in their behalf, which has procured them many fair promises that have not been fulfilled. On the contrary, a great number of their churches have actually been taken from them, or demolished; and with respect to these dissenters from the established church, the laws of justice and equity have been violated; so that they have now only twenty-two churches in the cities and towns, and sixty-five in the villages of Poland. The Greeks are also no less oppressed; yet the Jews, before the present reign, were indulged with great privileges; and this country is stiled the paradise of that people. An old Polish general, who was a native of Germany, says, that there are at least two millions of Jews only in the villages of Poland, exclusive of the great numbers in the towns. Their annual capitation amounts to two hundred and twenty thousand Polish guilders in the kingdom of Poland, and a hundred and twenty thousand in Lithuania, amounting in the whole to fifty-six thousand six hundred and sixty-six rix-dollars, which they pay above the general imposts and taxes.

The king is here stiled Orthodoxus, as a title of honour, and St. Florian and St. Adalbert are worshipped as the patron saints of Poland.

The number of monasteries in this kingdom amounts to five hundred and seventy-six, and of nunneries to one hundred and seventeen, besides two hundred and forty-six seminaries or colleges, and thirty-one abbeys. The clergy are even possessed of two-thirds of the lands and revenues of the kingdom.

The monks of Poland are wealthy, profligate, and debauched in their manners; they are often seen drunk, and led from taverns, without apprehending any disgrace to their order, or dreading the censure of their superiors, who require equal indulgence. Their fasts consist in abstaining from eggs, milk, and boiled fish at night. But though no clergy on earth are so attached to the see of Rome

Rome as the Polish, yet they prefer good living even to the opinion of the pope, and therefore confine their abstinence from animal food wholly to the evening.

The secular clergy admit of pluralities, and hold profitable benefices in the most distant parts of the kingdom, without being ever supposed to perform any of the duties of their office. A canon gives two-pence to a poor scholar or a monk, for going through the drudgery of the mass, as his substitute. Even the bishops are said to be so negligent about the due execution of episcopal duties, that they are forced to wink at the enormities of their inferiors; yet the few clergy who attend the duties of their profession have all the appearance of piety, and the laity make up for every other deficiency by their bounty to the church. They will grind the face of the poor to found a monastery, cheat and defraud in order to enrich an altar. In these particulars Poland is now what the more civilized nations of Europe were two centuries ago. All their churches are built by donations: they are in general rich and magnificent, and the jesuits at Leopold have a chalice set with jewels, said to be worth a million of livres. So zealous are the Poles in the catholic faith, that they draw their swords at mass, to shew their readiness to defend their religion by slaughtering its opposers.

As to the erudition of the clergy, a late author observes, it entirely consists in that species of sophistry called school divinity, in an unmeaning metaphysical jargon, and the most useless logical distinctions. The divines pride themselves in adapting the metaphysics of Aristotle to the doctrines of Christianity, by which they render the latter as unintelligible as the former. They pay no regard to church history, but solve every difficulty by the affirmations of the Stagyrice, and the decisions of the pontiff. In a word, they are ignorant, obstinate, opinionated, and superstitious.

S E C T. V.

Of the political Constitution of Poland. The very limited Power of the King; the general Contents of the Pacta Conventa; the Ceremonies of the Coronation; the arms of Poland; and the Badge of the Knights of the White Eagle.

THE political constitution of Poland is so extremely singular, that it bears no resemblance to any other government, ancient or modern. The people have a sovereign, and yet the government is with great propriety called a republic. The reader has seen that the nobility of this country have greater power than those of any other, yet they detest the thoughts of an aristocracy; because they all esteem themselves upon a level, each Polish nobleman or gentleman considering himself as inferior to none but the monarch.

The republic is composed of the king, the senate, and the nobility, the peasants being admitted to no share of the government. Upon every new election the royal prerogative has been retrenched, and the liberties of the diet and senate proportionably extended. This idea of independency is carried so far, as to hazard the general security of the kingdom, the monarch not being permitted to garrison even the most remote and necessary frontier towns; whence Poland has in all ages been made a kind of public route for the passage of hostile armies.

Upon the death of the sovereign, the whole body of the nobility assemble on horseback for the choice of a successor, and their unanimous voice constitutes a legitimate election; though there have been instances, where a majority have been deemed sufficient. Here the nobility assume a power of altering the government, and imposing such conditions on the new monarch as they think proper, and these they call the Pacta Conventa. This contract is drawn up, methodized and approved by the senate and nobility, after which it is read aloud to the king by the great marshal, and he swears to perform it before the ceremony of his proclamation. As this contract may be deemed the barrier of the privileges of the Poles against the encroachments of the crown, we shall here enumerate the principal articles.

The first is, that the king shall not attempt to encroach on the liberty of the people, by rendering the crown hereditary in his family, but shall preserve all the laws and customs relating to the freedom of election: that he shall ratify all the treaties subsisting with foreign powers which are approved by the diet: that he shall study to cultivate peace, preserve the public tranquility, and promote the interest of the realm: that he shall not coin money, except in the republic's name, nor appropriate to himself the advantage arising from coinage: that he shall neither declare war, conclude peace, levy troops, hire auxiliaries, or admit foreign troops into the Polish dominions, without the consent of the diet and senate: that all offices and preferments shall be given to the natives of Poland and Lithuania, and that no pretence shall excuse the crime of introducing foreigners into the king's council or the departments of the republic: that the officers of his majesty's guards shall be Poles or Lithuanians, and that the colonel shall be a native of Poland, and of the order of nobility: that all the officers shall be subordinate to the authority of the marshal: that no individual shall be vested with more employments than the law allows: that the king shall not marry without the approbation of the senate, and that the republic shall regulate the household of the queen: that the sovereign shall never apply his private signet to acts and papers of a public nature: that, on the other hand, the king shall dispose of the offices both of the court and of the republic: that he shall regulate with the senate the number of forces necessary for the defence of the kingdom, and administer justice by the advice of the senate and council: that the expences of his civil list shall be the same with those of his predecessors, and possessed by his family only during his life: that he shall fill up all vacancies in the space of six weeks: that this shall be his first business in the diet, obliging the chancellor to publish his appointments in due form: that the king shall not diminish the treasure kept at Cracow, but endeavour to augment that and the number of the crown jewels: that he shall neither borrow money, nor equip a naval force, without the consent and full approbation of the republic: that he shall profess, promote, and defend the Roman catholic faith through all the Polish dominions; and finally, that all their several liberties, rights, and privileges, shall be preserved to the Poles and Lithuanians in general, and to all the districts and provinces within each of these great divisions, without change, or the smallest violation, except by the consent of the republic. To these articles a variety of others are added, according to the circumstances and humour of the diet; but the above are the standing conditions, which are scarce ever altered or omitted.

The king swears to observe the Pacta Conventa upon his knees at the altar in the following manner: "We ***, elected king of Poland, and great duke of Lithuania, Russia, Prussia, Massovia, Samogitia, Kihovia, Volhinia, Podolia, Podlaffia, Livonia, Smolensko, Siberia, and Czernicovia, promise before the Almighty God, and swear upon the holy evangelists of Jesus Christ, to observe, maintain, and fulfil all the conditions stipulated at our election by our ambassadors with the senators and deputies of Poland, and of the great duchy of Lithuania, and confirmed by our plenipotentiaries; and to execute the same in all the clauses, points, articles, and conditions specified in that contract, in such a manner, that the *speciality* shall not derogate from the *generality*; nor, on the contrary, the *universality* from the *particularity*; all which we promise solemnly to ratify on the day of our coronation."

Though the king is without exception acknowledged to be their sovereign, yet he cannot exercise the functions of sovereignty before his coronation. The space between the election and coronation is a kind of interregnum, though he is vested with all the badges and external pomp of majesty. During this period the marshal, in all processions, carries his staff bent downwards before the king; but after the coronation it is always held erect. This is to shew that the election is imperfect till it be ratified by the coronation, previous to which the king can neither dispose of offices or benefices, grant favours of any kind as a sovereign, nor apply the great seal to any act or ordinance. He appoints the day for performing

his coronation, which is usually on that succeeding the funeral obsequies of his predecessor. All imaginable magnificence is observed on this occasion, and a foreigner, unacquainted with the Polish constitution, would naturally conclude, that a monarch who ascended the throne with such pomp and splendor, was invested with very extensive prerogatives.

When the coronation-day approaches, the king makes his entry into Cracow on horseback, with a canopy of state carried before him. The troops, both horse and foot, march before with their officers, and are followed by the palatines, bishops, and ambassadors on horseback; while a man, who rides before, scatters some small pieces of silver, stamped with the effigies of the new king; who is thus conducted from the city gate to the castle, passing through the public square, in which are several triumphal arches. On the day that precedes the coronation, the body of the deceased king is carried in great state to the church of St. Stanislaus, at Shalka, where the marshals break their staves, and the chancellors their seals, against the king's coffin. The new king, with all his courtiers, and the officers of the crown, are present at this ceremony. The companies of tradesmen even walk thither bare-foot in procession, each having the representation of a coffin covered with a pall, supported by two men; after which the corpse is brought back to the chapel of the cathedral of Cracow, where are the sepulchres of their kings.

The next day the coronation is performed in the cathedral of Cracow, to which the king is conducted in solemn state by the senate, and the rest of the nobility. The regalia are placed upon the altar, and the bishops of Cracow and Cujavia present the king to the archbishop of Gnesna, to whom he bows, and then all the three prelates remind him of his duty; after which he kisses the archbishop's hand, kneels, lays his hand on the gospels, and again swears to the Pacta Conventa; to which is added, that if he should violate his oath, or any part of it, the subjects shall be discharged from their obedience and oath of fidelity. Then receiving the benediction of the primate, and other bishops, his upper garment is taken off, and the primate anoints his right hand and arm up to the elbow, and also his shoulders and forehead with consecrated oil, saying, "In the name of the Father, of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost."

The king is then led to the chapel, where he is dressed much like a bishop, and has other ornaments put on him by the marshals of the kingdom and duchy, in which he hears mass on a throne erected in the midst of the church; and afterwards goes to the altar, where the archbishop, putting a drawn sword into his right hand, says, "Receive this sword, and cordially protect and defend the holy church against all unbelievers." The sword-bearer then puts it up in the scabbard, and returns it to the archbishop, who girds it to the king's side: but his majesty drawing it, waves it several times over his head. The king then kneels, and the archbishop places on his head the crown, which is supported by the bishops of Cracow and Cujavia. After some prayers, the archbishop puts the scepter into the king's right hand, and the globe of gold into his left. The primate and two archbishops then lead the king back to the throne, in which the archbishop places him, saying, "Sit and maintain the place God has given thee." The king returns again to the altar, and Te Deum being sung, his majesty kisses the archbishop's hand, offers him gold, confesses, receives the sacrament, and the bishop's benediction; after which the court-marshal cries out several times, Vivat Rex, and the treasurer of the kingdom scatters money among the people in the church.

The next day the king goes in great pomp to the town-house, with the regalia carried before him, and the great treasurer again throws medals of gold and silver among the people. His majesty being there placed on a throne, receives the homage and oaths of the diet, &c. on their knees, and the magistrates of the cities present him with the keys of their gates in a silver dish, and a purse full of ducats; after which he restores the keys, and makes some of the burghers of the city knights, by striking them gently on the shoulder with his drawn sword.

As the king is obliged by the Pacta Conventa to consult his people with respect to marriage, so their consent is necessary to the dissolution of the nuptial engagement; for he can neither divorce the queen, nor separate from her bed, without the approbation of the diet, unless he was married before his election. Her majesty has a distinct household, except a marshal, a chancellor, and some inferior domestics. She is furnished with money by the king to defray the expences of the civil list; and, with respect to her domestic œconomy, is little more than his house-keeper or steward. The king's whole revenue for the support of his regal dignity does not exceed four hundred thousand crowns; exclusive of which there is a maintenance for the queen-dowager, his consort, and children, in case of his death; though the latter are denied the privilege enjoyed by other subjects, of rising to places of trust and profit, lest this should give them an ascendant in future elections.

The arms of the republic are, gules, an eagle argent, for Poland; and gules, a cavalier argent, for Lithuania.

In the year 1705, king Augustus II. instituted the order of the white eagle; whose ensign is a cross of gold enamelled with red, with a white border, and four flames between the points, appendant to a blue ribbon. On one side of the badge is the Polish white eagle, with a white cross and the electoral sword, &c. on its breast; on the other side the king's cypher, and round it this motto, PRO FIDE, REGE, ET LEGE. The cross is surrounded with a crown set with diamonds.

S E C T. VI.

Of the Senate of Poland.

THE most respectable part of the Polish government is the senate, which is composed of the bishops, palatines, castellans, and ten officers of state, who derive a right from their dignities of sitting in that assembly, amounting in all to a hundred and forty-four members, who are stiled senators of the kingdom, or counsellors of state, and have the title of excellency, a dignity supported by no pension or emoluments necessarily annexed to it. The senate presides over the laws, is the guardian of liberty, the judge of right, and the protector of justice and equity.

The members are nominated by the king, and take an oath to the republic, before they are permitted to enter upon their office. Their honour continues for life, and at the general diet they are seated on the right and left of the sovereign, according to their dignity. They are the mediators between the monarch and the subject, and, in conjunction with his majesty, ratify all the laws passed by the nobility. The value they set on their dignity makes them despise all other honours, and they have even rejected the titles offered them by the emperor of Germany. As a senator is bound by oath to maintain the liberties of the republic, it is thought no disrespect to majesty to remind him of his duty; for as they are his counsellors, this freedom of speech is an inseparable prerogative of their office.

All the bishops are senators, and precede the secular members: they are only thirteen in number, besides two titular bishops of places seized by the Turks and Russians; but still the titular honours are retained, and eagerly sought after, because they give them a right to sit in the senate. The archbishop of Gnesna is seated at their head, and is second only to the monarch; he is also apostolical legate by his office, and enjoys such variety of privileges as gives him extraordinary weight, not only in the senate, but in the common-wealth; for it is a capital crime even to draw a sword, or to speak irreverently in his presence. During the inter-regnum he has the power, under certain restrictions, of coining money: he convokes the senate; and opposes the conduct of the monarch whenever he acts contrary to the constitution: his marshal is a senator, and the cross is carried before him. When the primate visits the king, he is met at the bottom of the stairs of the palace by one of the chief officers of the crown; another great officer attends him at the top of the stairs, and conducts him to the royal presence, while

while the king advances to meet him at the door. He receives the visits of ambassadors without being expected to return their civilities. He is the head and sovereign of the republic during a vacancy of the throne. He likewise regulates the diet of election, issues out writs for holding the general and petty diets, and performs several other acts of sovereignty, assisted only by the senate, the members of which rather compose his council, than are his colleagues. The Poles probably annexed these extraordinary privileges to the primate rather than to any lay senator, from their being secured by his religious character from his aspiring after the crown.

The office of palatine is to march at the head of the nobility of his palatinate, and in time of peace to assemble the nobility, to preside in the courts of judicature, and pronounce sentence; to settle the price of goods brought to market, except in war-time, and during the session of a diet; to examine weights and measures, and to protect and administer justice to the Jews. These palatines amount to thirty-seven, including the three castellans and the starosta of Samogitia, who rank with the palatines.

There are eighty-two castellans, who in time of peace are only senators, without any jurisdiction; but in time of war they, by general summons, act as palatines, and are in some measure their lieutenants. In the Polish language a castellan is styled pan, or lord, and ki, or ski, is added to the place over which each is castellan, as pan Posenanski, lord of Posen. They are divided into great or little castellans. The great castellans are admitted into the most secret councils, from which the others are sometimes excluded.

The crown officers are, the crown great-marshal, the great-chancellor, the vice-chancellor, the great-treasurer, the deputy-treasurer, and the court-marshal of Poland, and all the same officers of Lithuania.

Though these state officers are the last of the senators in order, yet they are persons of great power and dignity, and in a fair way of rising to the highest posts in the kingdom.

S E C T. VII.

Of the Polish Diet.

WE now come to the diet of Poland, which is composed of the king, the senate, and deputies of the nobility of every palatinate; and is usually held on two accounts, either to consider of the resolutions of the senate relating to the public welfare, or for the administration of justice, which are the most usual diets.

The king may assemble the diet at any particular place, except on occasion of a coronation, which, according to the custom of the country, must be celebrated at the capital. Indeed for a number of years the diet regularly assembled at Warsaw; but, on complaint made by the Lithuanians, it was agreed, that every third diet should be held at Grodno. The general rule is to meet at least once in three years. When it is proposed to hold a general diet, the king, or, in case of an interregnum, the primate, issues writs to the palatines of the several provinces, appointing the time and place of meeting. A sketch is also sent of the business to be deliberated upon by the assembly, and the members are allowed six weeks to prepare for the intended session.

It is remarkable that the diet never sits above six weeks, even in the most critical conjunctures and pressing emergencies; and they have been known to break up in the midst of an important debate, and to leave the business to a future meeting. This has been justly esteemed one of the great defects of the constitution of Poland: it probably owes its origin to convenience; but is kept up from whim and caprice.

On receipt of the king's writ, the palatine communicates the meeting of the diet to all the officers and nobility within his jurisdiction, requiring them to assemble on a certain day, to elect deputies, and take into consideration the business mentioned in the royal summons. These meetings are called petty diets, every gentleman possessing three acres of land having a vote, and matters being determined by a majority; but in the general diet decrees

are only valued when the whole body is unanimous. These indigent nobles are always directed by some person of superior fortune, influence, or ability, and seldom examine the subject of the debate; but remit it wholly to the judgment of their representatives. Every palatinate has three representatives; but the business devolves upon one of them, who is elected for his ability and experience, and the other two are only added to give weight to this leading member, and to do honour, by their magnificent appearance, to the palatinate they represent.

As these deputies have seats in the diet, the general assembly is divided into two bodies, the upper and the lower; the one being composed of the senate, the superior clergy, and the great officers; the other of the representatives of the palatinates, who prepare all business for the superior body. Thus we see how near an affinity the general constitution of the Polish diet has to a British parliament, and to the original form of government among all the northern nations, however they may vary in particular circumstances, and be altered by the influence of time.

The first business of the assembly is to choose a marshal; upon which occasion the debates and tumults sometimes run so high, that the whole time for the session of the diet is consumed in altercation and wrangling about the election of a speaker, who must be a native of Great or Little Poland, or of the duchy of Lithuania. After his election he kisses the king's hand, and the chancellor, as the royal representative, reports the matters to be deliberated upon by the diet. The marshal then acquaints the king with the instructions of the deputies from their constituents, and the abuses they require to be remedied; he likewise requests his majesty to fill up the vacant offices and benefices according to law, and is answered by a set speech from the chancellor, who reports the king's inclination to satisfy his people as soon as he has consulted his faithful senate.

Some of the customs observed by the Polish diet are remarkably absurd; not only an unanimity of voices is necessary to pass any bill, and constitute a decree of the diet, but every bill must also be assented to unanimously, or none can take effect. Thus, if out of twenty bills one should happen to be opposed by a single voice, all the rest are thrown out, and the diet meets, deliberates, and debates for six weeks to no purpose. Can any thing be more astonishing, than that a rule so contrary to the dictates of common sense, and attended with such fatal consequences, should continue among a people who appear far from being void of understanding?

The usual form of passing laws and decrees is as follows: they are first revised by the marshal, attended by two of the deputies, or else by three senators and six deputies, and then read in the senate in the king's presence; after which the chancellor asks, with a loud voice, whether the king, senators, and deputies, agree to have the bill sanctified by the royal seal, and the arms of the republic. Having passed through these forms, it is lodged in the register at Warsaw, or in the great chancery of the kingdom, till printed copies are made, and dispersed among the several palatinates.

The diet takes cognizance of affairs relating to war, the conclusion of a peace, the forming alliances, the imposition of taxes, the levying of troops, the framing of laws, and the final determination of civil and criminal causes; there being an appeal from all the inferior courts to the general diet. Here too foreigners are naturalized, and admitted to all the rights of the natives; and such peasants as have sufficient wealth and ambition, are advanced to the rank of nobility.

The afflux of people occasioned by the diet is very astonishing: wherever it happens to sit, thirty or forty thousand people, who rival each other in pomp and profusion, are added to the usual number of inhabitants. The nobility, who are not deputed, attend with their families for the sake of pleasure: they drink deep of Hungarian wine, their favourite liquor, and feasting and mirth are more pursued than the business of the state. Hence the deputies frequently come intoxicated into the diet, affront the king, excite tumults, harangue with the most abusive and factious eloquence, and sometimes occasion the dissolution of the assembly. Thus the supreme

senate

senate of the nation is in fact little more than a factious mass, conducted with the utmost indecorum. However, a politic prince may mould this turbulent multitude according to his pleasure, by soothing, cajoling, treating, and making pecuniary presents.

Besides the regular triennial great diets, a particular diet meets, as hath been already hinted, on the vacancy of the throne, in a large field in the neighbourhood of Warsaw. Upon the death, deposition, or abdication of the sovereign, the primate, on whom the chief power devolves, issues circular letters, summoning the diet to assemble on an appointed day. A kind of booth of prodigious extent is erected, to shelter the electors from the weather, and deputies are elected in the usual manner in the petty provincial diets. A marshal is chosen by the nobility, who must be confirmed by the senate. These last, with the nobility, then form an association, and enter into the most solemn engagements to adhere to the same interest; not to nominate a king till one of the candidates has obtained their unanimous consent; to preserve all the rights and immunities of the republic; to enter into no engagements with any of the candidates, or their ambassadors, till all the abuses, irregularities, and grievances of the republic be fully redressed; to insist upon the repeal of all the decrees, and even of the royal statutes that have any tendency to encroach on public liberty; and to support the court of justice established for preserving order, enforcing the laws, protecting the state, coining money, and performing all the offices of the executive power, during the vacancy in the throne; to prohibit all strangers from approaching the diet; to forbid the carrying of fire-arms to this assembly; to oblige the principal military officers to swear fidelity to the state; to exert no undue influence, and to use the army only against the enemies of their country; to defend the frontiers, and secure the honour and liberty of Poland and the great duchy of Lithuania; to oblige the officers also to swear, that in case of any sedition or revolt they will assert the public interest, restrain the soldiers from acts of violence, and receive no money upon any pretence whatsoever from the clergy, laity, the candidates, or their ambassadors. They also engage to oblige the officers not to advance to the heart of the kingdom with their troops, nor to approach the diet; and neither to augment or diminish the army but by the diet's consent. Lastly, the treasurers of the crown are forbid to issue out money without the approbation of the senate, except for the pay of the army.

When the marshal is elected, and a court of justice is established, the diet draws out a bill of grievances and abuses, either with respect to the republic or to individuals, which they intend to have redressed. A certain number of senators are then deputed to the army to keep them steady, and to assist the generals with their advice. Senators and deputies are also appointed to take an inventory of the crown treasure and jewels deposited at Cracow, and to make their report to the diet. Eight senators are then charged with the treasure, and a particular seal and key is given to each, that none of the keepers may singly have access. The same form is observed with respect to the crown revenue.

During the session of the electoral diet, which is limited to fourteen days without prorogation, all courts of justice, except that of the marshal, are suspended till the coronation is over. The next proceeding is to give orders to the plenipotentiaries of foreign powers, and the advocates of the candidates for the crown. The pope's legate is honoured with the first notice, as being the representative of Christ's vicar, the sovereign of princes; then the ambassador of his imperial majesty, who is succeeded by those of France, and other catholic powers. They make their speeches in Latin, and are answered by the bishop of Gnesna and the marshal of the deputies. But in general it is not the most persuasive oratory that can gain the esteem of a Polish diet: the deputies desire more substantial arguments, and expect their passion for money and wine to be also gratified. Addresses in this particular, and in securing the interest of the clergy, are the chief qualities necessary in a candidate for the crown.

Immediately before they proceed to the election, public prayers are read, and the whole diet join with one

voice to beseech heaven to direct their choice, and judge them according to their integrity in an affair of such consequence to the republic; a proceeding that must appear equally absurd and impious to those foreign ministers who have purchased their votes. The deputies of each palatinate give their votes in particular *rotas*, the archbishop alone preserving his seat. The first senator of every palatinate numbers the votes, which are afterwards transmitted in a roll to the nuncio-marshal. Should all the votes prove unanimous in favour of one candidate, the primate asks three times, with a loud voice, whether the grievances have been redressed, and then proclaims the king, the marshals of the crown and duchy of Lithuania observing the same ceremonies. In case of a contested election, the senate assembled in a particular part of the booth endeavour, by persuasions, promises, and menaces, to bring all the electors to one opinion; and should this be found impracticable, the majority is declared, and their opinion passed for a legitimate election, though this is diametrically opposite to the fundamental constitution.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Strength of Poland, with respect to its Fortifications and military Forces.

ONE of the most extraordinary parts of the constitution of Poland, is the manner of raising and maintaining the militia. Originally Poland was an open country, as at present, without fortresses; but, in course of time, the government caused fortifications to be erected in the cities, in order to oppose the incursions of the enemy: these were subject to royal authority, and defended by regular garrisons; but as they were found to increase the power of the monarch, by erecting a kind of standing army, with which some ambitious prince might destroy the liberties of the people, some of the citadels were demolished, and others neglected. They were then usurped by the neighbouring lords, who by this means extended their authority over the citizens and burghers, as well as over the peasants on their own estates.

Hence there are at present few fortified places either in Poland or Lithuania: for the Poles alledge, that the bravery of the inhabitants is the defence of their country. Kaminiac, on the frontiers of Podolia, owes its strength more to nature than art. The boasted fortifications of the city of Zamosk, if compared with the fortified towns of other countries, must appear very inconsiderable; and all the towns which formerly stood a short siege, are now open and defenceless. Hence Dr. Busching observes, that "when a foreigner reads of fortified places in Poland, he must not suppose that such expressions signify any thing more than a ditch, a rampart, a wooden or a stone wall, with which such places are surrounded. Dantzic is the only place that deserves the name of a fortress in the Polish dominions; but this is an independent city."

No such thing as a standing army kept in constant pay was formerly known in this country; but all that were capable of bearing arms took the field on any emergency: but in the year 1551, the Lithuanians, for their own security, first began to keep on foot a certain number of troops, and their example was followed by the Poles, who raised an army to defend their frontiers from the ravages of their lawless neighbours, who live on plunder. These troops are now divided into the crown army, and that of Lithuania; but some of the troops in both armies are clothed and exercised in the Polish, and others in the German manner.

The crown army consists of a thousand spear-men, three thousand nine hundred and forty cuirassiers, a thousand light armed troops, which are all disciplined in the Polish manner; four thousand dragoons, six thousand seven hundred and fifty foot-soldiers, eight hundred and fifty matrosses, and four hundred Hungarians; all these, except the last, are under the German discipline.

The Lithuanian army is composed of four hundred men bearing lances or spears, above eleven hundred and sixty cuirassiers, four hundred and sixty Tartars, two hundred

hundred and forty Cossacs, four regiments of dragoons, three regiments of foot, and a hundred and fifty mactrosses.

The charge of these troops is defrayed in Poland by a poll-tax; but in Lithuania other taxes are levied for this purpose. The soldiers also receive, besides their pay, what is called winter-quarter money, and are mostly cantoned on the crown lands.

Besides this small standing army, which receives constant pay, Poland, on any pressing exigency, is provided with another that can speedily be raised, and is of little expence to the public: for on any sudden and important danger, the whole body of the nobility are summoned to appear in the field on horseback, and this army is called the *pospolite*. This is concluded upon in a diet, after having been previously proposed in the provincial meetings, and is done by royal letters, with the seals of the kingdom, and the great duchy of Lithuania. These being fastened to poles by the summoners, are carried to the principal noblemen, state officers, and persons of rank in every palatinate, and read in the market-places of the cities and towns. When this has been three times repeated, the nobility, after holding their assemblies in their palatinates and districts, appear in the field on horseback, and, during the campaign, provide subsistence for themselves.

All gentlemen who live in cities and towns upon the interest of money; all tenants who have procured leases for a term of years, which indeed are extremely uncommon in Poland; all the king's tenants; the ecclesiastical advocates in the spiritual courts; and, in case of imminent danger, all the citizens in general; and even the gentry imprisoned for high crimes, are dismissed to attend the *pospolite*, being afterwards bound to return to their confinement, to stand trial, and suffer the punishment due to their crimes, unless they have merited a pardon by some signal acts of valour in the service of their country.

At present this body is entirely composed of cavalry. There is also a small body of infantry raised at the expence of the citizens, worth four thousand florins; the more wealthy burghers are obliged to find a horseman compleatly armed. In the great duchy of Lithuania the clergy are also obliged to fit out a number of men, in proportion to their temporal and spiritual possessions. The poor gentry may either appear in person, or subscribe to equip one horseman for a certain number of estates; and brothers who are joint proprietors, may depute one person to represent them all. However, the court and retinue both of the king and queen are exempted from taking the field. The primate also is vested with a power of protecting a certain number of the gentry within his jurisdiction from appearing in a military capacity; and this privilege is sometimes claimed by the bishop of Cracow.

The *pospolite* of every palatinate being assembled at the appointed place, are led by their proper officers to the general rendezvous, where the palatines surrender their several charges to the commander in chief. The Polish nobility squander the bulk of their fortunes in making a magnificent appearance in the field, and come with glittering arms, fine horses, rich trappings, and elegant apparel.

The cavalry is divided into *hussarts* and *tavarsies*; the former are chosen men and horse, both defended by close armour; the latter are covered only by a breast-plate, gorget, and helmet. Lances, sabres, and pistols, are the arms of the *hussarts*; and carbines, bows and arrows, of the *tavarsies*. The former dart their lances at a considerable distance; and, if they miss their aim, recover them by means of a silk cord fastened to the wrist. All the cavalry have the skins of wild beasts over their armour, and are stuck over with the wings of storks and other large birds, which give them a fierce appearance, and terrify the enemy's horse, which, when unaccustomed to so extraordinary a spectacle, cannot be brought up to the charge. As to the Polish light-horse, they differ little from the other troops, being armed with coats of mail and helmets, &c. These are sent upon all foraging parties and expeditions which require celerity; they being less encumbered with baggage.

As no suttlers are admitted into the camp, every Polish officer must provide himself provisions, and the cities and towns provide carriages and due military stores.

The king himself always marches at the head of his army: but after the nobility have been a fortnight at the general rendezvous, if no enemy appear, they are at liberty to return to their respective homes. These troops are not obliged to march beyond the limits of the kingdom; but if this be resolved, and the nobility voluntarily conform to it, every horseman and foot soldier previously receives five Polish marks, or about one pound two shillings and six-pence; and the campaign is not to last above three months. Such a general summons has not been issued since the year 1672; nor was it ever of any great advantage to the republic, on account of the short duration of the campaign, the want of good discipline, and obedience to their chiefs.

We have now given a particular account of Poland and its inhabitants in general, and shall therefore proceed to describe the several provinces, and the principal places worthy of notice.

The kingdom of Poland, according to Dr. Busching, consists of three principal provinces, viz. Great Poland, Little Poland, and the great duchy of Lithuania. This division, he observes, is of great utility with respect to the public law of Poland; according to which, the nation consists of three distinct people and three provinces, and the marshal in the diet is alternately chosen from each. But however convenient this division may be for the Poles, it does not appear to be so to the geographers, since even that gentleman has placed his account of Polish Prussia, which belongs to Great Poland, after Lithuania. We shall therefore give what appears to us a more natural division, in which the countries and people, who are, in some respects, remarkably different, will be less confounded by being classed together.

S E C T. IX.

Of GREAT POLAND, including Poland Proper, Cujavia, and Massovia; with the principal places in each.

GREAT Poland, including the above provinces, is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Prussia and Polish Prussia, on the east by Lithuania, on the south by Little Poland, and on the east by Silesia.

Great Poland, properly so called, contains five palatinates, the most remarkable of which are,

Posen, or Posen, the capital of the palatinate of Posenania, is a handsome but not a very large city, seated on the river Warta, in fifty-two degrees twenty-six minutes north latitude. It is inclosed with a double wall and a deep moat. On the other side of the river it has two suburbs, surrounded with a large morass; but both the city and suburbs are subject to frequent inundations by the overflowing of the river. The castle, which is a good structure, stands on an island in the same river. The city has several churches and convents, a jesuits college, an academy, which stands in the suburbs, and an episcopal seminary. The bishop's palace is near the cathedral, which is a fine structure. This is the most antient bishop's see in Poland, it being founded by the emperor Otho I. and made subordinate to the archbishopric of Magdeburgh, under which it continued till it was subjected to the archbishopric of Gnesna. It owes great part of its prosperity to its trade with Germany; for it is a staple town, and enjoys several other privileges.

Fraustadt, in the Polish language Uskowa, is a handsome town on the frontiers of Silesia, in latitude fifty-one degrees forty-five minutes, built by the Germans, from whom a great part of its inhabitants are descended; hence there are two Lutheran churches in the town. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in oxen and wool. Fraustadt formerly belonged to Silesia; but was annexed to the Polish dominions by king Casimir, who promised to maintain its former privileges, among which was the right of coining money. In the year 1644, this town was almost destroyed by fire, and in 1706 the combined armies of the Saxons and Russians were entirely defeated by the Swedes near this place.

Lissa,

Lissa, called by the Poles Leszno, is a fine populous town and lordship, near the preceding, in the territory of which it lies. It was formerly no more than a village, but great numbers of protestants removing thither from Silesia, Bohemia, Moravia, and Austria, and obtaining the free exercise of their religion, it increased till it became a considerable town. The inhabitants carry on a good trade, and have a Lutheran church, a seminary, and a Calvinist church: and the general-senior of all the Lutheran churches in Great Poland, formerly styled the superintendant, resides in this town. In 1656 the inhabitants deserted it for fear of the Polish troops, who plundered and laid it in ashes; and in 1707 it was laid waste by the Russians, but was afterwards rebuilt with great improvements.

In the palatinate of Kalisz is the city of Gnesna, called by the Poles Gniezno, the capital of Great Poland, and the most antient city in the kingdom. It is situated in a plain, and is not only a large town, but the see of an archbishop, whose power, as we have already observed, is next that of the king. A court of judicature is held in the town, and a particular chancellor belongs to the chapter of the cathedral, in which is the body of St. Adalbert enclosed in a silver shrine. There is also a seminary founded here.

We now come to the province of Cujavia, which is very fertile, and watered by many lakes, that abound with fish: the principal of these is the lake of Goplo. The bishop of Cujavia is a suffragan to the archbishop of Gnesna, and also styles himself bishop of Pomerellia. Cujavia contains two palatinates, the most considerable place in which is,

Uladislaw, a handsome city in the palatinate of the same name, seated on the Vistula. Here is a fine palace, in which the bishop of Cujavia resides. The cathedral is an antient Gothic structure, rich in plate, ornaments, and relics, and is encompassed by the houses of the canons and a large free-school.

Another province of Great Poland is Masovia, or Masuren, which, from the beginning of the Polish monarchy, has been considered as a part of that kingdom. It has been twice given to the queens of Poland as a dowry. No other religion but popery is tolerated in this province, those of other professions being treated with the utmost severity; for to such a height is the bigotry of the government carried, that if a Lutheran or Calvinist minister be found in Masovia, he is certainly punished with death. The number of noble families in this province are computed to be no less than forty-five thousand. Masovia contains two palatinates, in which are the following places:

Warsaw, the capital of Masovia, and the royal residence, is seated on the Vistula, almost in the center of the kingdom, in fifty-two degrees twenty-one minutes north latitude, and twenty-one degrees ten minutes east longitude from London. It is surrounded with a moat and double wall, and has a stately castle. Here are several elegant stone-buildings and palaces, a great number of beautiful churches and convents, an hospital, an arsenal, and a statue of king Sigismund III. erected to his memory by his son Uladislaus IV. The valuable library of count Zalusk, which was opened in 1746, said to contain above two hundred thousand volumes, is both an advantage and an ornament to the city. Some years since an academy for military exercises and a literary society were instituted at Warsaw. When the general diet is assembled, there is such a vast concourse of people, that great numbers of them are obliged to live in tents without the city, where they continue during the session. The provincial assembly, or diet, and a court of judicature are also held here.

King Sigismund III. was the first who made this city the royal residence, and his successors have resided here ever since. In 1655 this city had a Swedish garrison, who brought hither a considerable booty from several parts of Poland; and a great number of military and civil officers, with some ladies of distinction of that nation, resided there. But the Poles laid siege to it in 1656, and, after a vigorous defence, obliged the city to surrender. By the articles of capitulation, the Swedes were per-

mitted to leave the place; but the best part of the plunder they had amassed fell into the hands of the Poles. However, Charles Gustavus approaching with an army to relieve the city, king John Casimir marched against him, and a battle was fought near the suburbs of Praga, which lasted three days; but at last the Poles were obliged to retreat, leaving behind them their artillery and baggage; upon which the Swedes placed a small garrison in the town, and destroyed the fortifications. In 1702, Charles XII. of Sweden made himself master of Warsaw, which happened then to be without a garrison, and fixed his head-quarters at Praga.

In this province is also the city of Ploczko, which stands on an eminence by the Vistula, and affords a very pleasant prospect. It is the see of a bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Gnesna: it is also the residence of a palatine, a castellan, and a starosta. Here are several churches richly ornamented, the principal of which belong to the nuns of St. Mary Magdalen and the Benedictine monks in the castle: the latter is the cathedral, and the revenues of the chapter are almost equal to those of the bishop. The provost, or dean, is lord of the district of Sielun, and sovereign of the nobility who reside there, and is accordingly styled prince of that territory. The jesuits have a college there, and in the castle is a seminary. The provincial court of judicature is held in the city, and its inhabitants carry on a good trade.

Polish Prussia is considered as a district belonging to Great Poland, merely perhaps from its bordering on that part of the Polish dominions: but this province deserves a particular description.

S E C T. X.

Of LITTLE POLAND, including Podlachia, Red Russia, Podolia, Kiow, and Volhinia; containing an Account of the principal Towns, particularly of Cracow, and the famous Salt Mines of Bochnia and Wiliska.

LITTLE Poland, which is also called Upper Poland, properly so called, contains the palatinates of Cracow, Sandomir, and Lublin, and has the following remarkable places:

Cracow, the capital of the whole kingdom, and the fixed head residence of the sovereign, is seated in a fertile country, at the conflux of the Vistula and the Rida-wa, in nineteen degrees thirty minutes east longitude, and the fiftieth degree of north latitude. The city contains a great number of convents and churches, and among the latter that of the Virgin Mary, which is the principal. On the west side of it is a suburb with handsome gardens, and near it is the king's palace, which has the advantage of elegant gardens inclosed with a wall. On the south side of it is the royal castle, seated on a high rock, near the Vistula. This large structure is defended by walls, towers, and bastions, and has the appearance of a town; it including the king's palace, the cathedral, and two other churches, with several dwelling-houses. The cathedral is dedicated to St. Stanislaus, formerly bishop of this see, whom Boleslaus II. killed at the altar with his own hands, because that bishop's admonitions were grown insupportable to him. St. Stanislaus's remains are inclosed in a silver shrine, and masses are continually performed day and night in this church. In the treasury of the cathedral, among other things of great value, are the regalia, on which account it is under the care of the treasurer of the kingdom. Here the kings of Poland are always crowned, and their remains interred. The annual revenue of the bishopric of Cracow amounts to forty thousand dollars. The chapter consists of thirty-six canons, besides other priests, whose revenues are also very considerable.

Contiguous to the castle is the suburb of Stradomo, which includes several churches, convents, and hospitals; and from thence a bridge over the Vistula leads to the town of Cazimierz, which may be considered as the second division of the city of Cracow: it lies to the east of the latter, was built by Casimir the Great, and is inclosed with a wall. The chief edifice in this part of the city

city is the university, which consists of eleven colleges, to which are subordinate fourteen grammar-schools, dispersed in several parts of the city. The Jews-town joins to Cazimierz. To the north of the city lies the suburb of Kleparz, or Klepardia, which has no walls, but contains several churches, particularly that of St. Florian, which is a very stately edifice, and the bishop's palace. The city of Cracow is large, and was formerly populous and flourishing; but by the removal of the court, and the many calamities it sustained in both the Swedish wars, has much declined. The citizens have this particular privilege, that no appeal lies from the city council, but to the king only; and his majesty can judge no causes relating either to the city or its suburbs in any other place but in Cracow. The palatine of this city has the power of choosing the council, but not of displacing any member when elected. The castellan of this city has hardly any thing in common with the other castellans; however, he has the same name and appointments, and by his post is entirely exempt from serving any other offices, except his being obliged to appear in council. This city has often been consumed by fire, and in 1707 and 1708 was visited by the pestilence, which swept away several thousands of the inhabitants. In 1655 it was besieged and taken by the Swedes; but in 1657 they were obliged to restore it to the Poles.

Bosnia is a town famous for its salt mines, which were first discovered in 1251, when this place was only a village. The small river Raab runs near this town, which is surrounded, with eminences. The salt mine is in a slip of land of seven hundred and fifty feet in breadth from north to south, about ten thousand in length from east to west, and its greatest depth is a thousand two hundred feet from the surface. The salt lies in veins, and is something finer than that of Wiliska, especially at a certain depth. It is cut in small pieces, and put up in casks. The number of labourers in this mine is about two or three hundred. Alabaster and large pieces of black wood have been found in this mine incrustated with salt, and every part of it is dry.

Wiliska is a small town, only famous for its mines, and is seated in a valley about five miles from Cracow. The town is entirely undermined, and the cavities extend for a considerable distance round it. The length of the mine from east to west is six thousand feet, its breadth from north to south is two thousand, and its greatest depth eight hundred; but the veins of salt are not limited to this extent, for the depth and length of them from east to west are yet unknown, and only the breadth has been hitherto determined. There are at present ten shafts, and within the whole salt mine there is not so much as one spring. Here a stranger is surprized on his descending to the bottom to find a kind of subterraneous common-wealth, consisting of a great many families, that have their peculiar laws and polity, and even public roads and carriages; horses being employed to draw the salt to the mouths of the mine, where it is taken up by engines. These horses when once they are down never more see the light of the sun, and many of the people seem buried alive in this strange abyss; some being born there and never stirring out, though others have frequent opportunities of breathing the fresh air of the fields, and enjoying the light of the sun. The subterraneous passages or galleries are very spacious, and in many of them chapels are hewn out of the rock-salt, and in these are set up crucifixes and the images of saints, before which a light is kept constantly burning. The places where the salt is hewn out, and the empty cavities whence it has been formerly taken, are called chambers; and some of these are so spacious, that a large church might be inclosed in one of them. Several of these chambers are made use of as warehouses for the salt casks, or barns for holding the fodder for the horses, and others serve for stables, in which stand twenty or thirty horses. In some chambers, where the water has formerly stagnated, the bottoms and sides are covered with very thick incrustations of some thousands of salt crystals, one upon another, many of them weighing half a pound or more; and when any candles happen to be brought, the numerous rays of light reflected by these crystals emit a surprising lustre.

In some parts of the mine huge columns of salt are left standing to support the rock. The number of miners employed are between four and five hundred, but all the men together who work amount to about seven hundred.

The salt lies near the surface in large shapeless masses, out of which blocks of sixty, eighty, or a hundred square feet may be hewn; but at a considerable depth it is found in smaller lumps. About six hundred thousand quintals of salt are annually dug out of these mines. The worst and cheapest is called green salt, from its greenish colour caused by an heterogeneous mixture of a greyish mineral, or clay, and entirely consists of salt crystals of different dimensions. A cask of this salt, which generally contains six quintals, sells for about twenty-two Polish guilders, each of one shilling and two-pence value; but a quintal of that in large masses or blocks is worth thirty-two or thirty-three florins, each florin worth about six-pence halfpenny. A finer sort of salt is sold for twenty-four florins per cask, and in large blocks at four florins the quintal. The third species of salt dug out of these mines is *sal gemmæ*, or crystal salt, which is found in small pieces interspersed in the rock; and when detached from it, breaks into cubes or rectangular prisms. This is usually sold unprepared. The colour of the salt stone is a dark grey mixed with yellow.

These salt mines have always made a part of the king's board revenues as they are termed, and are generally farmed; but sometimes the king has kept them in his own hands, and appointed proper officers for the management of them. The office of mine-master at Wiliska is hereditary, and a considerable salary arising from them is annexed to it.

The next town we shall mention is Sandomir, or Sandomir, the capital of a palatinate of the same name. This town is seated on an eminence near the influx of the river San into the Vistula; and its delightful situation rendered it the favourite residence of Casimir the Great, and other kings of Poland. This city is well fortified both by art and nature, and has a college of Jesuits and other orders, with a rich foundation called Collegium Canonicorum. A provincial court of justice is also held here. In the year 1259 the Tartars and Russians committed terrible ravages in this city, and put the inhabitants to the sword. In 1656 the castle, which stands on a steep rock, was blown up by the Swedes.

The next city we shall mention is Lublin, in the palatinate of the same name, surrounded by a wall and ditch; but though it is not large, it is a place of good trade. It has a castle built on a high rock, and stands in a very pleasant and fertile country. It has several churches and convents, a college of Jesuits, and a great number of Jews live in the suburbs; they have there a very spacious synagogue. In this city are held three annual fairs, each of which lasts a month, and these are frequented by a multitude of German, Greek, Armenian, Russian, Turkish, and Arabian traders and merchants. The chief tribunal for Little Poland is held in this city, besides the provincial diet and a court of judicature. In 1240 this city was set on fire by the Tartars, after which it continued for a long time in the possession of the Russians. It also suffered much by fire in 1447 and 1606, and in 1656 was reduced to ashes by the Swedes.

We shall now give a concise account of the countries dependant on Little Poland, and shall begin with Podlachia, or the palatinate of Bielsk, which is bounded on the north by Prussia and Lithuania; on the east by Lithuania; on the south by the palatinate of Lublin, in Little Poland; and on the west by that of Masovia, extending about eighty-eight miles in length, and thirty in breadth. This province was formerly the occasion of many disputes and quarrels between the Poles and Lithuanians. The most remarkable places it contains are,

Bielsk, a large city on the river Biala, situated in latitude fifty-three degrees four minutes. Not only the town but the castle and other fortifications are built with wood: it is, however, a place of great trade, which is carried on by the Jews.

Bialystoc, a city divided into the Old and New Town; in the latter of which is count Braniki's fine seat and gardens, which are much admired, and from their elegance

have been termed the Versailles of Poland. The greatest part of the city was destroyed by fire in 1753.

Tykoczin, a considerable town on the river Narew, and defended by a castle situated amidst inaccessible morasses. Here is held a court of judicature, and in this town Augustus II. instituted the order of the White Eagle, in the year 1705, which he conferred as a reward of courage and loyalty.

The last place we shall mention in this province is Augustow, a beautiful town, seated on a lake, and thus called from Sigismund Augustus, by whom it was founded.

Little or Red Russia, including Podolia, Polish Kiovia, and Volhinia, is bounded on the north by Lithuania; on the east by the river Nieper; on the south by Moldavia, Transylvania, and the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Hungary; and on the west by Little Poland. The country is mountainous, but watered with abundance of rivers, which render it fertile in corn.

Red Russia Proper consists of the three palatinates Chelm, Belz, and Lemberg, the most remarkable places of which are,

Lemberg, called in Latin Leopoldis, and in Polish Lwow, is the capital of the palatinate of the same name, and is a large opulent city, situated in latitude fifty degrees thirty-two minutes, and in the fortieth degree east longitude from London. It is pretty well fortified in the Polish manner, that is, only with timber; and has two castles, one within and the other without the walls: the latter stands on a high hill, and the Carmelite monastery, which is fortified, may serve as a citadel to the castle. The city lies low on the banks of the river Peltew, encompassed with hills and mountains that command the town. Lemberg is not only the see of a Popish archbishop, but of a Russian and Armenian bishop.

Here is a magnificent cathedral, and several other churches, among which is a Russian and an Armenian church. The city has also some rich convents, and one belonging to the Dominicans which is said not to have its equal in Poland. There is likewise a college of Jesuits, a gymnasium, or seminary, an arsenal, a public granary, and two Jewish schools. A provincial diet and a court of judicature are also held in this city. The inhabitants are a mixture of several nations, but no protestants are tolerated amongst them.

Jaroslaw is a handsome town seated on the river San, and is defended by a castle; it carries on a good trade, and within the town is a college of Jesuits, and without it another foundation belonging to the same order.

Podolia, which is dependant on Red Russia, is a very fertile country; but has in all ages been exposed to the inroads of barbarous nations, who live on plunder, and have often ravaged it in a most cruel manner. It abounds with a fine breed of horses and horned cattle. The inhabitants were formerly governed by their own dukes or sovereigns, and are of a war-like disposition. Podolia consists of two palatinates, that of Podolia and Braclaw. The principal town in this country is,

Kaminiec Podolski, the capital of the palatinate of Podolia, which is situated in forty-eight degrees fifty-eight minutes north latitude. It has a castle built on a rock, and owes its strength more to nature than to art; however, it is esteemed the best fortification in Poland. Here is also a college of Jesuits; and the city is the see of a Popish and Armenian bishop. In 1651 the Cossacs laid siege to the castle, but without success; it was, however taken by the Turks in 1672, who held it till the peace of Carlowitz.

Of the palatinate of Kiovia, or Kiow, which forms a part of the Ukraine, and is inhabited by the Cossacs, we have already given an account in treating of Russia, which has all that part of this country that lies on the other side of the Nieper; so that Polish Kiovia includes only two districts, in which are several small towns scarce worthy of notice.

We now come to Volhinia, the last province dependant on Red Russia, a country so fertile, as to supply the inhabitants with a great deal more grain than they are able to consume. Rosemary and asparagus grow wild in the woods, and can hardly be distinguished from those cultivated in the gardens. Volhinia was annexed

to Poland in 1569, and in 1618, the country was ravaged by the Tartars, who besides a great booty, carried thirty thousand persons out of the country to be sold as slaves. This province contains two districts and several towns, among which are the following.

Lucko or Luceorien, the capital of Volhinia, which is seated on the river Ster, in fifty degrees fifty minutes north latitude, one hundred and seventy-five miles to the south-east of Warsaw. It has a castle, in which the bishop of Volhinia resides, and it is also the residence of a Russian bishop. The Jesuits have a college here, and it has a provincial diet, and a court of judicature; but in 1752, the greatest part of the city was destroyed by fire.

Olika, a handsome town and castle belonging to the Radzivil family, and the capital of a duchy. A school and seminary are founded in this town.

Sokal, a town and fortress on the river Bug, remarkable for a celebrated image of the virgin Mary, for the greater security of which, the Bernardine monks have built a fine church and convent, with suitable fortifications, on an island in the river Bug.

SECT. XI.

Of LITHUANIA, including Lithuania Proper, Lithuanian Russia, and the Livonian Palatinate, with the most remarkable Places in each.

Lithuania, called by the natives Litwa, is bounded on the north by Courland and Russia, on the east by Russia, on the south by Volhinia, and on the west by Little Poland, Podlachia, and the kingdom of Prussia. It was anciently very woody, and the greatest part of it lies uncultivated; but it is now greatly improved, by cutting down the woods, and the encouragement given to agriculture. Great quantities of pot-ash and wood-ashes are made here, and the country produces a considerable quantity of buck-wheat, and other corn. It has also great plenty of honey, with which mead and other palatable liquors are made. The meadows and pastures are very fertile, and afford nourishment to numerous flocks and herds, and the sheep yield fleeces of very fine wool. In the forests are bears, wolves, wild boars, buffaloes, deer, and prodigious flights of woodcocks. Here are also several lakes, in which are profitable fisheries. But notwithstanding the fertility of the soil, agriculture is not yet sufficiently encouraged; for some of the finest spots of land in the country still lie waste, and the luxuriant pastures in the meadows are neglected till the grass rots on the ground: for want of care the woods are frequently consumed by accidental fires. Provisions in general are extremely cheap; but this is the less surprising, where money itself is dear, and so scarce, that ten per cent is the common interest.

All the common people, except the burghers of the royal towns and the Germans, are vassals; but the nobility, who are very numerous, are for the most part indigent, and those who are poor serve the wealthy as stewards, treasurers, bailiffs, and valets. The noble families in better circumstances, endeavour to mend their fortunes by farming a large estate. There is scarce a single nobleman in tolerable circumstances in Lithuania without a title, of which they are all extremely fond, and these titles descend to their children. The principal nobility have estates equal to the revenues of some princes, and generally retain some hundreds of the poor nobility in their service. They are likewise invested with the highest posts in the kingdom; but live in such pomp and splendor, and with so little oeconomy, that their expences generally exceed their income.

Popery is the established religion of Lithuania; but there are also many Lutherans, Calvinists, Socinians, Jews, and Turks; but the Greeks are on a much better footing than any other of the dissenters. Though this country is so closely connected with Poland, it still retains its own peculiar laws, offices, and troops.

In a diet held at Lublin in 1569, the Poles and Lithuanians agreed, that the great duchy of Lithuania, and the kingdom of Poland should for the future be so united,

united, as to form but one state under one prince; that the sovereign should be elected in Poland by both nations; that the two nations should have a senate or council, and a house of provincial representatives in common; that the coin in the kingdom and dutchy should be of the same value, and that they should be equally concerned in treaties and alliances.

Lithuania is at present divided into nine palatinates, the two first of which constitute Proper Lithuania, and the others Lithuanian Russia, which is divided into White Russia, Black Russia, and Polesia. Besides these palatinates, Lithuania also includes the principality of Samogitia, and the dutchy of Courland, which is a fief of Poland.

Lithuania, properly so called, includes the palatinates of Wilna and Trock, the principal places of which are,

Wilna, the capital of Lithuania, stands on the river Wilia, near the influx of the Wilika, in fifty-four degrees thirty-two minutes north latitude, and is situated in a mountainous country. It is built on several little eminences, and has two considerable suburbs. In an old ruinous palace is the arsenal, and the hall where the court of justice is held, and opposite to it is a magnificent church that belongs to the castle. This church is very rich, and is also remarkable for the elegant marble chapel of St. Casimir, whose silver shrine is said to weigh thirty quintals. There are upwards of forty churches in this city, among which are one Lutheran and one Calvinist church, a Jewish synagogue, a Tartarian and a Greek church; but all the rest belong to the catholics.

Wilna twice suffered great devastations from the Russians and from fire; particularly in 1748, it was destroyed by a dreadful conflagration, when thirteen churches, the Jewish synagogue, twenty-five palaces, four hundred sixty-nine stone edifices, consisting of private houses, hospitals, inns, baths and convents, with a hundred and forty-six tradesmen's shops and dispensaries, besides a great number of granaries and warehouses, were consumed. The next year another fire happened by lightning, which burnt six churches, the council-house, eight palaces, and two hundred seventy-seven stone buildings. The chapel of St. Casimir was also burnt, and the loss sustained by the destruction of this edifice alone with its treasure, amounted to an immense sum. The churches have been since rebuilt at a very great expence, and some of them in a more elegant manner than before; but the city has not recovered its former grandeur.

This city is a bishop's see, and has an university, and a high court of judicature, besides a provincial diet.

Grodno, a large and handsome city, and next to Wilna, the best in Lithuania, is situated in fifty-three degrees thirty-eight minutes latitude, and in twenty-three degrees fifty-two minutes east longitude. It stands on the river Niemen, partly on an eminence, and partly on a level, and is encompassed with hills. The old castle, which is surrounded with a deep moat, is fallen to decay, so that no more than one wing of it is inhabited. The new palace is a large, regular, and beautiful structure, consisting of two stories: the great hall, that for the senate and the chapel, are its finest apartments; and in the court stands the chancery or state office, which is an elegant structure. In the city are nine popish and two Greek churches, and also a synagogue for the Jews, which is built of stone. The Jesuits college has a splendid church, and that belonging to the Carmelite nuns is likewise very magnificent. The palace of prince Radzivil is a very large structure, and that of the Sapiehan family is a superb edifice: both of them stand in the market-place, which, together with the castle-street, and the area before the palace, are clean and well paved; but the other streets are generally dirty. In 1673, it was enacted that for the future, every third general diet should be held here, and during the session, the concourse of people has been so great, that four apartments with the stables adjoining to them, have been let for two hundred and sixty ducats a month. A provincial diet, and a court of judicature, are also held in this city.

In treating of Lithuanian Russia, we shall begin with the province of Polesia, which contains several large mo-

raffes, that resemble so many extensive lakes. The principal towns in this palatinate are,

Brzesk, which is a strong, but not a very large town, situated on the river Bug, and has a castle built on a rock, near it is a royal palace with a fine garden. In this town is a famous synagogue, to which the Jews resort from all the countries of Europe, both on account of study and preferment among their own people. A provincial diet is held in this town, and a Greek bishop resides here.

Pinsk is a large, handsome trading town on the river Pina, situated in the midst of extensive morasses, and inhabited not only by the Jews, who have a school here, but also by people of many other religions, especially by the Greeks, who have a bishop here. The leather dressed in this town, after the Russian manner, is esteemed the best in the whole kingdom. A provincial diet is held here.

Under Lithuanian Russia is included Black Russia, called by the Poles Rus Czarna, which includes the palatinate of Novogrodec, and contains four districts, the principal place of which is,

Novogrodec, a town situated on a hill, in which are several Popish and Russian convents, with a college of Jesuits. It has a provincial diet, and an inferior court of judicature; and an high tribunal, after the model of that of Wilna, is held alternately here, and at Minsk, which continues sitting five months every year.

In White Russia, called by the Poles Rus Biala, are four palatinates, the most considerable places in which are,

Minsk, which is seated on the river Swislocz, in the palatinate of Minsk, and has two castles. A provincial diet is held here, besides a high tribunal once in two years. This town was taken by the Russians in 1656.

Mohilow, in the palatinate of Mscislaw, is a handsome commercial town on the river Nieper, and the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade with the Russians. In 1654 Mohilow was taken by the Russians; and tho' it was invested by the Poles in 1660, they were obliged to raise the siege. It was, however, taken from the Russians in 1662 by the inhabitants, who sent off part of the garrison by stratagem, and then made the rest prisoners of war.

Poloc, a fortified town on the river Dzwina, and in the palatinate of Poloc. It has two strong castles, and carries on a considerable trade. In this town the Jesuits have a college, and the Greeks an academy for the study of philosophy. A popish Greek bishop also resides here. In this town are likewise held a provincial diet and a court of judicature. In 1563 Poloc was taken by the Russians, but in 1579 was retaken by the Poles.

We now come to the Livonian Palatinate, called by the Poles Woiewodztwo Inflantkie. This country was a part of Livonia, and is also termed the palatinate of Wend. The Poles, on their delivering up Livonia to Sweden, by the treaty of Oliva, reserved this part, which has a bishop, a palatine, and a castellan, and sends six deputies to the general diet. It has also five or six small towns.

S E C T. XII.

Of SAMOGITIA.

Its Situation, Extent, Soil, and Produce. Its History, and the Manners of the present Inhabitants.

SAMOGITIA called by the Poles Zmuyds, or Xiestwo Zmudskie, is bounded on the north by Courland, on the east by Lithuania, on the south by Regal Prussia, and on the west by the Baltic sea, it being about a hundred and seventy-five miles in length, and about a hundred and twenty-five in breadth; but this is only to be understood of its longest and broadest part, the two extremities being much contracted.

Great part of the country has a marshy soil, and abounds with rivers and lakes, which at some seasons overflow the land. Here are also inaccessible mountains; the country is much over-run with woods, in which the inhabitants find great quantities of honey; for it is said that almost every tree has a swarm of bees; and their

wax is whiter and purer than either that of Lithuania or Ruffia. We are told, that though the arable land is very stiff, the inhabitants use none but wooden plough-shares; because one of their starostas, introducing iron shares, and the season afterwards proving less kindly than usual, they had the weakness to attribute the cause solely to this change; upon which he was forced to let them return to the use of the wooden plough-shares, for fear the prohibition should cause an insurrection. Samogitia abounds with cattle, and has a breed of horses, which, though small, are sprightly, swift, and hardy.

This country antiently belonged to Lithuania; but in the year 1404, was ceded to the knights of the Teutonic order: about four years after, it was taken from them by Uladisslaus Jagello, king of Poland; after whose death it returned again to them; but in 1525, when Albert of Brandenburg was made hereditary duke of Prussia, it returned to the crown of Poland. The Christian religion had been introduced for some time, and in 1413, it was made a bishop's see.

The peasants of this country differ but little from those of Lithuania; but are not so laborious, and consequently enjoy less plenty. Many of them, instead of bread, eat turneps, which grow wild, and are of a prodigious size. They are robust, bold, and nimble; and it is not uncommon for people to live a hundred or a hundred and twenty years of age.

The peasants live in cottages, for the most part near lakes and rivers, and these are covered with thatch or boards. They are low, and of an oblong square, with a hearth in the middle; their furniture is but mean, and they have only one room for themselves and their cattle. Those in good circumstances drink out of horn cups, and eat out of wooden platters. However, most of the inhabitants differ but little in their manners, habit, or language, from the Lithuanians.

There are about twenty-eight towns in Samogitia; but all of them are small and ill built; among these is Mednicki, where the bishop of Samogitia resides, and Rosienie, where the provincial diet and a court of judicature are held.

S E C T. XIII.

Of C O U R L A N D.

Of its Situation and Extent, Soil, Produce, and Rivers. Of the Inhabitants of Courland, and the Privileges of the Nobility. A general History of Courland. Its Arms, Officers of State, and Courts of Judicature. The Division of the Country, and a Description of the principal Towns in each.

THE dutchy of Courland, which is dependant and under the protection of Poland, is bounded on the west by the Baltic, on the north by the gulph of Riga and Livonia, towards the east by Lithuania Proper, and by Samogitia towards the south. It extends fifty German miles in length, and in some places twenty, and in others hardly ten German miles in breadth; but towards the south-west it gradually terminates in a cape or point of land.

The soil, except in a few districts, is heavy, fat, and clayey, and the country abounds in woods and swamps: hence the roads of Courland are remarkably bad. In spring and autumn the meadows and low grounds are under water; but this only serves to improve the land. Some skilful farmers have drained several of the fenny parts of Courland, and converted them into what they call staungens; that is, land which is sown three years successively with summer seed, and then left uncultivated for the like term. Courland, however, contains good arable land and fine pastures, and produces great quantities of excellent flax. Here is also plenty of sea-fish, and the woods abound with elks, bears, and wolves. Courland has also its mines of iron ore and other minerals, its quarries of stone, chalk, and stucco, and its mineral springs. Amber is likewise found on the coast.

The principal rivers in this country are the Windau, which rises in Samogitia, and discharges itself into the Baltic near the town of Windau. The Aa, which has

also its source in Samogitia, and empties itself into the gulph of Riga. The small rivers are the Anger, the Abau, the Berse, the Bartau, the Mussa, &c.

The inhabitants of Courland consist of Germans and Lettonians; but the latter are not only the tenants and vassals of the former, but in a manner their slaves. Hence there are two languages usually spoken in Courland, the German and the Lettonian.

The reformation, or Lutheran religion, took place in this dutchy so early as the year 1522, and in 1532 Courland joined with Riga in a particular religious league; so that when this country fell under the dominion of Poland, all the inhabitants were Lutherans, and they had no papists amongst them. But the misunderstandings which afterwards happened between the dukes and nobles of Courland occasioned several orders to be issued by the court of Poland, and judiciary commissions to be deputed from thence, by which means a fatal gap was opened, by which popery entered. The Roman catholics were at first only permitted to have churches in this country; but they soon raised themselves to a level with the Lutherans. In 1717 and 1727 they received some additional privileges, and several of the nobility who had embraced the doctrines of popery exerting their zeal, in order to introduce it into the churches within their jurisdictions, greatly contributed to its spreading over the country. The marriages of the dukes of Courland with princesses who were Calvinists, also introduced that religion into the dutchy; but the Calvinists are excluded from all public employments.

The nobility of Courland enjoy great privileges, and the old nobility are carefully distinguished from the new; and by an antient law, which has been frequently confirmed, the former alone are capable of filling posts of honour. The noblemen of Courland generally embrace a military life. They enjoy in Poland the same privileges as the natives, and a Polish nobleman has the same indulgence in Courland. However, neither of them enjoy that privilege till they are settled in those countries; and indeed a Courlandish nobleman at present seldom holds any eminent post in Poland, except those of the law, unless he be a papist. The nobility of Courland have no seat in the general diet of Poland.

A noble Courlander is proprietor of all the mines discovered in his estate: he is not to be taken into custody, or his effects confiscated, till he has been previously summoned and legally convicted before a court of judicature: his house is an asylum, from which no person can forcibly be taken: his tenants, vassals, and domestics are exempted from paying any toll, custom, or excise; and no soldiers are to be quartered on the estate of a Courlander. No new created nobleman is qualified to hold a post of honour, or to be a magistrate, till the third generation; nor can he be sent as an envoy, unless he has distinguished himself in the service of his country, or is recommended by some of the antient noble families.

The nobility, among other privileges, have an unlimited power over their vassals, which extends even to life and death; but before they can punish a vassal with death, they are obliged to hold a regular court, under the penalty of paying a hundred florins; each florin equal to fourteen-pence sterling. Hence the respect paid by the peasants to their lords rises almost to adoration, and whatever these require from them they are obliged to give up, and immediately obey their commands without murmuring. The nobility are all on a level, and have, in conjunction with the duke, the patronage of the parish churches; the duke being patron of some, and the nobility of the others. In war-time they appear on horseback, according to the service they owe the duke as his vassal: but when such a general military appearance is required, the duke is obliged to march at their head. They indeed choose their own colonels and other officers; but these are all under the duke's command. They are, however, not obliged to march beyond the frontiers of Courland, except the duke voluntarily agrees to pass beyond those boundaries.

Courland antiently belonged to Livonia, and both were conquered by the knights of the Teutonic order, who kept them till the year 1561, about which time the

Russians

Russians invaded the country; but the order being then much declined from its former power and greatness, Gothard Ketler, the last grand master, gave up Livonia to the king of Poland, as great duke of Lithuania; and, in return, Courland and Semigallia were erected into a temporal dutchy, and Ketler was invested with it as an hereditary fief.

In the beginning of the eighteenth century Courland was harrassed both by the Swedes and the Russians; but in 1710 Frederic William, the sixth duke, married Anne a princess of Russia, who, after his decease, remained in possession of the sovereignty, under the protection of her uncle the czar Peter I. though Ferdinand, brother to the late duke's father, to whom the succession belonged, was still living.

Ferdinand and the nobility were at variance, less on account of his changing his religion, than for his generally living out of the dutchy, and his being desirous of holding the reins of sovereignty, though absent. This put the Polish state on contriving the means of incorporating Courland with the kingdom of Poland, on the demise of duke Ferdinand, and of dividing it into palatinates. This project filled the noble Courlanders with such apprehensions for their religion and liberties, that, notwithstanding a royal inhibition was issued out, they held an extraordinary diet at Mittau in June, 1726, in which the succession, on the decease of Ferdinand, was settled on count Maurice of Saxony, as natural son to the king of Poland, and his male heirs. This election was opposed both by duke Ferdinand and the Poles, who voted it null and void, and by a new law confirmed the intended union of this country with Poland. The patriots of Courland strenuously protested against this encroachment on their liberties, and maintained, that the states of the dutchy derived from their ancestors the right of electing their dukes: a right which they had never forfeited. At length the princess Anne Iwanowna ascending the throne of Russia, signified to the court of Poland, that she could never consent to that dutchy being absolutely incorporated with that kingdom, but would protect it in its right to remain as a fief of the republic, under its own dukes. To this Poland at length consented, and in 1736 it was agreed, that on the failure of the Ketler line in duke Ferdinand, the dutchy of Courland should have its own dukes by the free election of the states.

On the decease of Ferdinand in the following year, the states, at the recommendation of the empress of Russia, chose for their duke John Ernest Biron, count of the holy Roman empire, and high chamberlain to her czarish majesty, who in 1739 was invested duke in the person of his envoy, or representative. This prince's dignity was, however, but of short duration; for in 1740, the czarina Anne caused him and his family to be taken into custody, and sent them into exile in 1741; upon which the states of Courland chose for their duke Lewis Ernest, duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttle, brother to the regent of Russia's husband; but this election not being compassed without force, it has not yet taken its proper effect.

Indeed Ernest John is still considered as duke of Courland, notwithstanding his being deprived of the exercise of his power. However, the ducal chair having been declared vacant by the high council, all public instruments are issued out in the name of his Polish majesty, who at present personates the duke, and are signed by the four lords of the regency who have the disposal of public employments. Mean while the court of Russia keeps six thousand men in this country, and also a plenipotentiary, who resides at Mittau; but his only employment is to take care of the revenues, and those lands which the duke had either purchased or redeemed from the nobles to whom they had been mortgaged, alledging, that this was done by the duke's embezzling the money belonging to that crown; and accordingly near a hundred thousand rixdollars are annually paid out of the ducal revenues into the hands of the Russian minister.

The revenues of the duke of Courland are said to be very considerable; for the ducal domains make above a third part of the whole country: if to these be added its convenient situation for a maritime trade, the duke of

Courland, when in the full possession of that office, cannot fail of being very rich. A judgment may be formed of the wealth of this dutchy, if we consider that James duke of Courland was master of forty-four ships of war and seventy-five merchant ships, and endeavoured to settle colonies even in America.

The arms of Courland are, quarterly, the first and fourth argent, a lion gules, crowned or, for Courland; the second and third azure, a demi-elk crowned proper, for Semigallia. In the center is a small escutcheon party per pale, reserved for the particular coat of the ducal family. The arms are within a ducal mantle of purple and ermine, and supported by two lions crowned or, and the whole surmounted with a ducal coronet.

By virtue of a form of government for the dutchies of Courland and Semigallia, drawn up in 1670, by a commission from the king of Poland, the following officers of state are appointed in Courland:

Four high counsellors; viz. a steward, a chancellor, a burgrave, and a marshal.

Two civilians, who are the duke's council. The high council, during the absence, minority, sickness, or death of the duke, administer justice, issue orders, pass decrees, and transact all other state affairs in his name.

Four superior prefects, two for Semigallia, and two for Courland, who administer justice both to the nobles and commonalty within their respective jurisdictions. From these the vacancies in the high council are filled up, and under each of them are two inferior prefects, who upon occasion are promoted by the duke to the office of superior prefects. From the court of the latter appeals lie to the ducal supreme court, where the duke assists in person, together with the high council. This is held twice a year, and from it, in causes amounting to above six hundred florins, an appeal lies to the king of Poland, except in cases of wilful murder, burning of houses, robbery, rapes, or open violence. Ecclesiastical causes are tried by the chancellor, assisted by the superintendant and four provosts. If any disputes happen to rise between the duke and nobility, they are decided only by the king in person.

The administration of justice in the towns belongs either to the magistrate, or the prefect of the district in which the defendant resides, according to the nature of the cause; and the second and last hearing is at the ducal court. Suits relating to debts are heard by officers called executoriales.

Every two years a diet is held at Mittau, to which every parish sends a representative with full powers.

Courland consists of three divisions, Courland Proper, Semigallia, and the district of Pilten. The last has a particular form of government; but the two first are divided into prefectures, and these into parishes. There are here large and small towns, seats, castles, farm-houses, and single houses of accommodation; but no villages. The number of towns, castles, seats, &c. is about nine hundred.

In Courland Proper the most considerable place is,

Libau, which is a ducal city, and a port of good trade on the Baltic. It is situated in fifty-six degrees fifty-four minutes north latitude, and in twenty-one degrees twenty-six minutes east longitude. It is of a middling size, and consists entirely of wooden houses, only one story high; but there is a Lutheran church built in the modern taste, with a flat roof and ballustrade. The papists are allowed a church at Libau, and there is a protestant school. As the harbour wants sufficient depth of water for ships of burthen, they are unloaded in the road; but since duke Ernest John caused it to be cleared in 1737, and prevented a future accumulation of mud and sand by a water-work, it is rendered very commodious for light vessels. Above one hundred and fifty ships annually arrive in this port, in order to load with hemp, linseed, &c. A court of admiralty is also held here, and near the town is a fresh water lake, called the lake of Libau.

The second principal division is that of Semigallia or Semgallen, which includes the prefectures of Mittau and Seelburg, the most considerable places in which are,

Mittau, the capital of Courland, and the residence of the duke, which is situated in fifty-six degrees forty-

four minutes north latitude, and in twenty-three degrees fifty-one minutes east longitude. This town stands on the river Aa, and is very extensive; but within its circuit are many gardens and open places. The houses have for the most part nothing very elegant to attract the eye, and both the walls and moats of the town are decayed. It is, however, pretty well inhabited. It has two Lutheran churches, a beautiful church belonging to the Calvinists, and a popish church. The school, though it is the principal in the whole country, is far from being in a flourishing condition. This city is the seat of the regency and superintendant of both dutchies.

At a small distance from the city stands a palace, begun by the unfortunate duke Ernest John; but only the front of one wing is compleated, and the rest hardly carried up as high as the roof. It is built in a most delightful situation, on the same spot where the old castle stood, and is two stories high. The palace, according to the plan from which it is built, would probably have been one of the most magnificent structures in Europe, had not the building of it been interrupted by the disgrace and exile of its unhappy founder. It is at present a desolate place, and is gradually falling to decay. The cieling and floors of some of the apartments were of most excellent workmanship; but these have been taken away, and the rooms converted into granaries. Under one wing of this building is a handsome vault, in which are deposited the remains of the deceased dukes, most of which lie in coffins of fine pewter curiously decorated; and among the princes lies a peasant in a pewter coffin, on account of his heroic fidelity, in voluntarily suffering himself to be shot instead of duke Ferdinand, by some noblemen who had conspired against that prince's life.

The next division of Courland is that of Pilten, which lies in Courland properly so called, and derives its name from the ancient castle or palace of Pilten, built by Waldemar II. king of Denmark, about the year 1220, when he founded a bishop's see in this country, for the more effectual conversion of its Pagan inhabitants.

This district afterwards successively belonged to the Germans, then again to the king of Denmark, the duke of Courland, and to Poland; and by virtue of the instrument of regency drawn up for this district in the year 1717, the government is lodged in seven Polish senators or counsellors, from whom an appeal lies to the king. The bishop of Samogitia also styles himself bishop of Pilten.

The most remarkable part of this district is the promontory of Domesness, which projects northward into the gulf of Livonia. From this cape a sand-bank runs four German miles farther into the sea, half of which lies under water, and cannot be discerned. To the east of this promontory is an unfathomable abyss, which is never observed to be agitated. For the safety of vessels bound to Livonia, two square beacons have been erected on the coast, near Domesness church, opposite to the sand-bank, and facing each other. One of these is twelve fathoms high, and the other eight; and a large fire is kept burning on them from the first of August to the first of January. When the mariners see these fires appear as one in a direct line, they may conclude that they are clear of the extremity of the sand-bank, and consequently out of danger; but if they see both beacons, they are in danger of running upon it.

The district of Pilten contains seven parishes, but no towns worthy of notice. The inhabitants are chiefly of the Lutheran religion.

S E C T. XIV.

Of POLISH PRUSSIA.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce. Of the Religion and civil Privileges of the People; the Form of the Government. The Divisions of the Country, with an Account of the principal Towns in each, particularly of Dantzic and Thorn.

POLISH or Regal Prussia, which has been added to the general province of Great Poland, is a very different country, inhabited by a different people, who

have their peculiar laws and privileges; and therefore deserves to be separately considered, for the sake of that order and perspicuity which ought ever to accompany works of science.

This country is bounded on the north by part of Pomerania and the Baltic Sea; on the east, by the kingdom of Prussia; on the south, by Great Poland; and on the west, by Great Poland and Pomerania. It is far inferior in extent to the kingdom of Prussia, it being only about sixty miles in length, and fifty-one in its greatest breadth; but in some places the latter does not exceed eighteen miles.

The face of this country is diversified with mountains, woods, and lakes; but in the south part there is little pasture ground, and consequently few cattle. The fisheries are of great advantage to this country, which also yields a vast quantity of honey and wax. The woods abound with wild boars, roe-bucks, and wild fowl, and a good deal of lime is also burnt in some parts of the country.

The most remarkable heaths in Polish Prussia are those of Skal, Masura, Nicholait, and the desert of Johannesberg, which is seven German miles in length, and four in breadth.

It is inhabited partly by Poles, and partly by Germans. The Reformation was introduced here early in the sixteenth century, and in a few years the professors of the Lutheran religion increased so fast, that their number in the principal cities and towns far exceeded that of the Papists, and they had almost as great a superiority in the smaller towns and villages. But succeeding times have introduced considerable alterations. The kings of Poland have, indeed, allowed the inhabitants the free exercise of the Lutheran religion in the cities of Prussia; but there are at present only few towns in which the Lutherans have churches, and in other towns they have been compelled to give them up to the Papists. Besides, the Protestants are continually oppressed, and promises of preferment and other means are too successfully employed, in order to seduce the Prussian nobility from the Lutheran church.

Polish Prussia is a distinct political body or state, that has nothing in common with Poland, except its having the same sovereign, and being connected with that crown by a perpetual alliance. For when the inhabitants put themselves under the protection of king Casimir IV. in 1466, it was expressly stipulated, that the duchy of Prussia should have nothing to do with the republic of Poland; but that the king alone should personally order and determine all matters relating to the former; and for that purpose should come among them, and summon general diets. Hence this state enjoys the same right as Poland and Lithuania, of voting at the election of a king, who after his coronation is obliged to swear, that he will maintain the Prussians in their rights and privileges; and when this is done, they pay homage to the new sovereign.

In matters of a public nature, the king can determine nothing without the concurrence of the states, who are divided into spiritual and temporal members, the latter consisting of nobles and burghers. Of these the senate is at present composed. This council consists, first, of the bishops of Ermland and Culm. The former is the president and chief among the nobility, and is not under any subordination to the archbishop of Gnesna; but holds immediately of the pope. His diocese, in which he has the supreme authority both in civil and ecclesiastical causes, is of very large extent. Its revenues are divided into three parts, one of which belongs to the chapter; but the other two, which are computed at sixty-four thousand dollars, are assigned for the episcopal table. The diocese of the bishop of Culm is not near so extensive, and consequently the revenue is much inferior to that of the bishop of Ermland. The bishop of Culm is a suffragan to the archbishop of Gnesna, and the king absolutely disposes of that bishopric without calling a chapter.

The other members of the council are three palatinates, who are of equal dignity with those of Poland; three castellans, who are not invested with any particular office or employment, but on a general summons

of the nobility, may be looked upon as the lieutenants of the palatinates. Three vice-treasurers, who have only a bare title; but as they are counsellors of state, they take place of the rest of the nobility. Two counsellors from each of the three great cities, Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, and each of these representatives have a vote.

All these state counsellors, according to the laws of the country, ought to be native Prussians; but they have seldom these qualifications. They are nominated by the king of Poland, and take a particular oath at their admission. The bishop of Ermland sits as president in the Prussian diet; but in his absence, his place is supplied by the principal person among the nobility who are present. These members are stiled the two states of the dutchy of Prussia, and royal counsellors: they may likewise be termed the superior states, to distinguish them from the inferior, composed of the lower nobility, and the deputies of the small towns. Formerly king Casimir IV. engaged for himself and successors, not to determine any affair of consequence, without the previous concurrence of the states of Prussia. This was the original of these Prussian diets, which had formerly no connection with those of Poland. But in the year 1569, part of the senate, or council of Prussia, was united with the senate of Poland, and the states of the former were compelled to appear at the general diet of the kingdom. From that time the political constitution of Prussia has been much changed; but it is not entirely interwoven with that of Poland, and still enjoys particular rights and privileges.

At summoning the general Prussian diet, which is alternately held at Marienburg and Graudenz, the king specifies the time of holding the lesser diets, where the representatives of the former are chosen, and receive their instructions. These provincial diets are held in every palatinate, and the happy conclusion of them is a presage of the prosperous issue of the general diet; for if only one of these assemblies rises abruptly, the general diet is seldom expected to assemble. The number of representatives for every palatinate is not fixed, but they have lately been more numerous than formerly. The instructions given them are in the Polish tongue, and during the session of the diet their expences are defrayed.

The Prussians, besides their own general diet, assist at the general diet of Poland; but they agree to the taxes to be imposed on them, only in their own general diet, and not in that of Poland.

The Prussians had formerly their own coin, which is now reduced to the standard of the Polish money. However, the three principal cities of Prussia have still the privilege of coining gold and silver pieces, impressed with the king's head on one side, and their respective arms on the reverse; which, after receiving the royal sanction, pass as the current money of Prussia.

Besides the counsellors of state, already mentioned, there are several other public officers in Prussia, as the treasurer, who is the principal, and the only one that has an annual appointment: the sword-bearer, who has only the bare title: the standard-bearer, who bears the standard of the province, when all the nobility take the field; and seven judges, with their assistants.

With respect to the towns of Prussia, it is worthy of notice that they are divided into the three great cities, Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, and twenty-seven royal towns, besides those that belong to the bishops of Ermland and Culm. An association was formed among these small towns under the government of the knights of the Teutonic order. By this union, which still continues, they are to unite in behalf of their common privileges; to consult their interest as a community in their particular assemblies; and to recommend their common concerns in the general diet of Prussia to the representatives of the great cities. Marienburg, which is the most considerable among these towns, has the directory, and this, with Graudenz, Dirshau, Stargard, and Konitz, are called the plenipotentiary towns; for, besides their own affairs, they are charged with those of all the other towns, which they lay before the directory, and the latter represent them to the deputies of the great cities.

These small towns are at present far from being in a flourishing condition. From the sentences of their magistrates an appeal lies to the starostas, and from the latter to the king.

Polish Prussia consists of four provinces; we shall begin with that of Pomerellia, or Little Pomerania.

Pomerellia was antiently a part of the dutchy of Pomerania; but at last fell under the dominion of Poland. This palatinate contains five circles, and has four provincial judges; the most remarkable places in this province are,

Dantzic, called by the Poles Gdantzk, a celebrated commercial city and fortress, situated on the Vistula, near five miles from the Baltic, in fifty-three degrees thirty-eight minutes north latitude, and in eighteen degrees thirty-five minutes east longitude. The small rivers called the Radaune and the Motlau run through the city; the latter dividing into two channels, which run between the Old and New Town, and afterwards unite again below the city, and, with the Radaune, fall into the Vistula. It is a large, beautiful, and populous city, built after the antient manner of the Hanse-towns. The houses are generally five stories high, which make the streets appear the narrower, especially as the entrance into the houses is by four or five stone steps, and a balcony, which make a projection of ten or twelve feet. These houses are kept clean after the manner of the Dutch, though with less nicety. Many of the streets are planted with chefnut-trees about thirty feet high, which afford an agreeable shelter.

This city has a beautiful harbour, and the inhabitants, who are remarkably civil and obliging to strangers, carry on a considerable trade, especially in corn. The ships belonging to this port are very numerous, and the privileges of this city are of great importance. As it is one of the three great cities, it sends representatives to the Prussian senate or council of state, who have likewise a seat in the general diet of Poland, and vote at the election of a king. The Dantzickers have also the privilege of coining money, gathering amber, &c.

In this city are twelve Lutheran churches, exclusive of those in the house of correction and in the alms-houses, two Calvinistical churches, and one Popish church, with a college of Jesuits. The cathedral, which is a large Lutheran church dedicated to the Virgin Mary, is the most magnificent, and the principal church in Dantzic. Mr. Hanway observes, that this is an antient structure that has not been much changed by the establishment of the protestant religion of this city: for it was agreed by treaties to leave the crucifixes, images, and pictures, as in the times of popery. They shew a very curious piece of painting on wood, of the resurrection, by Van Eyck. It is much admired, particularly for the hands and faces, and is said to be one of the first performances in oil colours; yet is so perfect, and delicate, as to bear the nicest examination. But this church, upon every frivolous pretence, is subject to the impositions of the Popish bishop. The first preacher, or minister of this church, is called senior ministerii, the rest are equal as to dignity, and two of them must always be doctors in divinity. There is a Lutheran academy in the Grey Friars convent, in which are seven professors and one teacher of the Polish language. In this convent is also the city library.

The other public buildings are the exchange, the council-houses in the Old and New Town, the public weigh-house, the arsenal, which contains a good collection of arms, but many of them are old and useless; they have a hundred and fifty large brass cannon, some of which are said to weigh fifteen thousand pounds. They have also a fine mill erected on the river Radune, which has eighteen wheels, is the largest in all the city, and is said to have brought in a ducat every hour to the proprietors.

This city was antiently the principal of the Hanse-towns, it being one of the first that entered into the Hanseatic association. The German is almost the only language spoken here, the Polish being little used by the inhabitants.

This city has its own garrison, and the fortifications make a good appearance, especially towards the south

and

and west; those parts of the town being surrounded with eminences, some of which rise higher than the towers of the city.

According to the bills of mortality eighteen hundred and forty-six persons died in this city in 1752. In the same year twelve hundred and eighty-eight Polish vessels, small and great, from the Vistula, and a thousand and fourteen ships from the sea, arrived in this port; and fifty-eight thousand and sixty bushels of corn were brought into this city for exportation. Indeed the most considerable branch of the trade of Dantzic is that of corn, which is brought by the Polanders, in large barks of about fifty tons burthen, down the Vistula. In plentiful years these barks annually amount to about sixteen hundred. As these cargoes are often exposed to the weather, it is customary to spread their sails on the banks of the river, and to dry their corn upon them. They also export bees-wax to the annual amount of near a thousand schippounds; besides narrow linens, sackings, pot-ash, pearl-ash, pipe-staves, and oak-plank.

It appears from antient records, that Dantzic was a large commercial city so early as the year 997. The New Town was founded by the Teutonic knights in the year 1311, and was first encompassed with a wall and moat in 1343. Dantzic shook off the yoke of those knights in 1454, and the inhabitants, upon certain conditions, submitted to Casimir, king of Poland, who, among other privileges, granted them the right of coining their own money. Afterwards they refused to do homage to Stephen, king of Poland, without the previous confirmation of their rights and privileges; upon which the city was put under the ban, and besieged by that prince; but the affair was accommodated, and, on their publicly acknowledging their error, and paying a large fine, the king received them into favour, confirmed their privileges, and granted them the free exercise of the Lutheran religion. In 1734, Stanislaus, king of Poland, took refuge here, which occasioned a hot siege and bombardment from the Russians and Saxons; but Stanislaus making his escape, Dantzic submitted to Augustus III. as its rightful sovereign.

The city is in the diocese of Cujavia, and the inhabitants pay the popish bishop all the regard consistent with the difference of their religion, and the privilege and immunities of the city. Without the walls of Dantzic lie the following places within its jurisdiction.

The Dantziger Werder, or island, which is surrounded by the Vistula, the Motlau, and the morasses caused by these rivers, and contains about fourteen hundred hides of land, and about thirty-three villages. It is entirely under the government of the magistrates of Dantzic; and the senior burgomaster, and two of the senators, are superintendants of it. There are twelve church-villages in this island, and among them is one Calvinist church and two chapels.

The Frische Nehrung is a long narrow slip of land, extending between the sea and the harbour. It contains five villages that have churches; but the most remarkable place on this island is a fort called Munde, which is very strong, and has a church and a commodious harbour. The Hohe, on which are eight church villages; and the little town of Hela, likewise belongs to Dantzic, and is on a point of land which projects with a curve into the Baltic, forming the Pantzkerwic-bay, where ships usually cast anchor.

About a German mile from Dantzic is Oliva, a celebrated convent, that has been frequently consumed by fire. It is at present inhabited by about fifty Cistercian monks. The inside of the church is extremely splendid, particularly the high altar and the pulpit, which are finely gilt and extremely beautiful. It has forty altars, all embellished with the richest ornaments, and several chapels, among which that of the blessed Virgin is the most magnificent. The remains of the founder of the monastery, and his sons, are deposited under a marble tomb-stone in the choir, and the walls are ornamented with the statues of the principal benefactors to this religious house. Near the entrance of the church is a marble table in the wall, in commemoration of the treaty of Oliva concluded in this monastery between the Poles

and Swedes in 1660. The dispensary belonging to the convent is elegant and well contrived. This monastery has the privilege of gathering amber on the sea coast. Round this structure a pretty village has been gradually built. There are several other small towns in the district belonging to Dantzic.

The next province of Polish Prussia is that of Culmerland, or the palatinate of Culm. This province has a palatine, who is the first of those belonging to Prussia, a castellan, a vice-treasurer, a sword-bearer, a judge, and eight starosties. The principal places in this palatinate are,

Culm, or Chelmino, the capital of the province, which stands on an eminence on the banks of the Vistula, in fifty-three degrees twenty minutes north latitude, and in nineteen degrees twenty minutes east longitude. This city was founded in 1239, and bequeathed by one of the dukes of Masovia, to the knights of the Teutonic order. The inhabitants afterwards withdrew themselves from their obedience, and submitted to Poland. While the Teutonic knights had the sovereignty of Culm, the high tribunal of Prussia was held in this city, and the Culmean law became in such reputation, that there were few places in Prussia or Masovia, where it was not received. The bishopric of Culm is the most antient see in Polish Prussia, and the college or chapter consists of only four canons, who are chosen by the bishop, and the rest of the chapter. Culm is a large city, though but thinly inhabited, and was formerly one of the Hanse towns. It is at present subject to the bishop.

Thorn, the chief of the three great cities of Polish Prussia, stands on the Vistula, seventy-two miles south of Dantzic, in fifty-two degrees forty-six minutes north latitude, and in nineteen degrees fifteen minutes east longitude. This city was founded by Herman Balck, first grand master of the Teutonic order, who in 1231, built the castle of Thorn, and in the following year laid the foundation of the town; but in 1235, the building of it was discontinued, on account of its inconvenient situation, and the city was built about four miles and a half up the river, where the city now stands. It is supposed to have been called Thorn, because the knights, by building it, opened to themselves a thor, or door, into Russia. Thus the seal of the city presents a gate thrown open. Thorn soon after its being built became distinguished above the other towns of Prussia by its enjoying several valuable privileges; but when the Teutonic knights made a very ill use of their power throughout all Prussia, Thorn was the first city that formed the noble scheme of shaking off their oppressive yoke. The inhabitants having concerted an agreement with the other towns in the year 1454, made themselves masters of the castle, and demolished it; and having expelled the Teutonic knights by force of arms, the confederates put themselves under the protection of Casimir the Great, king of Poland; but their rights, privileges, and immunities were to remain entire. They were to honour his Polish majesty as their sovereign; but without any farther connection with Poland than a close harmony and alliance, by which they engaged to have the same allies and enemies, to assist each other on all occasions, and reciprocally to promote the welfare and prosperity of both parties.

The privileges granted to these three cities in common were as follows: they were declared free, and were to be governed by their own magistrates, consisting of the council, the chief persons of which are the burgrave and president, the judges, and the representatives of the burghers. The members of the council were to be stiled noble; they were allowed to hold a supreme court of judicature, and in criminal cases to punish capitally even those who were not inhabitants of the city if they were taken in the fact; to have their own garrison; to coin money, and to have their law-suits decided only in Prussia. They were to pay no other customs in Poland but those usually demanded at the first barrier on the frontiers. Lastly, they were to be members of the state-council of Polish Prussia, and to have a seat and vote in the Polish diet, and at the election of a king. The third jubilee of this event was commemorated with great rejoicings

rejoicings in the schools of all the three great cities in February 1754, when Thorn and Dantzic caused medals to be struck on the occasion.

In this city the records of Polish Prussia are kept; it has ten gates, and is divided into the Old and New Town, each of which had formerly its respective council, magistracy, and police; but in 1454 they were incorporated into one city. They are, however, separated by a wall and moat within the town, but on the outside are defended in common by a double wall and moats. This is esteemed the handsomest city in Polish Prussia, its streets being broad and regular, and for the most part planted with rows of trees: the houses are also remarkable for their elegant appearance and cleanliness. The wooden bridge over the Vistula in this city may be justly esteemed the longest, the most extraordinary, and expensive bridge in Europe, the city being obliged to expend great sums in keeping it in repair. It properly consists of two bridges, the island of Bazar dividing it in the middle. That part of it next to Thorn is called the German bridge, and the channel over which it lies is esteemed the German Vistula; but the other part is distinguished by the name of the Polish bridge, it lying over the channel called the Polish Vistula. As the river grows continually wider, the bridge must necessarily be lengthened; so that at present it takes up half an hour to walk over it from one bank of the river to the other. It is also the most singular on account of the quick-sand into which the piles are driven, which occasions the whole bridge to shake and totter whenever any carriages or horses are upon it, or even when it is passed by a considerable number of foot-passengers: a stranger, who is unacquainted with its construction, apprehends himself in great danger in passing over it. The ice on the Vistula, which is frequently two or three feet thick, and the rapidity of the current, carry away every year at least one-third of it. Hence some idea may be formed of the vast expence the city of Thorn is at in repairing these annual damages; for the Poles, notwithstanding the heavy loads they bring over it, pay no part of the expence.

Thorn has its own garrison, which generally consists of only one company. The soap, gingerbread, &c. of this city are every where in great request; and accordingly great quantities of them are exported. The asparagus that grows wild in some of the city lands is not inferior to that cultivated in the gardens of other countries.

The inhabitants of Thorn are commended by all foreigners for their civility and politeness, in which they exceed those of every other town in Prussia. It is also observable, that the German tongue is spoken here in the greatest purity; so that even the inhabitants of Upper Saxony acknowledge that they are at present equalled, if not excelled, in this particular by the commonalty and burghers of Thorn. But what is still more remarkable is, that not only the German but even the Polish language, which is necessary for carrying on trade, is also spoken here in such perfection, that the Poles send their children hither, merely to learn their native tongue in its utmost purity and elegance.

The inhabitants of Thorn embraced the reformation very early. In the year 1557, king Sigismund Augustus granted them considerable privileges. The Lutherans were allowed St. John's church and St. Mary's in the Old Town, and St. James's in the New, besides St. George's and St. Catharine's in the suburbs. On the other hand, the Papists were allowed a chapel near St. John's, and the church of St. Laurence in the suburbs. The Dominicans retained their church of St. Nicholas, and their convent in the New Town; and the Benedictine nuns their church of the Holy Ghost, and their nunnery, which stands on the Vistula. In the above churches the Lutherans administered the sacrament of the Lord's Supper in both kinds, and the council are empowered to nominate the ministers of their religion. But in the year 1593 St. John's church was transferred to the papists, and afterwards the Jesuits built a college at Thorn, which has always been much frequented by strangers, and has occasioned many calamities to the city, particularly in the year 1724. The city has, however, maintained its right of patronage of the above church,

and alternately with the king of Poland nominates the Romish priest who officiates in it. In this church is to be seen the epitaph of the celebrated astronomer Nicholas Copernicus, who was born in this city. In 1667, St. James's church, in the New Town, with the hospital belonging to it, was taken from the Lutherans, and given to the Benedictine nuns, and they were deprived, in the same unjust manner, of St. Mary's, the only remaining Lutheran church, with the celebrated seminary, which was removed to another edifice, after having flourished there since the year 1568. The Lutherans of the Old Town continued for several years to perform divine service publicly in the exchange, which stands in the market-place; but that edifice was too small for the congregation; for the burghers amount to at least a thousand men, who are all Lutherans, except about thirty persons; on which account they have since the year 1755 built a new church on one side of the market-place. There are four Lutheran churches in the villages belonging to Thorn. In the city are also some Calvinists, who perform their religious worship in a private house. The Jews have likewise a small synagogue in the city. About a German mile from Thorn is a Popish chapel dedicated to St. Barbara, distinguished by many pretended miracles; and an annual procession is made with great solemnity every Whitsun-Tuesday from the city to this chapel, for obtaining public indulgencies.

Among the public edifices of the city, the town-house in the Old Town is worth the notice of the traveller: it stands in the market-place, on every side of which very handsome houses are erected, and forms an elegant quadrangular square structure, built with such magnificence, that for the beauty of its architecture, foreigners give it the preference to most edifices of that kind in Europe.

The exchange, which is also in the market-place, is a superb structure, adorned with towers, and its front embellished with gilded bustoes of the kings of Poland.

The popish churches, both for their spaciousness and ornaments, deserve particular notice, as does the Jesuit's college.

The junkerhof which stands on the bank of the Vistula, and belongs to the exchange, is a delightful place intended for festivity, and the entertainment of the principal merchants and citizens.

The leaning tower, as it is called, is an extraordinary piece of architecture; for as its outside is built obliquely from the ground, it appears as if ready to fall: but on the inside the floors and ceilings are perfectly horizontal, and the walls perpendicular to the horizon.

Graudenz, formerly called Grodec, and in the Polish language Grudziandz, is a handsome town pleasantly situated on an island formed by the river Ossa, which here flows through two channels into the Vistula. The castle stands on an eminence, and within it is a church; there is another in the town, of which the Lutherans were deprived in 1598, on which account they are obliged to perform divine service in the town-house, where they have also a school, and the Jesuits a college. The Prussian diet is held here and at Marienburg alternately.

The next province of Polish Prussia we shall describe is the prefecture of Marienburg, which has a palatine, a vice-treasurer, and a provincial judge. This palatinate contains three werders. A werder is a fen, or morass, surrounded with water, and improved for tillage and habitation. They produce plenty of grass and corn, but have seldom either woods or hills. That called the wood of Elbing is the most considerable in this district. In many parts the only fuel is turf, straw, and stubble; and even where there are woods, they afford little game, except hares, woodcocks, and other wild-fowl, but harbour very fierce wolves. The fresh water in these werders is very good; the air is tolerably healthful; a great number of cattle are bred here, and the horses are much esteemed. The inhabitants of the werders have from time immemorial been free peasants, and are stiled the royal vassals and werderers. Those however who are subject to

the jurisdiction of the cities, are under greater restrictions than the royal peasants who live in the Marienburg werders. They speak the German and Polish languages, and are for the most part Lutherans or Papists; but there are also some Calvinists, and a considerable number of Mennonites, a sort of Baptists.

The principal places in the prefecture of Marienburg are, Marienburg, a well built town, stands on an eminence near the river Nogat, in a pleasant and fertile country, in fifty-four degrees twelve minutes north latitude, and in nineteen degrees twelve minutes east longitude. Here is a handsome church dedicated to the Virgin Mary, from which the town takes its name. The wooden bridge laid over the Nogat is five hundred and thirty-nine feet in length, and is a very great charge to the city; the fund appropriated for building and repairing it not being sufficient for that purpose. In the castle is the treasury, where are kept the revenues of Polish Prussia: the streets of the town are very dirty. Most of the inhabitants are Roman Catholics, and there is but one Lutheran church.

Elbing, a handsome large city, fortified after the ancient manner, stands on a river of the same name, in fifty-four degrees twenty-one minutes north latitude, and nineteen degrees fifteen minutes east longitude. It was built in 1239, and is a place of considerable trade. Between the Old Town and the suburbs, where the storehouses of the merchants are erected, runs the river Elbing; and the Old Town is divided from the New by a wall and moat. The houses are high, narrow in front, and built in the old taste much like those at Dantzic. The streets are also very narrow, occasioned by the balconies which project into them; and before these are receptacles for all the dust and filth thrown out of the houses. Here are ten churches, in which divine service is performed. That of St. Nicholas, which is the largest and handsomest church in Prussia, was given up to the papists in 1616. The Calvinists perform divine service in a large hall, and the Mennonites in a private house in the city; but the school belongs to the Lutherans. This is one of the Hanse-towns, and as it is inhabited by a colony from Lubec, it is governed by the laws of that city; the burghers, however, have their particular rights and privileges. The castle, which was built in 1237, was demolished by the burghers in 1454. The fortifications towards the werder are very slight, but on the opposite side they are in a much better condition; yet it is esteemed one of the strongest towns in Polish Prussia. Some companies of the crown-army of Poland are cantoned in this town, but the burghers keep guard at the gates, and the suburbs have a Prussian garrison.

This city in ecclesiastical matters is under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Ermeland, as far as is consistent with the difference of religion, and without prejudice to the rights and privileges of the city; but in civil affairs it is only subject to the king. In 1703, Elbing fell into the possession of the Swedes, who laid it under contri-

bution; but the Russians took it from them by storm. It was formerly mortgaged to the elector of Brandenburg, as a security for the payment of four hundred thousand rixdollars; but as the elector did not receive the sum stipulated, the king of Prussia took possession of the district belonging to the city, in virtue of the above agreement.

The last province of Polish Prussia which remains to be mentioned is that of Ermeland, which is entirely surrounded by the kingdom of Prussia. This province belongs to no palatinate, but is entirely subject to the bishop and chapter; so that neither the nobility nor the other inhabitants of Ermeland can appeal to any other judicature. Two-thirds of this province belong to the bishop, and the remaining third part to the chapter. Their subjects have recourse to the same courts of judicature as the rest of the Prussians; but they have some particular laws to themselves. They have also a provincial diet, to which the nobility, the burghers, and country judges, together with the freemen, are summoned. Though the Ermelanders do not assist at the Prussian diets, the bishop is always present, and proposes whatever is debated concerning his diocese, particularly in relation to the taxes, according as they have been agreed upon in a provincial meeting held for that purpose, where the Ermelanders seldom dissent from their bishop and the Prussian states.

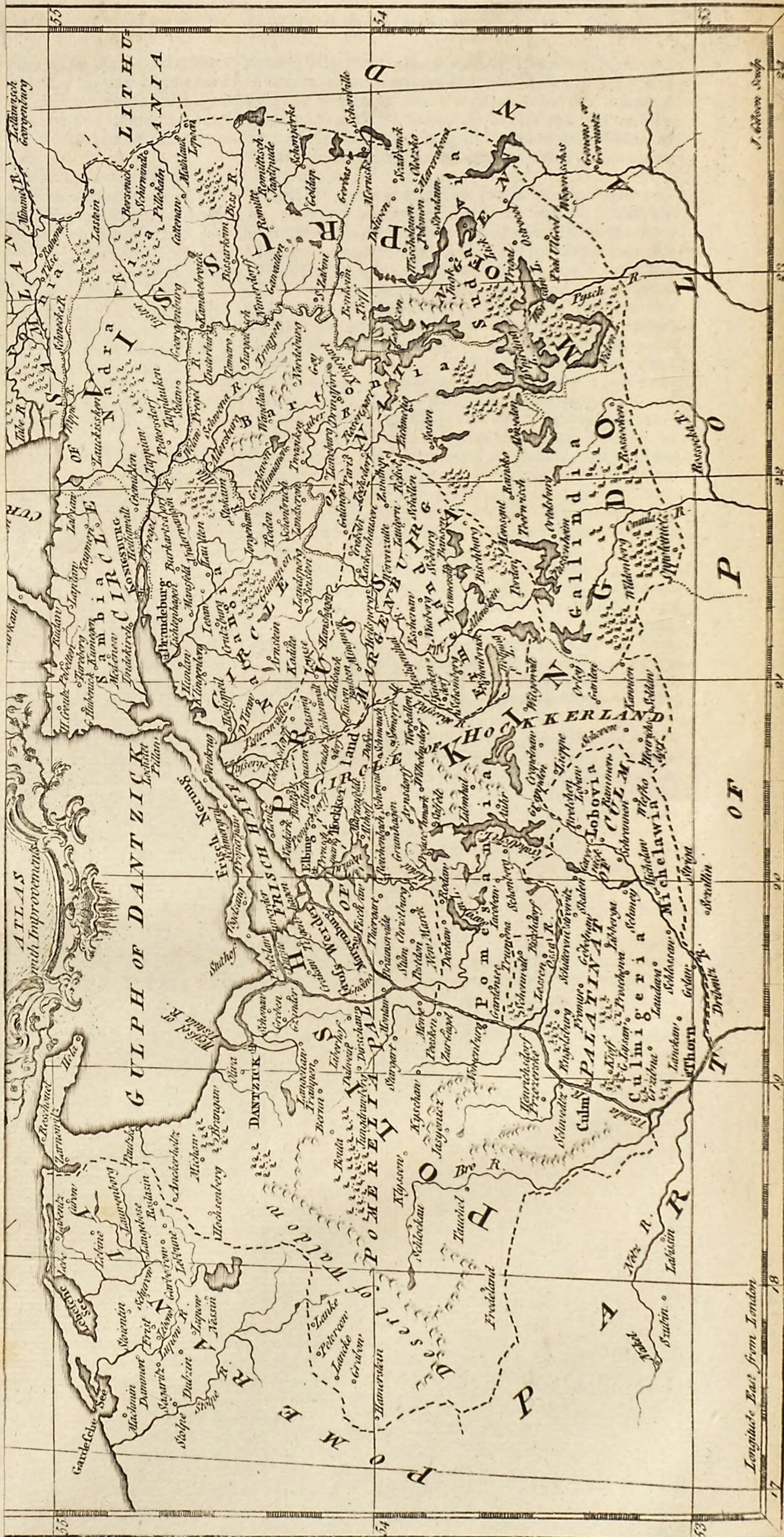
The most considerable places in Ermeland are,

Braunsberg, a pretty large trading town, situated on the Passarge, at a small distance from its mouth. It was built in 1255, and received its name from Bruno, bishop of Prague. It is divided into the Old and New Town, and is very populous. The celebrated college of the Jesuits in this town was formerly a Franciscan convent; it is now under the jurisdiction of the bishop.

Heilsberg, a beautiful town on the Alle, in which stands an elegant seat belonging to the bishop of Ermeland. There is a college of Jesuits in the town. It is said to be built in 1240, and was destroyed by fire in 1521. Charles XII. king of Sweden, had his headquarters here in 1703.

Kessel, an elegant little town with a castle, has a college of Jesuits, to which the church of the Holy Linden-tree in Brandenburg Prussia belongs. This town is well supplied with provisions, and carries on a good trade.

We might here be expected to conclude this chapter on Poland, by following the example of almost all other geographers, in joining to Regal or Polish Prussia the kingdom of that name; but this new kingdom ought no longer to be considered as a petty dukedom; it ought no longer to be placed on a level with Polish Prussia, and the other states dependent on the republic of Poland; its sovereign has given it a more respectable appearance in the eyes of all Europe: we shall therefore treat of it in a separate chapter.



Longitude East from London

J. Blomberg Sculp

C H A P. IV.

Of the Kingdom of P R U S S I A.

S E C T. I.

The Situation, Extent, Climate, Produce, Rivers, Lakes, and Bays of the Kingdom of Prussia in general; with a particular Account of the Properties of Amber.

THIS kingdom, which has been generally called Ducal Prussia, and belongs to the house of Brandenburg, is divided from the other dominions of its sovereign by Polish Prussia, and is bounded on the north by Samogitia, on the east by Lithuania, on the south by Poland Proper and Masovia, and on the west by Polish Prussia and the Baltic. Its greatest length from its northern extremity to Soldau is about a hundred and ninety miles, and its breadth from the borders of the great dutchy of Lithuania, near Shirwind, to the western coast of Samland is a hundred and fourteen miles; but in other places it is much narrower.

With respect to the climate and temperature of the air, the two last months of the spring and the two first summer months are temperate, warm, and pleasant, and the weather generally favourable for bringing the fruits of the earth to maturity; but before and after these months the air is cold and piercing: autumn is often wet, and the winter severe. The air is, however, well purified by high winds. As to the distempers which most prevail in Prussia, the inhabitants are more subject to the gout and stone than to the scurvy.

The soil produces great plenty of corn, fruit, excellent herbs, and pasturage. Prussia likewise abounds with flocks and herds, and exceeding fine horses; its chief commodities are buck-wheat, wool, flax, hemp, wax, honey, hops, pit-coal, and pitch.

Prussia also affords plenty of game, as elks, stags, roebucks, white and common hares, and wild boars; and is infested with beasts of prey, as lynxes, bears, wolves, and foxes; but as for the buffaloes that formerly frequented this country, they have been extirpated by the poachers, and wild horses and asses seem to have deserted Prussia.

The woods, particularly those of oak, are said to be greatly diminished, especially in Lesser Lithuania.

Prussian manna is found in the meadows on the top of a kind of grass, and gathered in the morning, while the dew lies upon it. Natangen yields the best sort, and in the greatest plenty.

The beautiful red colour called St. John's blood, is made of the eggs of a small worm, or insect, very common in this country.

Vast quantities of amber are found on the coasts of the Baltic, in Prussia, particularly on the Samland shore. It owes its origin to a sulphureous matter, is pellucid, and generally yellow; but the white sort is esteemed the best. If amber be well rubbed, it attracts light substances; it is also inflammable, and when burnt, its odorous effluvia surpasses those of frankincense or mastic. It likewise yields an acid spirit. That it was once in a fluid state evidently appears from the leaves, minerals, flies, spiders, ants, gnats, worms, frogs, fishes, drops of water, pieces of wood, and grains of sand, that are frequently seen inclosed in it. Dr. Busching observes, that amber is generally found on large trees which are buried under ground in a vitriolic earth, and contain an oily substance; and that hence some are of opinion, that the oil being coagulated by the acidity of the vitriol, becomes the solid body which we call amber. Amber is not only obtained by digging, but is found in the sea, it being washed off the trees by the agitation of the waves in high westerly or north-west winds, and driven on shore. The profits arising from amber belongs to the crown of Prussia, and annually amount to about twenty-six thousand dollars.

Prussia yields neither salt, wine, nor minerals, except in some places it contains iron ore. It is for the most part a level country. Among the Prussian mountains, that of Goldberg and Goldap are the highest.

The lakes, rivers, and canals, with the neighbouring sea, afford a variety of excellent fish, as salmon, sturgeon, cod, turbot, soles, hallybuts, pike, perch, plaice, eels, and many others.

The principal rivers in the kingdom of Prussia are, the Weichsel, or Vistula, the Pregel, the Memel, or Mummel, the Passarge, and the Alle. These rivers are partly navigable, but at certain times of the year, and in high winds, are apt to overflow their banks, and to cause terrible inundations.

This country is likewise watered by several large bays, lakes, and canals, which yield great plenty of fish, and the conveniency of a communication by water between several towns, the principal of these are,

The Frische Haf, or Fresh Haven, in Latin Sinus Venedicus. This bay is from five to fourteen miles in breadth, and fifty-seven in length. It has a communication with the Baltic by a streight called the Gatt, and in other places is separated from the Baltic by a narrow slip of land called the Frische Nerung. The Gatt is about an English mile in breadth, and twelve feet in depth; and the Frische Haf is so shallow, that no ships of burthen can sail upon it, and therefore they are obliged to unload at Pillau.

The Curische Haf, in Latin Sinus Curonicus. This bay is about seventy miles in length, and twenty-eight in breadth. It is separated from the Baltic by a narrow ridge of land called Curische Nerung, but joins the sea near Memel, where it is about an English mile broad, and nineteen feet deep. This bay is full of dangerous shelves and sand-banks, and is agitated by frequent storms. Its coasts on every side are inhabited by fishermen.

As to inland lakes, this country has many of them from four to thirty miles in length, and five or six miles in breadth; the principal of which are those of Spirding, Angerburg, Rein, and Drausen.

S E C T. II.

Of the Inhabitants of the Kingdom of Prussia. Their Number, Descent, and Religion. Their Manufactures, Commodities, and Coins. The History and Arms of Prussia; the Orders of Knighthood; the Form of Government, and the royal Revenue.

THE number of inhabitants in this kingdom were in the year 1755 computed at six hundred and thirty-five thousand nine hundred and ninety-eight persons capable of bearing arms, and consist of native Prussians, who, from their language and manners, appear to be descended from the Germans; of Lithuanians, who have their peculiar language; and of Poles. Since the year 1719, it is computed that above thirty-four thousand persons have removed from France, Switzerland, and Germany into the kingdom of Prussia, seventeen thousand of whom were Saltzburghers: such advantages has this nation reaped by wisely giving encouragement to all who were persecuted on account of religion, to settle there. These strangers have built four hundred small villages, eleven towns, eighty-six seats, fifty new churches, and founded a thousand village-schools in this country. Little Lithuania is for the most part peopled by these colonies; but it is thought that Prussia can afford both room and subsistence for as many more emigrants.

The Prussian nobility are for the most part descended from the antient Germans, and the peasants are chiefly vassals either to the king or nobles.

With

With respect to the religion of Prussia, the inhabitants are in general Lutherans; but as a great number of the colonists are Calvinists, they have also their churches, not only in the cities and towns, but in some villages they have a particular church appropriated to their use, and in other places they perform divine service in the Lutheran churches. The Papists have a few churches in this kingdom; here are also some Mennonites, and a few congregations of Socinians.

The manufactures in Prussia are daily improving and increasing, particularly the glass and iron works, manufactures of silk, cloth, camblet, linen, and stockings; paper, powder, copper, and brass mills. Prussia is conveniently situated for trade, and to promote it a college of commerce and navigation has been erected, which takes cognizance of all disputes and proposals relating to trade and commerce.

The commodities of Prussia and Great Lithuania sold to foreign merchants, and annually exported, are all kinds of grain, to the amount of twenty thousand lasts; pine trees for masts, deal boards, and other timber; tar, wood-ashes, pot-ash, elks skins, leather, furs, amber, about twelve thousand five hundred stone of wax, honey, manna, linseed oil, flax, hemp, linseed, and hemp-seed; also yarn, hogs bristles, stags horns, and elks hoofs; oat-meal, mead, dried fish, sturgeon, caviar, lampreys, sausages, butter, and tallow, of which last three thousand four hundred stone are exported every year.

The number of foreign ships that resort hither for these goods are supposed to amount to about five hundred and fifty, which import such commodities as are wanted here, as wine, salt, spices, linen and woollen stuffs, herrings, tin, iron, lead, tobacco, sugar, rice, coffee, tea, raisins, almonds, prunes, indigo, Brazil wood, &c.

With respect to the Prussian coins, they are as follow:

Six pfennings, which are only imaginary pieces of money, make a Prussian or Polish schilling.

Three schillings make a Prussian or Polish groschen, each groschen being of the value of seven-fifteenths of a penny sterling.

A Brandenburg piece, of six pfennings, contains two groschen.

An ort is eighteen groschen, which is the highest groschen piece, and is worth about eight-pence halfpenny.

A dollar, which is equal to three shillings and six-pence sterling, is worth three guldens, ninety groschen, five achtzehners, fifteen sefchers, thirty dutchens, or two hundred and seventy schillings.

Ducats, specie dollars, two-third pieces, and other foreign gold and silver coin, are also current in Prussia.

The name of Prussians was unknown till the tenth century, and its etymology is very uncertain: some authors suppose, that the former inhabitants, alluding to their proximity to the Russians, called themselves Porussi, or bordering on the Russians, for po, in the old Prussian language, signifies near.

In that age the kings of Poland took great pains, and even made use of fire and sword for the conversion of the Pagan Prussians to Christianity. Boleslaus I. began with chastizing the Prussians for the murder of St. Albert, or Adelbert, called the apostle of that nation. His successors had also several quarrels with the Prussians: and Boleslaus IV. who committed dreadful ravages in this country, lost his life in an unsuccessful battle in 1163.

In the thirteenth century the Prussians ravaged Culm, Cujavia, and Masovia; upon which Conrad, duke of Masovia, was obliged to apply to his allies, who all wore the cross, which they carried into the field against the Prussians, whom they considered as the enemies of the Christian name. But all their efforts proving ineffectual, the duke applied to the German knights of the Teutonic order, and strongly represented the great importance of defending the frontiers. Accordingly, in 1230, they obtained the palatinates of Culm and Doberzin for twenty years, and afterwards for ever, with the absolute authority of any future conquests in Prussia. These knights, after long and bloody wars during the space of fifty-three years, by the assistance of the sword-bearing knights, subdued the whole country. Afterwards a war broke out between the Teutonic knights and the Lithuanians, which was attended with the most dreadful outrages. These

knights made religion the cloak of their ambitious views, and under the pretence of propagating the gospel of peace, committed the most inhuman barbarities; and it is generally agreed, that they extirpated the native Prussians, and planted the Germans there in their stead. But in 1410 their savage zeal received a terrible check; for after a most bloody battle they were totally defeated.

In 1454 half of Prussia revolted from their obedience to the Teutonic order, and declared for Casimir III. king of Poland. This occasioned a fresh effusion of blood; till at last a peace was concluded in 1466, by which it was agreed, that the part now called Polish Prussia should continue a free province under the king's protection; and that the knights and the grand master should possess the other part, but were to acknowledge themselves vassals of Poland. The knights soon endeavoured, but in vain, to throw off this yoke. In 1519 they raised new wars, which were terminated in 1525, by a peace concluded at Cracow; by which it was agreed, that the margrave Albert, grand master of the Teutonic order, should be acknowledged duke or sovereign of the east part of Prussia, which he was to hold as a fief of Poland, and which was to descend to his male heirs; and upon failure of male issue, to his brothers, and their male heirs. Thus ended the sovereignty of the Teutonic order in Prussia, after it had subsisted three hundred years.

The new duke favoured the introduction of the reformed religion into his dominions, and founded the university of Konigsberg. The elector Joachim added the dutchy of Prussia to the electoral house of Brandenburg, with which it had been long closely connected. The reign of the elector George William was unhappily distinguished by the calamities of a thirty years war, in which Prussia suffered much from the ravages of the Swedes: but Frederic William, his son, was by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg freed by Casimir, king of Poland, from vassalage, and, with his descendants, declared independent and sovereign lords of his part of Prussia. He also obtained a grant of the lordships of Lauenburg and Butow, to be held in the same manner as they had formerly been by the dukes of Pomerania; and having farther increased the power of his electoral house, obtained the title of the Great.

Frederic, the son of Frederic William the Great, and the grandfather of the present king, raised the dutchy of Prussia to a kingdom, and, on the eighteenth of January, 1701, in a solemn assembly of the states of the empire, placed the crown with his own hands upon his head and that of his consort; soon after which he was acknowledged as king of Prussia by all the other Christian powers.

His son Frederic William, who ascended the throne in 1713, peopled his country by the favourable reception he gave to the distressed and persecuted Saltzburghers, and rendered his reign glorious by many useful and magnificent foundations.

This monarch was succeeded in 1740 by his son Frederic II. his present majesty, who has annexed to his dominions the greatest part of Silesia and East Friesland, rendered his kingdom formidable by his valour and uncommon prudence, and promoted the happiness of his subjects by an amendment and reduction of the laws, the increase of commerce, and many other wise regulations.

The royal arms are argent, an eagle displayed sable, crowned, or, for Prussia. Azure, the imperial scepter or, for Courland. Argent, an eagle displayed gules, with semi-circular wreaths, for the marquisate of Brandenburg. To these are added the respective arms of the several provinces subject to the Prussian crown.

There are two orders of knighthood, the first that of the black eagle, instituted by Frederic I. on the day of his coronation at Konigsberg. The ensign is a cross of gold, in the shape of that of Malta, enamelled with blue. In the middle of it, on one side, is a cypher of the king's name, F. R. and at each of the four angles, next the middle, is a black eagle displayed. The knights wear this cross appendant to a broad orange-coloured ribbon over the left shoulder, across the breast to the right hip. On the left side of their breast a silver star is embroidered on the coat, and in the middle of it a black eagle volant,

with

with a laurel wreath in one of its talons, and in the other a thunderbolt, with this motto, SUUM CUIQUE. The sovereign is always grand master, and the number of knights, exclusive of the royal family, is limited to thirty.

Next to this is the order of Merit, instituted by his present majesty, the ensign of which is a golden star of eight rays enamelled with blue, which is worn appendent to a black ribbon edged with silver, and the motto is POUR LE MERITE.

Frederic the Second has new modelled the form of government, and appointed nine chambers of justice for determining causes in trade, and even ecclesiastical affairs. These are subordinate to the high court of judicature at Konigsberg, to which they may appeal from the high court of judicature. An appeal also lies to the supreme court of appeals, where the chancellor sits as president, and, according to the nature of the cause, it may be farther removed to the secret chamber of justice at Berlin.

The supreme college in Prussia is the royal court of regency, which superintends all the affairs of the kingdom, whether civil, political, or ecclesiastical, and likewise all feudal and academical causes. Every member is stiled a privy-counsellor, or minister of state and war, and has his particular department. These are five in number, who have two secretaries. Prussia has its own particular digest of laws, which was published, with amendments, in the year 1721, and have since been improved and reduced into a small compass. There are also two chambers of war and the domains, erected by king Frederic William, one at Konigsberg, and the other at Gumbinnen, that have the direction of every thing relating to the excise, the revenue, commerce, manufactures, magazines, forage, and whatever belongs to the colonies; every war and domain counsellor has his peculiar department. Subordinate to these are the counsellors of the taxes, the provincial receivers of the taxes, the commissaries of war, the officers of the excise and licences, the farmers of the royal districts, and the officers of the revenues in cities and towns.

The royal revenue chiefly arises from the produce of the excise, customs, and services; the farm of the royal domains, stamped paper, almanacs, and news-papers; mills of several kinds; duties arising from venison, and the skins of stags, elks, and other beasts; masts cut in the royal forests; the salt and iron works; the pot-houses, granaries, manufactures, the chest of forfeitures, and the receipt chest, into which the purchase money of posts and employments is paid; amber and the fisheries. The taxes are heavy in Prussia, and our author observes, that whoever would live independent, either in town or country, must be very careful and industrious; but adds, that such persons seldom fail of getting a fortune here, when trade is brisk.

The military forces of Prussia, especially in the present reign, have been no less formidable for their discipline, than by their number: and it may be justly asserted, that for a fine appearance, military discipline, and activity, the army of the king of Prussia has not its equal. The body of cadets at Berlin is a nursery for good officers. Every regiment has its district, or canton, where the young men belonging to such district are registered, and in case of necessity may be ordered to march. But towards the conclusion of the last war his Prussian majesty issued an order, that all the regiments should be recruited with volunteers and foreigners, and that the young peasants of Prussia should remain unmolested.

SECTION III.

A general Division of the Country, and a particular Description of the City of Konigsberg, the Capital of the Kingdom.

THE kingdom of Prussia at present consists of two departments, the German and Lithuanian. We shall begin with the former, which contains forty-four towns, fifty-six governments, and two hundred and eighty parishes, seven of which are inhabited by Calvinists, seven by Papists, and all the rest by Lutherans. Before we

describe the several divisions of this department, we shall give a particular account of the metropolis of all Prussia.

Konigsberg, called in Latin Mons Regius, or Regiomontum, and in the Polish language Krolewies, is seated on the river Pregel, over which it has seven bridges, in the fifty-fourth degree forty-three minutes north latitude, and the twenty-first degree twenty minutes east longitude. This city was founded in the year 1255, when Premislaus I. king of Bohemia, coming to the assistance of the Teutonic knights against the pagan Samlanders, a castle was built by his advice, and afterwards a town which was named Konigsberg, in honour of that prince; but in the year 1264 Konigsberg was rebuilt on another situation.

It is a large beautiful city. The rampart with which it is surrounded is about seven English miles in circuit, and has thirty-two ravelins and eight gates. This rampart incloses several gardens, the large castle moat, and some meadows and fields. However, the whole circuit of the city is above eight English miles, and contains about three thousand eight hundred houses; the inhabitants amount to sixty thousand souls. Konigsberg properly consists of three towns joined together, Altstadt, Lobenicht, and Kneiphof, and of several suburbs.

Altstadt, which signifies the Old Town, was particularly called Konigsberg till the year 1455; but afterwards it was named Altstadt, to distinguish it from Lobenicht. It contains sixteen streets, in which are five hundred and fifty houses, above one hundred of which are malt-houses and brew-houses. It has six gates, besides four posterns, two strong built towers, and four bridges. Its other public edifices are the parish-church of St. Nicholas, which is of very great extent; the parish school, which has nine masters, and in this edifice is the city library; the poor-house, which is for the maintenance of thirty poor scholars; the town-house; the junkerhof, where weddings and other solemnities are celebrated, and which has a garden belonging to it; the common garden, which is frequented by artizans and mechanics; and lastly, the hot baths.

The suburbs of Altstadt are the Steindam, which is extremely well built, and contains eleven streets, with the oldest church belonging to Konigsberg: the suburb called the New Ross-Garten; on an eminence in this suburb stands the New Ross-Garten church; here is also a large hospital for the burghers widows, an orphan-house, pest-house, and shooting-ground: the Laacke, in which are the city timber-yard, and a long pleasant walk called Reifferbahn: the Lastadie, in which are the merchants magazine, the ware-houses, the pack-houses, the herring-bridge, the crane-wharf, the wine-wharf, the tar-wharf, and the king's licence-house, in which the colleges of admiralty and licences meet every Monday and Thursday. Without the wooden gate of Altstadt lie the coal-magazines, many of which are now converted into dwellings; and the Lomse, or Lanse, in which are handsome houses, with delightful gardens. The last suburb of Altstadt is Dam, where are erected manufactures for woollen cloth, stockings, and leather.

Lobenicht was built about the year 1300, and was formerly called Neustadt, or the New Town. It has four gates, and is divided into two parts; one which stands on an eminence, is usually called Der Berg, or the Mountain, and contains the city church, the city school, and a public garden: in the other part, which has a lower situation, are the town-house, the junkerhof, the weigh-house, a large hospital, which has a church, and was once a convent; and the Munchenhof, which was formerly a monastery, but has been converted into a store-house.

Without the gate of Lobenicht are several suburbs, among which is Sackheim, which is almost as old as the city itself, and consists of five long streets, intersected by others that run across them; and has a Roman catholic church, a German Lutheran church, a Lithuanian Lutheran church, the royal orphan-house, with its chapel, and the king's great and little timber-yard, with the offices belonging to it.

Kneiphof, the most modern of the three towns, was not founded till the year 1324. It stands on an island formed by the river Pregel, and is erected on piles of

tree, which, by length of time, are become as hard as iron. It has five large gates, and thirteen streets, among which the Long street is the finest in the city of Königsberg. Among the public edifices in Kneiphof the following are the most remarkable: the fine cathedral, in which is the famous organ finished in 1721, which consists of five thousand pipes; and the Wallenrod library, which has above five thousand books: the grammar school: the poor-house stands near the cathedral, and contains thirty poor boys, which are decently provided with all kinds of necessaries. On the other side of the cathedral stands the bishop's palace. The other buildings are the university, or college, as it is called, which has thirty-eight professors, exclusive of the tutors: in the refectory are eight tables, and twelve persons sit at each of them: twenty-eight of the students have their commons gratis, besides several exhibitions, or pensions, which are bestowed according to merit and the circumstances of the pupils. The town-house, which is a very fine building, where the magistrates of the three towns meet every day: the edifice where the royal German society meet: the junkerhof: the exchange for merchants, which is embellished with curious paintings, in sixty compartments. Not far from the exchange is a foundation for students. There are also the exterior and interior suburbs.

We shall now describe the palace, which is built in the form of an oblong square, with an area within it, that is a hundred and thirty-six paces in length, and seventy-five in breadth. The north side appears to be extremely ancient, and even to have been built when the knights of the Teutonic order flourished. The south and east wings were erected by the margrave Albert the Elder, and the margrave George Frederic added the west side of this structure. In the last are the Lutheran court church; the library, which is opened on Wednesdays and Saturdays; the domain office; the supreme court of justice; the Samland consistory; the room where the archives of the court are kept; the Moscovite-hall, as it is termed, which is two hundred and seventy-four feet long, and fifty-nine broad; and the college of physicians.

In the east wing are the great palace-gate, with apartments for the principal ministers of state, and the royal apartments; within a pavilion are the chamber of war, the domain-chamber, the accompt and rent-chamber, and the excise-office.

The north wing contains the amber-office, the private chancery, the apartment in which the archives of the Prussian supreme court are kept, the fief-chamber, the revenue-office, the privy-chamber, where the lords of the regency meet, the accomptant's-office, the college of health, the high tribunal, and the apartments in which the states of the country assemble, and the provincial chests are deposited.

In the south wing are several kitchens and apartments for the royal family and foreign princes; at one end of it stands the palace tower, which is ascended by two hundred and eighty-four steps, and affords a noble prospect of the whole city and the adjacent country. The stables, the wardrobe, the pleasure-garden, and the great and little park are very beautiful.

In the liberties of the palace, which are five in number, the most remarkable places are the mint, the German Calvinist church, the new French church, the German school, where a congregation of Polish protestants assemble, the Jews school, the college, the gardens belonging to the palace, and several other structures, with some streets, in which are many elegant houses.

The strong citadel, called Fredericksburg, stands facing Kneiphof, at the conflux of the two branches of the Pregel. This fort is a regular square building, surrounded with broad ditches, and by the river Pregel; and within it is a church and an arsenal.

Königsberg has always distinguished itself by its commerce; for it was formerly one of the Hanse-towns, and its trade is still in a flourishing condition. The river Pregel, which is here navigable for the largest ships, is from a hundred and twenty to two hundred and forty feet in breadth. In the year 1752 there arrived in this port four hundred and ninety-three ships, besides two hundred and ninety-eight smaller vessels, and three hundred and seventy-three floats of timber.

Most of the inhabitants of Königsberg are Germans of the Lutheran profession, and a colony of French Calvinists of about fifty families are settled there. Commerce has introduced the Polish and Lithuanian languages into this city.

Besides the poor who are provided for in alms-houses and hospitals, above eight hundred indigent persons receive weekly pensions out of the general charitable fund, which is a proof of the opulence, as well as of the humanity of the inhabitants.

We shall now give an account of the several divisions of the kingdom of Prussia, and the principal places in each. The German department is divided into German Samland, Old Natangen, and Oberland.

SECT. IV.

Of the Province of German Samland, and the principal Places it contains; with a particular Description of Pillau and the neighbouring Country, and the remarkable Peninsula called Frische Nerung.

THE district of German Samland contains three governments, the most remarkable places in which are,

Pillau, which is esteemed the bulwark and key of Prussia towards the sea. It stands on a point of land that projects into the Baltic, in the fifty-fourth degree forty-five minutes north latitude, and in twenty degrees five minutes east longitude. It is well fortified: the fort is nearly a regular pentagon: the bastions make a grand appearance; and all the buildings belonging to the fortifications are strong, regular, handsome, and well planted with cannon; and the fort has a magazine for military stores. The streets are broad, and run in a straight line; and the houses are built and furnished in the Dutch taste: the harbour is a very fine one, and vessels of great burthen are cleared and take in their lading here, for the Frischehof has not a sufficient depth of water to carry them to Königsberg.

The city is frequented by people of various nations. Below the gate of the castle is a stone equestrian statue of Frederic William the Great, and over the gate is a fine watch-tower, where a centinel stands day and night. There is also a church in the fort, which serves both for the Lutherans and Calvinists. Over the gate on one side of the entrance towards the out-works stands the image of Mars in a bold attitude, looking towards Sweden.

The peninsula which extends from beyond Pillau to Fischhausen is, from its extreme pleasantness and fertility, called the Paradise of Prussia; for it not only yields great plenty of the necessaries of life, but every thing that contributes to pleasure and entertainment. Near the above fort is a fine plain, where the Frischehof forms a semi-circular bay, which is frequented by a multitude of swans, sea-mews, wild-ducks, and other water-fowl. On the other side of this bay lies Old Pillau, which consists of two contiguous villages, inhabited by fishermen; these are called Alt Pillau and Wogram. In Alt Pillau is a public burying-ground, and near the church stands on a steep hill a building which was formerly the custom-house. This strong lofty edifice serves as a land-mark for the ships bound to Pillau, and nothing can exceed the prospect this place affords, for it extends to a part of Samland, Natangen, and Ermeland; and is diversified with a view of the ships coming in and going out of the harbour, and of the Nerung, or narrow slip of land that lies between the haven and the sea. In a contiguous village, called Wogram, lies the storbude, where the sturgeons are boiled and packed up, and where caviar is made of their roes; most of which is exported to England. The fishermen in these parts catch at least thirty different species of sea and fresh-water fish; and in some parts of the year are seen astonishing flights of thrushes, blackbirds, and magpies. Round these villages are a great number of kitchen-gardens and orchards. After passing this delicious spot about Old Pillau, you cross a barren piece of land to a well cultivated farm, and the Pillau Krug, as it is called, which is a public-house seated in a most delightful grove, consisting of various kinds

kinds of trees, whose branches are so closely interwoven, as to afford a good shelter from the rain. It was probably from this delightful grove that the adjacent country obtained the name of Paradise.

It will be proper to take particular notice here of the Curische Nerung, called in Latin Peninsula Curonensis, which is a narrow slip of land that separates the Baltic sea from the Curische-haf, and is about sixty miles in length, and in most parts one in breadth. This peninsula is a barren sandy tract, where the high winds frequently make great ravages by tearing up the pine trees by the roots, and blowing up the sand into high ridges and hills, which sometimes obliges the poor inhabitants to remove their dwellings. Most of the trees, particularly on the Baltic side, are more or less blasted, and appear like bare trunks; they however afford shelter for stags, falcons, and great numbers of thrushes. There are several small mean villages on this peninsula, in which the inhabitants live chiefly by fishing, and have very few cattle.

The next place we shall mention is Welau, an ancient well built town, founded in 1336. It is seated on an island at the conflux of the Alle and the Pregel, and consists of two principal and five cross streets, two suburbs, and two hundred and sixty-four houses. It has about a hundred and fifty burghers, besides the other inhabitants. Great part of this town was burnt in 1736, since which time the buildings have been much improved; however, it has not recovered its former trade. It is chiefly remarkable in history for the treaty concluded there with Poland in September 1657, when the elector Frederic William was invested with the sovereignty of Ducal Prussia.

In this district are several navigable rivers that abound with fish, and canals that are also of great service to trade.

Among the latter is the New Deim, which begins at the royal manor of Schmerberg, and is carried above ten miles, till it enters the Pregel.

Two new canals called Great and Little Frederic's canal, which join the river Deim to the Wippe and Nemmonin, and also the latter to the Gilge. Great Frederic's canal commences at the Wippe, which is a branch of the river Nemmonin, and is carried on for fourteen miles to Labiau, a trading town on the river Deim. Little Frederic's canal begins at the river Gilge, and extends about six miles in length to the river Nemmonin. These works, which are very convenient for the trade with Poland, were executed between the years 1688 and 1696, by order of the countess-dowager of Waldburg; and the counts of Waldenburg received a toll from all vessels which passed through them, till the king purchased that right in the year 1713, and made it a part of the royal domains.

We now come to that division of the kingdom of Prussia called Natangen, which is a populous and well cultivated country, consisting partly of arable and partly of meadow land; and though the soil is in some parts very stony, it produces better corn than either Samland or Little Lithuania; it is also well wooded, and yields all sorts of game and great plenty of fish.

Old Natangen contains eight governments, the most considerable places in which are,

Gerdauen, a small town in the government of the same name, was built in the year 1325. It is seated on the river Omet, and has two castles belonging to the count and baron Schlieben. The new seat is a magnificent structure, and has an elegant garden. The town derives its name from E. Gerdaw, a Prussian nobleman, near whose castle it was built in the year above-mentioned. In a lake near this town is a floating island, which is a plat of ground covered with verdure, and driven backwards and forwards from one bank of the lake to the other. It was formerly three hundred and fifty paces in length, and two hundred and fifty in breadth; so that it afforded pasture for a hundred head of cattle: but it is at present divided into several little pieces, which are continually decreasing. This island is called the Gerdauen Almanac, because the inhabitants of the town prognosticate approaching storms by its motions.

Rastenburg, a handsome town, with a castle, in a government of the same name, and seated on the river Guber. It was built in the year 1329; and though it was destroyed by the Lithuanians in 1348, it was soon rebuilt, together with its castle, and put in a more defensible state than before. It is inclosed with a wall and a rampart. The German parish church is the largest and handsomest structure of that kind in all the Prussian inland towns, except the cathedral of Marienwerder, and the senior of the three ministers who belong to it has the superintendency of forty-six churches. The church of St. Catharine stands in the suburbs, and is one of the most antient in the kingdom of Prussia; and in the middle of the great hospital is the church of the Holy Ghost. This hospital was founded in 1361, and consists of two wards, in which twenty indigent persons are comfortably provided with food and a pension in money. In the second hospital twenty-five poor persons are maintained by the alms of the charitable. Here is also a school, under the direction of a rector and three assistants. The burghers amount to about two hundred, most of whom are Lutherans; and the inhabitants are supported by brewing, agriculture, and mechanic trades. This town is possessed of the largest territory of any inland town in Prussia, except Fischhausen.

Angerburg is a modern well-built town, situated in the government of the same name. It is encompassed with pallisadoes, and defended by a strong castle, built in 1335 on the bank of the lake where the river Angerap has its source. This lake, which is seven German miles in length, and one and a half in breadth, is of great service to the town. The church of Angerburg is a large handsome structure. An arch-presbytery was founded here in the year 1725.

By the side of the above lake, and about five miles from Angerburg, is Steinort, a noble seat of count Lelendorf, which has one of the finest gardens in all the country. The island which belongs to it, and is situated in the lake, with the summer-house built upon it, are extremely pleasant.

SECT. V.

Of the Province called Oberland, with a Description of its most remarkable Towns.

THE country of Oberland is fertile, rich, and well cultivated, and was formerly so populous, that it could bring into the field an army of ten thousand horse and foot; but the people having, on several occasions, exercised great cruelties towards the Christians, the Teutonic knights, in the year 1273, ravaged the country, and made themselves masters of it. Oberland, at present, consists of nine governments, the principal places in which are as follow:

Marienwerder, in Latin Insula Mariana, and in the Polish tongue, Kwidzin, is a well-built town, with a castle, which stands on the frontiers of Pomerania, on the Leibe, at a small distance from the Vistula. Marienwerder is situated in the forty-third degree fifty minutes north latitude, and was first built in 1233, on a werder or small island called Kwidzin, but was soon after rebuilt on the spot where it now stands. The cathedral, which was erected about the thirteenth century, is the largest church in the kingdom of Prussia, it being three hundred and twenty feet long, and by its strong breast-works appears to have formerly served for a fortress. The palace of Marienwerder is a spacious building, erected in the Gothic taste. The adjacent country is very pleasant, and filled with eminences and gentle declivities. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade with their neighbours. Salt-works were set up here in the year 1723, and in 1728 was built a magazine for corn and forage. This town has been often damaged by inundations, war, and fire. The league against the Teutonic knights was concluded here in 1440, and in 1520 the town held out against a vigorous siege. In 1709 the czar Peter the Great had an interview at this place with Frederic I. king of Prussia; and king Stanislaus retired thither from Dantzic in 1734. The suburbs

of Marienwerder are continually improving, and the adjacent country is fertile and well inhabited.

Reisenburg stands on an eminence near the river Leibe, in the fifty-third degree forty-eight minutes latitude, and derives its name from the adjacent Prussian territory, which was anciently called Refin. The Poles call it Prabutha, which signifies a ruinous house: indeed it is a mean town, with narrow streets. It was built in 1169, and the castle, which is even still more ancient, stands on a hill, and is extremely decayed. The town contains a German and a Polish church. The burghers, besides having a little commerce, subsist by brewing, agriculture, and feeding of cattle. In the year 1323, 1414, and 1422, Reisenburg was burnt by the Poles. It was also consumed by fire in 1628, 1688, and 1728.

Mohrungen, a little town in the government of the same name, is situated to the north-east of Reisenburg, and is said to have been founded in 1302, and completed in 1328; but the old castle is more antient. Count Dohna has here a remarkable seat. The town is well built, and surrounded with good walls and a double moat; besides, it is almost encompassed by the lake of Mohrungen. As this town lies in the road to Poland, it is much frequented by strangers. It was entirely destroyed by fire in 1697; but has been since rebuilt in a much more handsome manner than before.

Osterröde, a well-situated trading town, in the province of the same name, seated by the river and lake of Dribentz, which supply it with plenty of fish. It stands in the fifty-third degree forty minutes north latitude, in a sandy, but fertile country. Salt-works have been set up there, and the inhabitants carry on some trade with Poland. Some ancient Roman coins have been found at a small distance from the estate of Gorlitz, which belongs to his Prussian majesty.

Holland is a handsome town, seated on an eminence near the river Weefke, in the fifty-fourth degree four minutes north latitude, and has a strong fortress. It is said to have been built by some Hollanders of distinction, who fled hither on account of the murder of count Florentius V. from whom it obtained the name of Holland. Its situation renders it naturally strong, and besides, it is surrounded with a wall and towers. The streets are long and broad, and the houses well built. To this town belong two suburbs, and several country seats with pleasant gardens. The inhabitants have a free fishery, and the liberty of going out in their boats on the lake of Drausen. St. Bartholomew's church is a large handsome structure. The Calvinists celebrate divine service in a large hall which belongs to the fortress, and without the town stands a church dedicated to St. George. Here is also a good hospital, salt-works have been erected in the town, and likewise a public magazine for corn and forage. The present castle was begun by duke Albert, and completed by George Frederic. It is encompassed by moats and walls, and has fine apartments that yield a noble prospect.

SECT. VI.

Of the Department of Little Lithuania, and the Polish Governments subject to the King of Prussia, with the principal Places contained in each.

IN this division are eighteen towns, sixty-two districts, and a hundred and five parishes.

Little Lithuania is a hundred and fourteen miles in length, and from thirty-eight to fifty-seven in breadth, but was antiently over-run with thickets and woods, and in 1710 was almost depopulated by the pestilence; but in 1720 king Frederic William generously assisted twenty-thousand French protestants, Palatines, Franconians, and Swiss, at the expence of five millions of rix-dollars, to settle in this country; and in 1732, three hundred and fifty thousand dollars were distributed among a fresh colony of twelve thousand five hundred Saltzburghers. By the skill and industry of these people, this desolate country has been extremely well cultivated, superfluous woods have been rooted up, morasses drained, and a multitude of towns, villages, farm-houses, and churches built;

whence the country has put on a new appearance, and now makes ample returns for the great sums which his Prussian majesty wisely laid out upon it. The richness of the pastures, the many thousand lasts of corn which are either exported or laid up in the king's granaries, the fine horned cattle, excellent horses, and numerous flocks of sheep, with the excellent butter and cheese this country affords, are incontestible proofs of its uncommon fertility. It also abounds with wood for fuel, and has plenty of game and fish. Several manufactures of coarse and fine cloth, leather, &c. are also established here.

The ancient inhabitants of Little Lithuania have a peculiar language, into which the Bible, the Catechism, and some books of devotion have been lately translated. The Lithuanians of this country are far from being so stupid as they have been generally represented; but like other nations they have their good and ill qualities. Among the colonists the Swiss are chiefly employed in grazing and breeding cattle; the French are well versed in trade, and skilled in the cultivation of tobacco, which they have introduced into this country; and the Saltzburghers are remarkable for their skill in agriculture. The Swiss, French, and Franconians, are all Calvinists, so that there are ten German and French reformed parishes, as they are called in Little Lithuania, and the rest are Lutherans, with very few Papists among them.

There are four governments in the Lithuanian department, the principal places in which are,

Memel, a trading town, port, and fortress, seated at the northern extremity of the bay called Curische-haf, in the fifty-fifth degree forty-six minutes north latitude, and in the thirty-ninth degree nineteen minutes east longitude. It was built in the year 1279, and fortified in 1312, and has on one side the Baltic, and on the other the Curische-haf, besides which it is watered by the river Dange. The harbour is deep and has a very good entrance, and within these few years has been improved with two moles, which are carried above fifty rods into the bay. The town lies under the guns of the fort, and is well inhabited; it consists of above four hundred houses, and besides the German church, here is one belonging to the Lutherans and another to the Calvinists. The burghers, who are divided into those of the Old Town and Frederic's Town, are employed in commerce, brewing, soap-boiling, agriculture, fishing, &c. Great quantities of flax, hemp, thread, and linseed, are annually exported from this town. In 1752 seventy ships arrived in this port, and sixty-nine sailed from thence to other ports. Memel is fortified with three whole, and two half bastions, with other works all in the modern way. The citadel consists of four pretty regular bastions, with ravelins and half moons. The buildings and apartments in this citadel were much improved by the elector Frederic William and king Frederic I. The most remarkable things within it are the two arsenals, the superb house of the commandant, the garrison church, and the powder-magazine. In this town is likewise a college of justice, a salt-factory, and a post-office, which brings in a considerable revenue.

The next city worthy of notice, is that of Tilsit, the capital of the government of the same name. This city is, next to Königsberg, the largest and most opulent place in the kingdom of Prussia, and carries on the greatest trade; for the river Memel, which runs along the north side of it, affords the advantage of a very great trade with Königsberg, in linseed, corn, butter, and other provisions. It is situated in the fortieth degree east longitude, and in the fifty-fourth degree fifty minutes north latitude. Tilsit, properly so called, consists of two long streets of a considerable breadth, called German-Street and High-Street, contiguous to which is the suburbs, called the Liberty. The number of houses in this city amount to about six hundred, and the inhabitants to seven thousand souls. The ecclesiastical buildings are a Lutheran German church, near which is the royal provincial school, a Lithuanian church, and one belonging to the Calvinists. Without the town stands a Lutheran chapel, and at about the distance of an English mile is a Romish chapel. Here is an hospital, where ninety indigent persons have a comfortable subsistence; and in the pest-house the sick and lame, as well as those infected with

with contagious diseases, are carefully provided for. Here is also a poor-house, in which ten poor boys are maintained, besides a number of widows. Salt-works are also established in this town.

The flat country about Tilsit, which is eighteen miles in length, and as many in breadth, is one of the most fertile spots in the whole kingdom; and the inhabitants furnish not only Prussia, but other places, with excellent butter and cheese, and the fisheries in this place are also very considerable. The natives breed great numbers of horned cattle, and the horses are large and strong, but clumsy. Barley is almost the only grain sown in these parts, which at present afford little or no wood. The marsh lands are exposed in spring to inundations by the overflowing of the rivers, which frequently do much damage.

Ragnit, a small town, about five miles to the eastward of Tilsit, is seated on the river Memel, and in the government of Ragnit. It is surrounded by palisadoes, and has a castle, which is one of the most antient structures in the country, and was famous even in times of paganism. In this castle is a very large royal magazine for provisions, &c. and the prospect from a part of it, called Konigsberg, is hardly to be equalled. On the other side of the Memel is a mountainous, but delightful country, which, from its extraordinary fertility in corn and pasturage, is called the Larder of Lithuania. Here are prodigious flocks of sheep, great plenty of all kinds of game, and excellent horses.

Insterburg, a town in the government of the same name, is seated on the Angerap, near its conflux with the Inster, where it assumes the name of Pregel, in the fifty-fourth degree thirty-four minutes latitude, and the thirty-ninth degree forty-four minutes east longitude. This town was built in 1572, and surrounded with palisadoes in 1727. It contains about three hundred and fifty houses, and three thousand inhabitants; and besides the Lutheran churches, there is one belonging to the Calvinists. The castle was built in the middle of the fourteenth century, and much improved by king Frederic William. Here is a court of judicature for the administration of justice in all the Lithuanian governments, and also a granary and salt factory. The town carries on a considerable trade in corn, and very excellent beer, remarkable both for its wholesomeness and strength.

Gumbinnen, which lies to the south-east of Insterburg, is a town regularly built since the year 1725, in a very pleasant and fertile country on the river Pisse. It consists of about two hundred houses, and the number of its inhabitants amount to three thousand. The antient deputation-chamber, and the war and domain-chambers, have been removed to this place. The public buildings are the conference-house, the town-house, and the magazine, which was built in 1742. The other public buildings are the Calvinist church in the New Town, and the Saltzburg alms-house. Here is a good cloth manufactory.

The last town we shall mention in the Lithuanian department is Stallupenen, a newly built town, to which a charter was granted in the year 1722. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in cattle, and a good fair is held here; but fresh-water and wood for fuel are very scarce.

There are also several districts stiled Polish governments, and two other districts subject to his Prussian

majesty, all of them bordering on Little Lithuania; the principal places in which we shall now describe.

Oletzko is a castle in the government of the same name, and was much embellished on the inside in the year 1640. Near it stands the large and regular town of Margrabowa, which derives its name from the Margrave Albert, who built it in memory of the interview he had in that place with Sigismund Augustus, king of Poland; and the latter in 1560 also caused a new town to be built on the Polish frontiers, about eight German miles distant from Margrabowa, and from his own name called it Augustowa. The market-place of Margrabowa is the largest in Prussia, and in it stands the church, which is entirely detached from any other building. In the neighbourhood of this town the electoral and Swedish troops defeated the Tartars in 1656, and released the prince of Radzivil, whom they had taken prisoner.

Lick, called in Latin Licca, is a trading town in the government of Lick, seated on the lake of Satrind, in the fifty-third degree fifty minutes north latitude, and the forty-third degree three minutes east longitude. The castle, which was built in 1272, is pleasantly situated on an island: but the town has nothing worthy of notice, except its church, the provincial school, and the archpresbyter's mansion-house. This country suffered extremely by the inhuman ravages of the Tartars in 1656, till they were defeated and driven from the frontiers by the battle of Warsaw. The adjacent country yields plenty of wood, and abounds with fish and other provisions.

The villages of Talussen and Kussinowen in this district are chiefly inhabited by Arians, who live in a quiet inoffensive manner, and perform their devotions in private houses.

Johannesburg is a small but handsome town, seated on a plain near the lake of Spirding, in which are four islands and plenty of fish. It is seated in the fifty-third degree thirty-five minutes north latitude. Here is a castle, which was once fortified, a large granary, and a magazine for forage; and in this town an archpresbyter resides. In 1698 the elector Frederic had here an interview of four days with Augustus II. then newly elected king of Poland.

The king of Prussia is also possessed of two lordships in the Polish territories. Tauraggen, a large district near the river Juhr, in Samogitia, which has an excellent breed of horses, abounds with fish, and yields plenty of game. This district devolved to the house of Brandenburg in 1691, on the decease of the princeps of Radzivil.

The other is Serrey, in the great dutchy of Lithuania, and the palatinate of Trocko, and contains twenty-two villages, three manors, and twenty great and small lakes. This lordship devolved to the house of Brandenburg by the marriage of Lewis Margrave of Brandenburg with the princeps Ludovica Carolina of Radzivil.

The other dominions of his Prussian majesty are entirely separated from this kingdom, and are even much more extensive; but the description of the dutchy of Brandenburg and Silesia must be deferred till we enter upon the German empire. We shall now therefore proceed farther to the north, and describe the extensive country of Sweden.

C H A P. V.

Of the Kingdom of S W E D E N.

S E C T. I.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Coasts, Rivers, Fossils, Minerals, Vegetables, and Animals.

UNDER the name of Sweden is included that extensive country that lies between Denmark, Norway, and Russia : having Russia and the Baltic on the east ; the Baltic and the gulph of Finland on the south ; Norway, the Sound, and Categate on the west ; and Norwegian Lapland on the north : extending from fifty-five degrees forty minutes to the sixty-ninth degree of north latitude, and from the twenty-eighth to the fortieth degree of east longitude from London ; stretching about two hundred or two hundred and fifty Swedish miles in length ; and as each Swedish mile is at least equal to six English, its length may be computed at about fifteen hundred miles, its breadth is reckoned to be a hundred and thirty Swedish miles, or seven hundred and eighty English, and its area is computed to amount to ten thousand square Swedish miles, or sixty thousand English.

The climate of this country is very healthful, but the winters are extremely cold, more especially towards the north. The air is, however, clear and salubrious. In the long nights of winter the moon, the reflection from the snow, and the clearness of the sky, give such light that one may travel as conveniently as in the day. In summer the days are very long, and the heat intense ; but the nights are luminous, and exceeding pleasant. Violent storms of wind and rain are seldom known here, and the sharp keen north wind serves to purify the air. We shall give a more particular account of the climate of the northern parts in treating of Swedish Lapland.

The highways in Sweden are better than can be imagined, considering the many rugged mountains and rocks in the country. These are in a manner plained and made even by the peasants, so that, as Motraye observes, there are scarce better roads in any country in Europe ; nor can a man any where travel with more security and less expence ; for horses are hired for about a penny a mile : but then there are very poor accommodations on the road, both for lodging and diet. The easiest and most expeditious method of travelling is in winter, when they make use of sledges, especially in those parts of the country which abound in lakes and rivers ; for these being all frozen, they meet with no obstacles in their way, and they can more conveniently carry provisions with them in a sledge than on horseback.

The coasts of Sweden are encompassed with innumerable capes, rocks, and islands ; so that the approach to the continent is something dangerous : these they call sheers, and they derive their distinguishing names from the provinces opposite to which they lie, as the Upland sheers, the Sundermanland sheers, &c. These islands, or rocks, lie very near each other, and are of different dimensions. Several thousands of them are inhabited by people who live chiefly by fishing.

The lakes of Sweden are very numerous : the large ones amount to seventeen.

The number of rivers in Sweden is likewise very considerable ; the largest of them are in the Swedish language called Elbe. The principal of these are the Dal-Elbe, in the vale country, which is the largest river in Sweden : the Gullspang, which divides West Gothland from Wermeland ; the Gothische-Elbe, or Gothic river, which rises in the lake of Wener, and about forty-five miles before it falls into the North Sea forms a cataract, by precipitating itself from a high precipice : the Stang, which divides East Gothland into two parts : and the Motalastrom, which issues from the Wetter-lake, being increased by seventeen smaller rivers, forms a cataract, by falling sixteen feet, and discharges itself into the Baltic.

Both the lakes and rivers abound in fish of several kinds, the principal of which are salmon and trout of various sorts.

Sweden likewise affords medicinal springs of experienced virtue.

This country abounds with minerals and fossils of all kinds, as topazes, amethysts, crystals, cornelians, agate, a reddish stone called violstein, coral, a greenish semipellucid stone, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, asbestos, loadstone, touch-stone, free-stone, mill-stones, stucco-stones, slate, lime-stones, coarse and white marble, and beautiful petrifications ; also excellent white marble with beautiful green veins, which are sometimes of a dark, and at others of a bright vivid green, finely interwoven, marienglas or isinglas, vitriol, mercury, amianthus, lead ore, cobalt, allum, fullers-earth, petroleum, sulphur, mother of pearl, &c. gold, silver, tin, lead, copper, and iron.

Though Sweden is extremely mountainous, it affords many tracts of even ground fit for agriculture. The soil is in general sandy or swampy, but is not void of fertility. Gothland produces the greatest quantity of grain, as wheat, rye, barley, oats, and pease ; but every part of Gothland is not equally fertile. Sweden also affords good pastures, and in the southern parts some orchards, which yield fine fruit ; but this country is more famous for its mines than the produce of the soil. Nordland, being full of rocks and mountains, produces but little corn ; however, it has some spots fit for grazing. Lapland yields still less grain than Nordland ; but Finland is in most places extremely fertile, though it is far from being properly cultivated. The corn in the short but hot summers of this climate suddenly grows up and ripens ; but it is far from being sufficient for the subsistence of the inhabitants, and therefore several hundred thousand quarters are annually imported from abroad, particularly from Livonia, Pomerania, and Wismar.

Some patriots among the Swedes strenuously endeavour to promote schemes for the encouragement of agriculture and manufactures ; and if the success be answerable to the present favourable appearances, the produce of the country will soon be sufficient to support some millions of inhabitants more than it does at present, and that in greater affluence and plenty.

In the year 1752, the king granted the new society of agriculture a great deal of waste land for forty or fifty years rent-free, and exempted them from taxes. Hitherto considerable advantages have been made in the forests by cutting down the trees, burning them, and strewing the ashes on the land before it is sown. This sort of ground thus prepared yields a great crop of corn for three years after.

The south parts of Sweden produce pretty good fruit and vegetables ; but towards the north these gradually become more scarce, they degenerate in flavour and goodness, and in the most northern parts no such vegetables are to be found.

In the beginning of the summer the fields in the south are stored with variety of flowers, and, according to some authors, strawberries, raspberries, and such kind of fruit grow upon every rock. In dry years melons are brought to perfection in the gardens ; but peaches, apricots, and other wall-fruit, are extremely scarce, as are also pears, apples, and plumbs ; and those they have are not well tasted. They have, however, cherries of several sorts, and some tolerably good. According to Motraye, the gardens about Stockholm are very fine, and, notwithstanding the severity of the winter, their green-houses afford orange, fig, myrtle, and other trees, plants, and flowers of the most tender nature. Finland produces excellent turnips ; and flax, hemp, and tobacco, are cultivated to great advantage. Their woods chiefly consist

of pines, beech, birch, alder, juniper, and some oak ; which are generally straight, tall, and fit for building. But the extensive woods in Sweden become thinner, and daily decline from the immense consumption of wood in making charcoal, tar, pitch, pot ash, and burning the land. Oaks in particular grow very scarce.

In several parts of Sweden the inhabitants subsist by grazing, but in all the northern countries, the cattle are small, and the wool of the sheep very coarse ; so that in order to mend the breed, rams are imported from England and Spain. The horses are strong, hardy, and vigorous. Of the extraordinary advantages they reap from their rein-deer, we shall give a particular account in our description of Lapland. This kingdom affords plenty of all sorts of deer, elks, hares, and all sorts of tame and wild fowl ; and some parts of Sweden are much infested with lynxes, bears, wolves, foxes, otters, martens, and weasels.

Tame and wild fowl are very plentiful and good ; the reder, which is as large as an ordinary turkey, is much admired, as is also the orras, which is about the size of a hen. Partridges abound here, as does also a bird called yerper, which has some resemblance to a partridge. In winter they take great numbers of black-birds, thrushes, and of a beautiful bird of the bigness of a field-fare, whose feathers are tipped with scarlet, and are supposed to come from Lapland in the hard season. They have but few pigeons. The northern countries abound with eagles, hawks, and other large birds of prey.

S E C T. II.

Of the Persons, Dress, and Manners of the Swedes ; the Number of the Inhabitants, their Employments, Food, Language, Skill in the Sciences, Religion, and Hierarchy. The Progress of the Arts and Manufactures ; with a concise Account of the Trade and Coin of Sweden.

THE Swedes are of a good stature and robust constitutions, capable of enduring hardships and fatigues. Where they are not too much exposed to the weather they have good complexions, and their hair, like that of other northern nations, is inclined to yellow. The women are of a just proportion ; they have also good features, and those who are employed at home are generally fair : but the peasants generally make their females undergo an equal share in all laborious employments. They go to plow, thresh their corn, row upon the water, serve the bricklayers, and carry burthens like the men. The inhabitants are, however, far from being sufficient to people the country ; there is a remarkable instance of this in one place, which though not the most northerly part, there are hardly four thousand seven hundred people to be found in the compass of twelve hundred and seven square miles.

The number of inhabitants of Sweden and Finland have been computed by some learned Swedes at about three millions, reckoning eighty thousand farms, on which are one million six hundred thousand souls, including the women, children, and servants ; and it is said, these farms make up above half the number of the inhabitants in the whole kingdom. Indeed at present some parishes are so extensive, and at the same time so thinly inhabited, that a peasant must travel several Swedish miles to visit his next neighbour ; others contain not more than seventy farms, and yet take up a tract of land equal to the whole province of Holland, though perhaps such a parish has not so many cottages as there are towns in that flourishing country.

The common people subsist by agriculture, working in the mines, grazing, hunting, fishing, and commerce, both domestic and foreign. Indeed the wealth of Sweden arises from its mines, some gold ore has been discovered, and there are several large silver mines said to be very rich. The number of the copper mines, hammering mills, and smelting-houses, is very considerable. Iron ore is in such plenty that it generally appears on the surface of the earth, and is remarkable for its richness.

Indeed the produce of the mines constitutes two-thirds of the national revenue.

The inhabitants of the north parts of Sweden are strangers to delicacies, and live very hardly. They eat a sort of bread made of the bark of birch and pine-trees, straw, and roots. The hacke, or stampe, is a kind of bread very common in the north ; and in times of scarcity is sometimes used in the south parts. This is made of the ears of corn cut from the stems and chopped small ; after which it is dried and ground : on this kind of meal they pour boiling water, and mix it with leaven and corn-meal, where it is to be had. In spring they also take the bark of firs, which at that time comes the easiest off the trees ; but not the thick bark next the wood. Having pared off the outward coarse knots, it is dried in an oven, or placed over a wood-fire, till both sides become brown, swell, and undergo a kind of fermentation, by which the resin is consumed. These pieces of bark being thus dried, are ground, and then bread is made of the meal.

Necessity has also taught these poor people to make bread of a plant called misse, and by the Fins, wekka, called in Latin *calla soleis cordatis*, which is gathered during the spring in the morasses. After it is dried in the sun, it is baked in an oven, or half dried in a warm room, while it is sprinkled with water. It is then put into the oven a second time, and dried till the leaves fall off, and the outward tegument detaches itself at the knots from the stem ; then the stems are chopped small in a trough, and being afterwards ground, the meal is sifted and dough made of it, by pouring hot water on the meal ; it is usual to pour also some brandy lees amongst it, to give the bread a more agreeable flavour. The dough is afterwards kneaded with great labour, and then a third part of corn-meal is mixed with it.

The rest of their food consists of fish, and dried flesh. The rich, however, and the people in the great towns, are not unacquainted with delicacies ; and persons in affluent circumstances here, as in other countries, keep a good table.

Their cloathing in winter is suitable to the climate : the rich wear cloaths lined with warm furs ; instead of which those who cannot afford them, make their cloaths of sheep-skins with the wool on ; and thus, as a modern writer observes, are better provided with cloathing adapted to the season, and to their condition, than the people of most other countries.

The fashion resembles that of the Germans, and other European nations ; and, like them, they wear in summer such cloths and stuffs as they can procure ; the great adorning themselves with lace and embroidery.

The Swedish tongue has such an affinity with the Danish and Norwegian, that the inhabitants of the three kingdoms readily understand each other ; but Finland and Lapland have their respective dialects. In the times of paganism, the Swedes made use of a particular alphabet, termed Runic characters ; as appears from the Runic stones still to be seen in most of the provinces near the sepulchres of the dead.

The Swedes are of late greatly improved in arts and sciences ; but the branches of literature which they chiefly study are œconomics, natural philosophy, with the antiquities, history, and geography of their own, and other countries.

The most ancient and considerable university in Sweden is that of Upsal ; there is also one at Lund in Schonen, and another at Abo in Finland. There is likewise a royal academy of sciences at Stockholm : in the same city is a royal academy of painting and sculpture ; and another for that part of the mathematics which relate to the military art. At Drotningholm has been also lately instituted an academy for the polite arts.

Seminaries for the education of youth are instituted in ten towns of Sweden, and episcopal schools are founded at Upsal and Abo. There are inferior schools in several other places. In short, an ordinance for the improvement and regulation of the art of printing was published by his Swedish majesty in 1752, by which a new society was instituted for that purpose.

With respect to the religion of Sweden, it must be observed, that it was formerly involved in the grossest dark-

ness of idolatry, and Upsal was the seat of their superstitious worship. The emperor Charles the Great sent hither an eminent ecclesiastic, named Herbert, who preached the gospel in East Gothland; and for the same purpose the emperor Lewis sent into Sweden the famous Ansharius, who was succeeded by several others. In the middle ages the clergy had obtained the possession of several large estates, and the pope assumed a great power over the temporal concerns of the kingdom. These abuses procured Olaus Petri, a disciple of Luther, a favourable reception in Sweden, where he promulgated the pure doctrines of the gospel and that great king Gustavus Vasa happily introduced the reformation in Sweden, in spite of all the numerous difficulties he had to encounter. Indeed it afterwards met with great opposition, and underwent many trials in the reigns of John and Sigismund; yet it was at last established by the diet and synod held at Upsal in 1593, when the states of the kingdom solemnly engaged to adhere to the doctrines of Luther; and this religion, since the decree of uniformity passed in 1613, is to be esteemed both by the sovereign and his subjects, the only established church in the kingdom. Indeed in 1741, his majesty was pleased to permit by a royal edict, that the Calvinists and members of the church of England should enjoy the free exercise of their religion in all the sea-ports, except that of Carlscroon.

The hierarchy of Sweden is composed of the archbishop of Upsal, who performs the coronation ceremony, and ten bishops, with three superintendants, one of whom resides at Carlstadt, another at Hernosand, and the third in Gothland. The other ecclesiastics, who are subordinate to these, are the provosts, deacons, chaplains or curates, and the ministers or incumbents in villages.

Mr. A. Birch, in a dissertation delivered in the year 1749, observes, that in this kingdom, exclusive of the German provinces, there are in all three thousand ecclesiastical benefices, one thousand three hundred civil posts, filled by persons learned in the laws, one thousand three hundred military posts, occupied by men of literature, six hundred officers relating to the several departments belonging to the government, and two thousand six hundred physicians and surgeons.

We shall now take a view of the arts cultivated in Sweden; and here it is necessary to observe, that a few centuries ago no manufactures were established in this kingdom. The Hanse-towns not only exported unwrought iron and copper, but the ore of those metals, and when they were wrought into various tools and utensils, sold them again to the Swedes. The inhabitants of the coasts were all fishermen, and the towns had no artificers. The Swedes first began to work their metals, and even their wood, in the reign of the great Gustavus Vasa; and towards the middle of the seventeenth century began to set up all kinds of manufactures, but chiefly employed foreigners, particularly the Dutch and Flemings. In the year 1641 a glass-house was first erected in Sweden; in 1643 the Swedes began to make starch; in 1646 they erected tin-works. They had no booksellers shops till the year 1647; nor needle and silk manufactures till 1649. Leather-dressing and sope-boiling were introduced into this country in 1651; sawing-mills were erected in 1653; iron and steel manufactures in 1654; sugar-baking in 1661; but the woollen and silk manufactures flourished more than all the rest, till the wars of Charles XII. put a stop to trade, and consequently to the progress of the arts.

However, in the reign of Frederic I. trade and manufactures revived; the breeding of sheep was encouraged, tobacco planted, and foreign artists and manufacturers allowed the free exercise of their religion.

Sweden has at present manufactures of silk, cloth, cotton, fustian, and other stuffs; linen, sail-cloth, Morocco leather, dying, and printing of cottons; they have houses for boiling or refining of allum, sugar, sope, and salt; for making glass, porcelain, and paper; they have also gun-powder mills, stamping mills, boring mills, wire and flatting mills; vast quantities of copper, brass, iron, and steel are wrought in Sweden, which has founderies for great guns, pots, and the like, and forges for fire-

arms, anchors; great numbers of ships are also built, and wooden vessels and utensils made in the kingdom.

Sweden is conveniently situated for commerce, as it lies between the Baltic and the North Sea. The towns which are allowed to import and export goods in their own ships, and to trade both with natives and foreigners, are called staple-towns; these are thirty-four in number: but those that lie near the sea, and yet have no foreign commerce, and are only permitted to carry on a domestic trade, to have shares in the freight of goods, and to purchase by wholesale the goods imported by the staple-towns, are called land-towns: some of these are within land, and others sea-port-towns; others again are mine-towns. The chief staple-towns in Sweden are Stockholm and Gottenburg. At the former are held the college of commerce, an assurance-office, and the national bank, which has frequently advanced considerable sums of money for the service of the government, and has a fund of about six millions of silver dollars, each equal to one shilling and six-pence two-thirds sterling, besides current bills to the amount of seventy millions. At Gottenburg is the East India company, erected in 1731, which pays for every ship that returns from India fifty thousand silver dollars to the government: the Swedes have also a Levant company.

The exports from Sweden are iron wrought and in bars, other wrought metals, timber, gun-powder, pitch, tar, salt-petre, pot-ash, cordage, cobalt, furs, Morocco leather as it is called, and dried fish. The imports are grain, flesh, bacon, cheese, butter, tallow, wine, brandy, salt, drugs, hides, hemp, flax, silk, and several foreign manufactures.

The coins of Sweden are, the gold ducat, worth about nine shillings and four-pence sterling.

The silver coins are the oer, one of which is equal to four pfennings, twenty of them to a caroline, which is about one shilling and two-pence sterling, and thirty-two to a silver dollar, equal to one shilling and six-pence three farthings English money. There are double and half carolines; and also double, single, and half-single oers.

The copper pieces are the copper oer, which, like the rundstuc, is equal to two pfennings, and is no more than the eighth part of a penny English. An half, a quarter, and a sixth part of a copper oer. A copper dollar, which is about four groschen, and is nearly equal to six-pence farthing.

The imaginary money are the silver mark, equal to about four-pence three farthings, and the copper mark; the former is three times the value of the latter, and six silver, or eighteen copper marks, is equal to a specie dollar, or thirty-two groschen, which is about one shilling and three-pence sterling.

S E C T. III.

A general View of the History, antient and present Government, Expences, Revenues, military and naval Strength of Sweden.

SWEDEN is famous for being the native country of the fierce and warlike Goths, whose emigrations make such a distinguished figure in history. The kingdom of the Swedes was separate from that of the Goths till the twelfth century; but in 1132 both nations, with their several dependencies, were united under Suercher, king of the Ostrogoths, who was proclaimed king of the Swedes and Goths. It was afterwards agreed by both nations, that the Swedish and Gothic princes should hold the sovereignty alternately; but this occasioned many bloody intestine wars.

Magnus Smeek added Schonen and the adjacent territories to the kingdom; but at length by his mal-administration, deprived both himself and his family of the throne: for after Albert, duke of Mecklenburg, his sister's son, had been elected king, Margaret, who was heiress to the crowns of Denmark and Norway, compelled him to give up the kingdom of Sweden to her; and by the union of Calmar, in the year 1397, united the

the three northern kingdoms under one head. This union filled the Swedes with the greatest indignation: but after several unsuccessful attempts, they at length, by the assistance of a Swedish nobleman, named Gustavus Erickson von Vasa, shook off the Danish yoke. What most provoked them to engage in this revolt, was a perfidious massacre, perpetrated at Stockholm in 1520 by king Christian II.

The brave Gustavus Vasa, who had rendered himself extremely popular by the conduct and intrepidity he had shewn in rescuing Sweden from the oppression of the Danes, was elected king, and not only became the founder of a line of monarchs of his family, but advanced the royal authority to a very great height.

The crown of Sweden had hitherto been elective; but the Swedes had been deprived of this right under the Danish kings; and according to the laws of Sweden, the royal authority was so limited, that the prince had little more than the name of a sovereign; for he could neither make war nor peace, levy money nor troops, without the consent of the states. He could neither erect a fortress, introduce foreign troops, nor put any strong place into the hands of a foreigner. The revenue of the crown then solely arose from the small domains about Upsal, an easy poll-tax on the peasants, and from some fines and forfeitures which fell to the crown in criminal proceedings. The government of castles, fiefs, or manors, which were at first granted by the crown only for a term of years, or at most for life, were insensibly changed into hereditary possessions, which the nobility held by force, without paying the rents that had been reserved out of them. This was also done by the bishops and clergy, who possessed such estates on pretence that the lands of the church ought to be exempted from all duties; and by these encroachments the royal revenue was so reduced, that the king could scarce maintain more than five hundred horse. He was considered only as a kind of captain-general during a war, and as president of the senate in time of peace. The prelates and nobility fortified their castles, and rendered them the seats of so many independent states; and arming their vassals, frequently made war on each other, and sometimes on their sovereign. They neither sought nor expected redress, when they thought themselves injured, from the king's courts; but took upon themselves the power of doing themselves justice. The kingdoms of Norway and Denmark were under the like form of government, both of them were elective, and had their respective senates, without whose concurrence, or that of the states assembled in their diet, the king could transact nothing of importance.

But to return to Gustavus, who found the kingdom in this situation. The states, who thought they never could sufficiently express their gratitude to their deliverer, passed a solemn decree, by which they obliged themselves to approve whatever Gustavus should think fit to perform for the preservation of his dignity, against a pretender who was set up in opposition to him. They, in particular, impowered him to make peace and war, and resolved that the enemies of Gustavus should be esteemed the enemies of the nation.

This happened at the time that the doctrines of the reformation began to prevail in Sweden, and the Romish clergy, Gustavus's greatest enemies, being in possession of half the lands and revenues of the kingdom, and among others, of many royal castles and domains, he thought this a proper time to resume them, by falling in with the doctrines of Luther. He therefore procured an act to be passed, by which it was ordained, that the bishops should immediately surrender their castles to the king, and disband their troops: that their pretended rights to fines and forfeited estates, which originally belonged to the crown, should be entirely abrogated: that all the superfluous plate and bells belonging to the churches should be sold to pay the public debts: that all the grants of estates to the clergy since the year 1445, should be vacated, and the lands re-united to the crown: that two-thirds of the tythes, generally possessed by the bishops and abbots, should be sequestered, for maintaining the army in time of war, and for erecting and endowing public schools and hospitals in time of peace:

and that all the privileges of the clergy should be entirely at his majesty's disposal.

The king having thus obtained a legal title to the revenues of the church, marched through great part of his dominions, at the head of a body of horse, to see the act put in execution, attended by Olaus Petri, and other Lutheran doctors, whom he ordered to preach before him in the principal churches. Wherever he came, he commanded the titles and grants by which the clergy held their lands to be brought before him, and either re-united them to the crown, or restored them to the heirs of the ancient proprietors; by which means he recovered from the secular and regular clergy above two-thirds of their revenues, and seized upon near thirteen thousand considerable farms. He also caused the superfluous church plate to be melted down; and carried into the public treasury. This indeed occasioned some conspiracies and insurrections; but they were easily suppressed.

Having now succeeded so happily in suppressing his greatest enemies, he obliged the nobility and gentry who held the crown lands, which they had kept as their own, to resign up their fiefs, or to pay the rents that were originally due to the crown. Upon this they were obliged to compound with the king, and agree to pay him annually, a certain sum for all their fiefs and manors.

Gustavus next entailed the crown upon his issue, by the free consent of the states, and it has accordingly been enjoyed by his descendants ever since. But the division of the kingdom among his children, the mal-administration of his son John, with the propensity of Erick, John's brother, and his son Sigismund king of Poland to popery, threw the kingdom into terrible distractions, till they were at last composed by Charles IX. and his son Gustavus Adolphus. This last prince conquered the greatest part of Livonia, and penetrated so far into Germany as to become formidable to the emperor; but in 1632 he lost his life in the battle of Lutzen.

His daughter Christina, who succeeded to the throne, took from Norway and Denmark the territories of Jamtland and Harjedalen, with the islands of Gothland and Oeland, and in 1648 added Upper Pomerania, Bremen, Verden, and Wismar to the Swedish dominions; but in the year 1654 that princess solemnly resigned the crown of Sweden, and was very instrumental in advancing to the throne her cousin Charles Gustavus prince Palatine of Deux-Ponts, who in 1658 added Schonen, Halland, Blekingen, and the Lehn of Bohus to the Swedish dominions. His son Charles XI. re-assumed all the alienated crown-lands, and rendered himself an absolute monarch.

Charles XI. dying in 1697, in the forty-second year of his age, and the thirty-seventh of his reign, was succeeded by his only son Charles XII. who being under fifteen years of age, a regency was appointed. In the year 1700 the Poles, Danes, and Russians, taking advantage of the king's youth, endeavoured to recover the dominions of which their ancestors had been deprived. The English and Dutch sent a fleet to his assistance, and compelled the Danes to conclude a peace with him. This young prince then marched against the Russians and Poles, whom at the beginning of the war he defeated in almost every engagement, with numbers far inferior to those of his enemies, though he had well-disciplined veteran troops of Saxons to contend with, as well as Russians and Poles: but while, filled with the utmost contempt for his enemies, he busied himself in dethroning the king of Poland, the czar Peter, improving by his misfortunes, in his turn learnt to conquer: Charles was defeated at Pultowa, and his whole army entirely cut off, or made prisoners, except three or four hundred horse, with whom he escaped to Bender, in Turkey. He there gave signal proofs of his intrepidity and his folly; and, a few years after his return to Sweden, was killed at the siege of Frederichshall. His excessive fondness for war brought the kingdom to very great distress, and he was the last male heir of his family.

After Charles's death his sister Ulrica Eleanor ascended the throne, by the free election of the states; but first gave up all pretensions to arbitrary power; and in 1720, by consent of the diet, transferred the government to her husband Frederic, hereditary prince of Hesse Cassel.

King Frederic having no issue, the states in 1743 nominated Adolphus Frederic, duke of Holstein, and bishop of Eutin, his successor, who accordingly on the decease of Frederic, on the fifth of April, 1751, assumed the reins of government.

The titles of the kings of Sweden have been frequently varied. His present majesty is stiled Adolphus Frederic, by the grace of God, king of Sweden, and of the Goths and Vandals; great Prince of Finland; hereditary sovereign of Norway; duke of Sleswic, Holstein, Stormarn, and Ditmarsh; count of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst.

The arms are quarterly: in the first and fourth azure, three crowns or, for the kingdom of Sweden; in the second and third barré, ondé argent and azure, a lion rampant or, crowned gules, for Gothland; with the arms of Holstein in the escutcheon.

In 1748, Frederic I. revived two antient orders of knighthood, and founded another. The principal is the blue ribbon, or the order of Seraphim, instituted in 1334 by Magnus Smeek. The next is the yellow ribbon, or the order of the sword, founded by Gustavus Vasa in 1523. The order of the black ribbon, or the north star, is of late institution. All three have their proper badges and mottos.

The present form of government was settled in Sweden in the year 1720, by which the king's male issue are declared his heirs and successors to the throne; but before the new sovereign enters on the administration of the government, he renounces by a solemn oath all claim to arbitrary power, and engages to punish with the utmost rigour all who shall endeavour to promote it, as traitors and enemies to the king and kingdom. The king cannot appropriate to himself or alienate any of the national revenues: he cannot settle any of the royal domains on his children, but must supply the necessary sums for their education and portions in ready money: he must be of the Lutheran religion: he is to govern in concert with the council of state, according to the general laws of Sweden, and the present form of government: he is not to engage in any war, to impose any new taxes, to alter the value of the current coin, to detain the salaries or pensions accruing to the officers and soldiers from the crown lands, nor to annul any ordinances made for the improvement of navigation, trade, and manufactures, without the consent of his council and the states of the kingdom.

The states, according to the antient form of government, consist of four orders. The first of these is the nobility, consisting of counts, barons, and gentry. One is chosen out of each family to represent that body, and with them the colonels, lieutenant-colonels, majors, and captains of every regiment, sit and vote.

The second order is composed of the representatives of the clergy, who chuse one out of every rural deanery, consisting of ten parishes, and their charges are borne. These, with the bishops and superintendants, make about two hundred, who represent that body.

The third order of the state consists of the representatives of the burghers, who are chosen by the magistrates and common-council of every corporation. Of these there are four elected for Stockholm. Some of the towns have two votes; but most of them have only one. These members amount to about a hundred and fifty in the whole.

The fourth order consists of the peasants, who choose one out of every district, whose charges they bear, and these amount to about two hundred and fifty.

The king is obliged to convene a diet once in three years; but if he dies without leaving a male heir to the crown, the states meet of themselves. Each of the four classes has its chairman; the marshal of the diet is usually the chairman of the nobles, and the archbishop of Upsal that of the clergy: the burghers usually choose one of the burgomasters of Stockholm, and the peasants have also their speaker; but the counsellors of state have no vote in the diet. Each of the four classes has also its respective house at Stockholm.

When they assemble they first meet in a large room in the king's palace, called the diet-chamber; where his majesty being seated on his throne, and the senators or

privy-counsellors sitting at some distance from him, the president of the chancery usually compliments the assembly in the king's name; after which a secretary acquaints them with the state of affairs since their recess, and the reason of requiring their advice and assistance; to which the marshal of the nobility returns an answer; and after him the archbishop for the clergy, and the speakers of the other orders of the state. They then separate to their several houses or chambers, where they choose a secret committee, composed of an equal number of each body, to whom the ministry communicate such particulars as are not thought proper to be made public, and they prepare what is to be proposed to their respective bodies. In each house affairs are determined by a majority of voices; and a majority in all the chambers is necessary to the passing of every act. When the particulars proposed by the king have been considered and dispatched, each house offers its grievances separately to his majesty, to which he returns an answer; and each member of the three inferior houses has a copy of the king's answer to their respective grievances, and of all the acts passed by the states; both of which they communicate to their electors.

We shall now give an account of the senate, and the several courts or colleges for the administration of public affairs. These are,

The senate, the council of state, or supreme council, in which the king himself presides, and has two votes. Here all national affairs that admit of no delay are determined by a majority of voices. This council consists only of fourteen members, who are chosen in the following manner: twenty-four of the nobility, or house of lords, twelve of the clergy, and as many of the burgeses being assembled, take an oath of secrecy, after which they proceed to chuse three persons fit to be advanced to that dignity, on a vacancy, in which they must be unanimous. Of these his majesty chooses which he pleases. No senator can be elected in the intervals of their diet; nor may more than two of one family be of the senate at the same time.

The royal courts of justice, of which the Swedish properly so called is held at Stockholm, the Gothic at Jonkoping, and that of Finland at Abo.

The royal war-office has a senator for president, and two others of the same dignity for his associates, with a general of the artillery, a quarter-master-general, and two counsellors of war, under whose direction are all the land-forces, the artillery, and fortifications. Under this office are the commissary of war's, the ordnance, and pay-master's-offices; those of the militia, the fortifications, stores, camp, cloathing, quarters, &c.

The court of admiralty, which is held at Carlscroon, has an admiral for its president, with all the other admirals and principal sea-officers for his assistants.

The state-office, in which the prime minister resides. As this office has the care of the records of the kingdom, the secretary of state is a member of it.

The royal chamber of finances.

The royal domain chamber.

The royal chamber of revision.

The royal college of commerce.

The royal chancery.

The office of the states, and the manufacture-office.

Foreigners are excluded from all posts in the government.

With respect to the laws of Sweden, the new Swedish digest was allowed of by all the states in the diets held in 1731 and 1734, and was confirmed by the king, and published in 1736. It contains a new course of proceedings, by which all law-suits are easily determined and brought to a speedy issue. The towns and districts of the peasants have their inferior courts, from which an appeal lies to the superior or provincial courts, and from these again to the royal courts of justice. In the village courts of judicature twelve peasants always sit as assistants in trying causes.

The punishment of theft in Sweden is perpetual slavery; the criminal being condemned to labour all his life in the service of the crown, in carrying wood and stone for the repair of the fortifications, or other servile and laborious employment. He wears an iron collar night and day

about his neck, to which a bow of the same metal is fastened that comes over his head, and has a little bell that rings upon the least motion.

Duelling, where one of the parties is slain, is punished with the death of the survivor; and if neither of them fall, they both suffer two years imprisonment, during which they are to live upon bread and water, and also pay a fine.

For murder, adultery, and burning of houses, the criminal, if a man, is hanged; and if a woman, beheaded: but where the facts are attended with aggravating circumstances, the offender is hung in chains, burnt, or quartered. Where a nobleman or gentleman commits a capital crime, he is shot to death.

We shall now consider the expences, revenues, military and naval forces of Sweden. The ordinary and extraordinary expences for the kingdom of Sweden, and the great dutchy of Finland, for the year 1753, amounted to ten millions two hundred and forty thousand four hundred and thirty-four silver dollars; but the ordinary revenue of the kingdom does not exceed eight millions seven hundred and forty-five thousand seven hundred and eleven, including the sum allowed to the king for his civil list. The usual grant to the king for his privy purse is about two hundred thousand silver dollars; to the queen a hundred thousand; to the princess and princesses, the children of the reigning monarch, thirty thousand. The crown debts are so great, that since the year 1753 the annual interest of them has amounted to one million twenty-eight thousand two hundred and eighty-six silver dollars.

The military forces of Sweden consist partly of raised and partly of distributed regiments. The latter, which are the national militia, form the greatest part, and, according to an ordinance published by Charles XI. are maintained by the country; for that prince obliged the nobility and gentry, as well as the peasants, to provide and maintain both horse and foot, of which each province furnishes its contingency.

As to the infantry, every three farmers provide a foot-soldier, furnish pay, and give him a dwelling and a piece of land; but he has his accoutrements, arms, and ammunition from the crown, which also pays the principal and subaltern officers, and supplies the troops with provision when they are on their march, or in the field, except at the rendezvous, in order to be mustered.

The officers of horse and foot are maintained out of the lands resumed and reunited to the crown. Every officer has a house and land assigned him in that part of the country where his regiment is quartered, and the rent of other farms to the value of his pay, which they receive either in money, corn, or other goods. The lands assigned for the payment of a colonel of foot are about three hundred pounds a year, and the rest of the officers in proportion. But on a march, or in the field, the crown furnishes them with subsistence, and provides ammunition and forage for their horses.

The raised regiments of infantry, most of which serve as garrisons in the fortified places, consist of the king's life-guards, which amount to thirteen thousand eight hundred men; a regiment of artillery, consisting of three thousand; and the distributed regiments, which amount to twenty-four thousand two hundred and thirty-eight. Hence the whole body of the infantry amount to forty-one thousand and thirty-eight. The cavalry, including the king's regiment of life-guards, amounts to seven thousand and twenty-six; besides three regiments and one squadron of dragoons, amounting together to three thousand one hundred and fifty-four. Hence it appears that the whole army consists of fifty-one thousand two hundred and eighteen men: but in time of war several extraordinary regiments are raised, which amount to at least an equal number.

A college of invalids is founded at Wadstena for twenty-eight field-officers, nineteen subaltern officers, and twenty-two private men, who are there provided with lodging, firing, provisions, and cloaths: besides these above five hundred field officers, five hundred and fifty subalterns, and four thousand private men have pensions, and some other small gratuities.

The Swedish navy consists of twenty-four ships of war, from the first to the sixth rates, carrying from a hundred

to forty-two guns; twelve frigates, carrying from thirty-six to twelve guns; four brigantines, carrying from eight to six guns; with several bomb-ketches, and forty galleys.

Sweden at present consists of five great divisions, or general provinces; Finland, Gothland, Sweden properly so called, Nordland, and Lapland.

S E C T. IV.

Of Finland, its Situation, Extent, and Produce. A Description of its several Provinces, and of the principal Places in each.

IN describing the provinces of Sweden we shall begin with the easternmost part. Finland, called by the natives Suomi, is bounded on the east by Russia, on the south by the gulph of Finland, on the west by the gulph of Bothnia, and on the north by a part of Swedish Lapland. This country contains about eighteen thousand square English miles, and is naturally fertile; but it is far from being properly cultivated or sufficiently peopled according to its extent.

The pastures of Finland are in many places so rich, that the inhabitants obtain great profit by grazing; but the breed of cattle is here very small. Here are considerable woods of pine-trees; so that vast quantities of timber, boards, and charcoal, are sent from hence to Stockholm for exportation. It produces several sorts of fruit, as pears, apples, plums, and cherries; and abounds with all sorts of game.

Finland is every where watered with lakes, rivers, and brooks, which yield plenty of fish, and fine pearls are found in the pearl-fisheries. Lead ore is found in several parts of this province, and in the lakes and morasses are dug up a ferruginous earth, from which iron is extracted. Finland is divided into five provinces, of each of which we shall give some account.

We shall begin with Finland Proper, which is situated at the angle where the gulphs of Bothnia and Finland join, and is about a hundred and seventy-four English miles in length, and a hundred and eight in breadth. The soil is very fertile, and the country yields very delightful prospects, especially in the southern parts, where it is agreeably diversified with lakes, rivers, corn-fields, pastures, hop-grounds, woods, and some iron works; but the north part of Finland is not so well cultivated. The fief of Biorneborg is one of the most fertile parts in all Finland; and here is a rich pearl-fishery, where pearls of an extraordinary size are found, for the most part single; but sometimes a cluster of two or three pearls are found in the same shell. The inhabitants of this country subsist by grazing, agriculture, fishing, and making of wooden-ware; and traffic in grain, meal, cotton, butter, talc, yarn stockings, and linen.

The principal places in Finland Proper are,

Abo, in Latin Aboa, is seated on the river Aurojocki, which runs through the city. It stands on the point of the angle formed by the gulph of Bothnia and Finland, has a commodious harbour, and is the most considerable staple town in the whole country. It is situated in sixty degrees forty minutes north latitude, and in twenty-one degrees twenty-eight minutes east longitude, and is almost surrounded with hills. The cathedral, which was built in 1390, is a handsome structure. King Gustavus Adolphus founded a seminary here, which queen Christina afterwards converted into an academy. A royal high court of judicature, which is the only one in Finland, is held at Abo, where the governor of the province also resides. The chief magistrates are two burgo-masters. The city carries on a brisk trade in corn, provisions, linen, planks, &c. The Russians, who were in possession of this place from the year 1713 to 1720, committed great ravages here. It has also frequently suffered by fire. In the year 1743 a peace was concluded in this city between Sweden and Russia. Abo castle is one of the most antient fortifications in Finland; it is seated on a peninsula at the mouth of the river Aura, and has been several times destroyed by the enemy, and consumed by fire.

At the distance of nine English miles from Abo is Nadendahl, in Latin Vallis Gratiae. A convent which occasioned the building of this town, was sequestered at the Reformation, the nuns, however, continued there till the year 1595, and set up a manufactory of knit stockings, which still continues to flourish, and several hundred pairs of thread stockings are annually sold at a very low rate, and sent from hence to Stockholm and other places. Near the town is a fine medicinal spring.

Biorneborg is a sea-port town, situated in the sixty-second degree of north latitude, on a narrow sandy tract of ground on the bank of the river Kumo, which, just below the town, divides itself into several branches, forming many small islands within the distance of three miles. Great quantities of wooden-ware and fish, particularly salmon and large whittings, are exported from hence to Stockholm and other places. The quay belonging to this town is at Sandud, which is at about six miles distance.

Between the island of Aland and Finland are many small islands, shelves, and rocks, which render that part of the sea very dangerous to mariners. Aland is situated in the sixty-first degree five minutes north latitude; it is about thirty-six miles in length, and near as many in breadth. The soil is so fertile, that the inhabitants seldom experience any scarcity of corn. It also produces rich pastures for grazing. The woods belong to the king, and are every where enclosed. In different parts of the island are quarries of lime-stone; and lynxes, foxes, and hares abound here; but bears are not very common. The inhabitants, who speak the Swedish dialect, chiefly subsist by agriculture, grazing, fishing, hunting, catching of sea-fowl, and working in the woods. They also trade in butter, wooden-ware, coals, and lime; and some of them are good mariners. The clergy of this island are under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Abo.

The next province of Finland we shall mention is that of East Bothnia, which lies farther north on the sea-coast, and obtained its name from its being situated on the east side of the gulph of Bothnia. Nature has separated it from the adjacent countries by a chain of hills, which run along the east side of it; and from these eminences issue several rivers. The country, especially on the sea-coast towards the south, is for the most part level, but full of morasses. The industry of the inhabitants in agriculture is attended with good success, so that they supply other places with corn; but their hopes of a good crop are sometimes frustrated by an unexpected frost. However, some large tracts of land lie uncultivated. East Bothnia abounds in woods, and with lakes and rivers that yield plenty of fish; and in some of the rivers are found pearls. The inhabitants subsist chiefly by agriculture, grazing, burning lime and tiles, and in making tar. Of the last they annually extract fifty thousand barrels. They also employ themselves in hunting and fishing, ship-building, and making of wooden-ware. The commodities exported from hence are beams, planks, tar, train oil, cattle, fish, and other provisions.

All the parishes in this province amount only to nineteen inhabited by Fins, and nine by the Swedes. The number of the inhabitants is computed at eighty thousand.

East Bothnia is divided into three parts, all under one governor; the principal places in which are,

Ulea, or Ulaborg, a sea-port town, situated on a peninsula at the mouth of the river Ulea-Elf, in the sixty-fifth degree twenty minutes latitude, and is the largest town in all East Bothnia. It has very straight and long streets, a good school, a commodious harbour, and a fine salmon fishery. In the year 1714 it was demolished by the Russians. The castle which stands near it on a small island, is said to be at present in a ruinous condition.

Gamla-Carleby, in Latin Carolina-Antiqua, was built in the reign of Gustavus Adolphus, in a fertile and pleasant country, in the sixty-fourth degree eight minutes north latitude. It has a commodious harbour, and the inhabitants not only carry on a considerable trade in tar, but make great advantages by ship-building. The adjacent country is famous for a particular kind of salt,

which the peasants boil from the sea-water in spring and autumn. At first it is of a dirty grey colour; but upon pouring some sour milk into the clarifying vessel, it becomes as white as snow.

The province of Tavastland, in Latin Tavastia, lies in the middle of Finland, and is a hundred and eighty miles in length, and a hundred and twenty in breadth. The country, which is very fertile, consists of fine plains, watered by a great number of lakes and rivers that abound with fish, and is diversified with meadow and arable lands; and with respect to these natural advantages, it is scarce surpassed by any province in Sweden. It is also stored with cattle, and all sorts of game: but it is far from being well cultivated, and consequently the peasants are generally poor. The inhabitants subsist by agriculture, grazing, and breeding of cattle, and some of them are employed in the fisheries. They also trade in corn, peas, beans, butter, cattle, leather, dried fish, tallow, flax, hemp, lime, and the bark of trees.

One of the most remarkable places in this province is Croneburg, or Tavastehus, in Latin Croneburgum, a small town built in 1650, on a pleasant spot, and endowed with considerable privileges. This town, which is situated in the sixty-first degree twenty-five minutes latitude, was taken by the Russians in 1713, and in the last war between them and the Swedes it was laid in ashes. The castle, which, exclusive of the town, is properly called Tavastehus, or Tavasteburg, is well fortified, and serves for an arsenal and royal magazine.

The province of Nyland, in Latin Nylandia, lies in a bay of the gulf of Finland, and was formerly peopled by the Fins; but is now inhabited by the Swedes. It is near a hundred and twenty-eight miles in length, and in few places more than thirty in breadth. It is a level, fertile, and pleasant country, better peopled and cultivated than the neighbouring provinces. It consists of arable and excellent pastures, woods, rivers and lakes that abound with fish, and is well stored with all sorts of game. Here are also some sawing-mills and iron-founderies. The inhabitants subsist by agriculture, grazing, and fishing, and trade in corn, planks, linen, and dried fish.

The principal towns in this province are,

Helsingfors, in Latin Helsingforsa, a staple-town, and the best in the province, is seated on a peninsula, on the south coast, and has a good harbour, not inferior to any in Sweden. This town was built by Gustavus I. but in the late wars was laid in ashes, and has not yet recovered its former flourishing state. The governor of Nyland and Tavastland resides in this town, and within these few years several forts have been built in its neighbourhood.

Borgo, in Latin Borga, an ancient sea-port, with an indifferent harbour. This town was almost entirely demolished in the late war; but is now in a very flourishing condition. It is a bishop's see, and has a good seminary. The inhabitants trade in all kinds of linen.

Degerby, or Louisa, is a well-built staple-town on a creek of the gulf of Finland, and has a commodious harbour. It was built in 1745 as a frontier town towards the Russian territories, according to the limits settled by the last treaty of peace, and was called Degerby from the nobleman's estate on which it stands; but in 1752 king Adolphus Frederic changed its name to that of Louisa.

Besides the above five provinces, Finland contains the country of Sawolax, which is two hundred and four miles in length, and a hundred and twenty-six in breadth, but produces very little corn or pasture, it mostly consisting of woods, lakes, rivers, and morasses. The land is so unequally divided, and so thinly inhabited, that the grounds belonging to some farms, lie above sixty miles from the house. The inhabitants, however, get a tolerable subsistence by sowing buck-wheat, grazing, hunting, fishing and making wooden-ware. They also trade in tallow, butter, dried fish, hides, and furs. The country abounds in elks and rein-deer; but contains no towns worthy of notice.

S E C T. V.

Of Gothland in general; its great Divisions; with a particular Account of them; and their several Provinces, Islands, and Towns.

GOTHLAND is bounded on the east and south by the Baltic; on the west by Norway, the Sound, and the German ocean; and on the north by Sweden Proper. It is a pleasant and fertile country, consisting of fine plains and enclosures, and the greatest part of the corn of the growth of Sweden is produced here. It also abounds in lakes and rivers, which yield great quantities of fish, and in extensive forests and rich mines.

Gothland had anciently its own sovereigns; but Suercher, king of the Ostrogoths, being proclaimed king of the Swedes and Goths in 1132, both these kingdoms became united under one sovereign. The arms of Gothland are azure, a lion rampant going over three streams; by which the Goths probably intended to denote their warlike prowess, and the success of their arms in three countries of Europe.

The number of towns in Gothland amount to forty-eight, and it is divided into East Gothland, West Gothland, and South Gothland.

East Gothland, in Latin Ostro-Gothia, properly so called, includes Smaland, with the islands Oeland and Gothland. This country, which had formerly its particular kings and its own laws, is ninety-six miles in length, and ninety in breadth, and produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, and peas in such plenty as to supply the neighbouring provinces. It has also many fine orchards, meadows, and pastures, with lakes and rivers abounding with variety of fish, extensive forests, some of which are of oak and birch, and valuable iron mines. The inhabitants are employed in agriculture, grazing, hunting, fishing, and in the mines and quarries. Along the banks of the lake of Wetter are found agate, cornelians, touch-stone, and rattle-stones. In the forest of Kalmar-den are dug up fine marble, and a reddish violet-stone which emits a very fragrant smell. Antimony is found in mount Amberg, and beautiful petrifications in several parts of the country.

There are twenty-three lakes in East Gothland, the most remarkable of which is the Wetter, which extends ninety miles in length, and fifteen in breadth, and contains two or three islands. It has but one outlet, which is by the river Motala, though above forty little streams discharge themselves into it. This lake is said to lie above a hundred feet higher than either the Baltic or the North Sea, and is deep and clear, but very boisterous in winter.

The rivers of East Gothland are the Motala, just mentioned, which receives seventeen rivulets, and passing through the whole country discharges itself into the Baltic; near Norkioping it precipitates its waters from a rock sixteen fathoms high: the Stang, which divides the country into the east and west parts, and discharges itself into the lake of Roxen: the Molby or Nibro, the Karesbo, and the Skena.

East Gothland consists of one diocese, which is that of Linkioping; the second in Sweden as to precedence. It includes twenty-two provostships, and is divided into twenty-one districts, which belong to the prefecture of Linkioping.

The principal place in East Gothland is Norkioping, in Latin Norcopia, a staple-town situated on the river Motala. It is next to Stockholm in extent, and is esteemed one of the best cities in the kingdom. It was destroyed by the Russians, but has recovered itself, and contains five churches, has a new and commodious quay, and carries on a considerable trade. Here are paper mills, copper mills, a printing-house, and woollen manufactures.

The country of Smaland, or Smoland, is a hundred and twenty miles in length, and seventy-two in breadth, and was antiently governed by its own kings. It probably received the name of Smaland, or small parcels of land, because in antient times the country was so overrun with woods and barren wastes, that the inhabitants

could only cultivate a few spots here and there between them; and even to this day are seen large heaps of stones in the woods, which were thrown together by the first inhabitants, in order to clear the ground. Though Smaland is mountainous, those parts which are cultivated are very fruitful, and it is particularly remarkable for its fine pastures. Here are large forests of beech and other trees. A vein of gold has been discovered in this province, and there are also mines of silver, copper, and iron, and even a great quantity of the latter is found at the bottom of the lakes.

The high mountain of Hunsberg resembles a cone, and may be seen at the distance of eight Swedish miles. The inhabitants obtain a comfortable subsistence by agriculture, grazing, and the mines. They also deal in cattle, butter, cheese, flesh, bacon, tallow, fish, hops, beans, planks, masts, tar, pot-ash, iron, and grain.

In this province are twenty-one lakes, which afford nothing remarkable, and ten rivers, the principal of which are the Emma, the Nissa, the Laga, and the Helgea.

Smaland consists of two dioceses, that of Wexio, and that of Calmar, and contains three prefectures, which include twenty-four districts, the most remarkable places in which are,

Calmar, in Latin Calmaria, is seated in the prefecture of the same name on the main sea, opposite to the isle of Oeland, in the fifty-sixth degree forty minutes latitude, and in the sixteenth degree four minutes east longitude. It is a fine staple city, and one of the oldest in Gothland: it is nearly of a circular form, and has fine regular streets, in which are about five hundred houses. It is surrounded on the land side by four walls and moats; but has only one wall towards the sea. At the distance of a mile and a half from the town, stands the strong fort of Grimskiar, and towards the north is another fort on the island of Karinglaret. Calmar castle stands near the Sound, or streight, opposite to the city; it has two ditches, and is so well fortified, that it has been generally considered as the strongest and most important fortress on the frontiers. The prefect or governor resides in the royal palace of Hofmo, near the city; here are also a bishop's palace, a fine cathedral, a commodious quay for shipping, and a seminary, and it has good manufactories of cloths and woollen stuffs. The Sound, which runs between the castle and the island of Oeland, is called Calmar-Sound, and is about six miles over. In this city the famous union of Calmar was concluded between the three northern kingdoms.

Jonkioping, in Latin Junecopia, is a very ancient staple-town, in the prefecture of the same name, situated on a peninsula between the lakes of Wetter, Monk, and Rock. This town formerly stood in another place; but the inhabitants were removed hither in the reign of Gustavus Adolphus. The suburbs on both sides are separated from the town by a canal that conveys water out of the lake of Lill into that of Rock. There are here three churches, an armoury, an elaboratory, and an arsenal belonging to the crown: fire-arms are also made here. The supreme court of justice for Gothland is held in this town, and ten provincial with forty-eight inferior courts are under its jurisdiction.

Wexio, in Latin Wexionia, is seated in the prefecture of Cronoberg, almost in the center of the province, and is the residence of the prefect or governor. In the year 1570, this town was reduced to ashes by the Danes. A seminary was founded here in 1648; but the library and cathedral, which was above nine-hundred years old, and in which St. Siegfried, its founder, was interred, were destroyed by fire in 1740.

About twelve miles from this city is Browalla heath, famous for being the place where the Danes were totally defeated by the heroic Blenda, who commanded the Smaland women in the absence of their husbands, that were engaged in another expedition. As a recompence for their bravery, the women of Smaland were honoured with extraordinary privileges, and distinguished by their wearing a kind of martial head-dress: they have even still an equal share with the men in inheritances.

The pleasant island of Oeland, called in Latin Oelandia, lies in the Baltic, directly opposite to the Calmar-Sound.

Sound. It is eighty-four miles in length, and but nine broad in the widest place. It is divided into the north and south parts: in the former are several fine forests, and many quarries of stone; but in the latter the ground being more level, is fit both for pasture and tillage. The island in general yields plenty of honey, wax, butter, and nuts. The Oeland horses are small, but strong, and full of mettle. Here are also a multitude of deer of several kinds, as likewise hares and wild boars. The king's forest extends over the whole island. Both parts of Oeland abound in allum-mines, black marble, and free-stone, remarkable for its hardness. The inhabitants are said to exceed seven thousand persons, who are employed in agriculture, working in the quarries, cutting stone, burning lime, fishing, and navigation.

In the north part of the island is Borgholm, a stately royal seat well fortified, though it has been several times taken by the Danes; but the Swedes have always insisted on its being given up to them by treaties. Near it is the commodious harbour of Borga.

In the province of East Gothland is also the island of Gothland, or Gottland, in Latin Gottlandia, which is situated in the Baltic, and is about a hundred and eight miles in length, though but from thirty to thirty-six in breadth. From its convenient situation it acquired the name of the Eye of the Baltic. It was formerly governed by its own kings, and had its peculiar laws and privileges; but is at present subject to the supreme court of justice at Stockholm. It is said to have obtained its name from its having been the winter-quarters of the Goths, when they put to sea on naval expeditions.

As the soil is fertile, it has good pastures, fine woods of oaks and pines, as well as profitable fisheries. It has large quarries of stone of different kinds fit for building. Here are also several curious species of stone, corals, cornelians, agates, and beautiful petrifications.

The inhabitants subsist by agriculture, grazing, fishing, burning lime, working in the quarries, navigation, and several sorts of mechanic trades. The peasants sell none of their commodities to the inhabitants of the towns; but when one of them, says Dr. Busching, comes to market, the burgher to whom he applies, furnishes him with all necessaries, and gives him money to enable him to pay his taxes; while the peasant, on the other hand, delivers up to the burgher all the produce of his industry, without mentioning a word about the price, both parties proceeding according to the dictates of natural justice and equity.

This island is divided into three parts, namely, the North, Middle, and South part; the first of which contains seven, the second six, and the third seven districts; but the only town worthy of notice is

Wibby, a very ancient staple city, which in former times was one of the Hanse-towns, and was frequently visited by the Swedes, Goths, Danes, Normans, French, English, Saxons, Livonians, Spaniards, Russians, Greeks, and other nations. In times of popery there were three churches and five convents within the city, besides two within the walls. The maritime laws of Wibby were famous in all parts, and adopted along the coast of the Baltic. Wibby is the residence of the superintendant and prefect; it has a church and school; its harbour is safe and commodious, and the town is in a pretty flourishing condition.

We now come to West Gothland, which contains four provinces, West Gothland properly so called, Warmeland, Daland, or the Vale Country, and Bohus-Lehn.

West Gothland properly so called, lies below the lake of Wener, and is a hundred and twenty miles in length, and ninety-six in breadth. It was antiently governed by its own kings, and had its particular laws and privileges. The pastures are so rich, that the inhabitants are able to supply other parts with butter and cheese; the last of which is much admired. The country also produces corn, fruit-trees, and vegetables; and here likewise are iron and allum works.

The lake of Wener, or Vener, is eighty-four miles in length, and forty-two in breadth; it ebbs and flows in a very extraordinary manner, is stored with great plenty of fish, and has several islands. Twenty-four rivers dis-

charge themselves into it, yet none flows out of it, but the large river called Gotha-Elbe.

The Gotha-Elbe, or Gothic river, discharges itself into the North Sea near Gottenburg. About forty-five miles from its mouth is the remarkable cataract of Trolhatta, where the water is precipitated between two rocks; it consists of three cascades, each of them about five fathoms high, and about three hundred fathoms from each other. At the distance of three miles from this cataract is a bridge, built from one rock to another, over another high cataract formed by this river, at the bottom of which great number of salmon are caught; and twelve miles lower down is another water-fall, where the boats and other vessels pass through three sluices.

The other rivers in West Gothland are the Halle and the Gullspang, which last divides East Gothland from Warmeland.

West Gothland is divided into two dioceses, that of Skara, and that of Gottenburg. The former is the third in rank, and includes fifteen provostships; the latter is the tenth in rank, and contains nine provostships. The most considerable town in West Gothland Proper is,

Gottenburg, in Latin Gothoburgum, a staple-town, first built in 1607 by Charles IX. on the island of Hisingen; but being destroyed by the Danes in 1611, the inhabitants, about seven years after, removed to the place where the town now stands, and were favoured with several considerable privileges. Gottenburg carries on the greatest trade of any city in Sweden, except Stockholm. It is situated on the borders of West Gothland, at the mouth of the river Moludal, which runs close by the north side of the city, and is conveyed through it by several canals. The streets are broad and kept very clean, and since the year 1746 the greatest part of the houses have been rebuilt with stone. It is regularly fortified, and on the land-side is defended by two citadels, called the Lion and the Crown; and towards the sea by the citadel of New Elfsburg. The governor of the prefectures of Gottenburg and Bohus, who is also commandant of the forts and fortifications, resides in the city. Gottenburg is a bishop's see, and has two printing-houses, a city church, a seminary, an orphan-house, an edifice called the crown-house, where the garrison attend divine service, a German church, and several quays and docks. The number of inhabitants is said to amount to thirteen thousand. In 1731 an East India company was established in this city, for the harbour is a very fine one, and is resorted to by a great number of ships: there is here also a college of admiralty and a court of appeals. It is situated in fifty-eight degrees twenty-nine minutes north latitude, and in eleven degrees thirty-six minutes east longitude.

The province of Warmeland forms a semicircle round the north part of the lake of Wener, and is about two hundred and ten miles in length, and a hundred and fourteen in breadth. It is said to derive its name from the Gothic word Wara, which signifies to defend; the inhabitants of this country having bravely defended it from the incursions of their enemies.

Warmeland is very mountainous; but the south and east parts are most level and fertile; yet the woods and mines of silver, lead, copper, and iron, with the forgeries and founderies on the west and north, furnish a great variety of employments for the inhabitants. In the year 1726 some pure silver was found in an iron mine near Philipstadt, and the memory of this extraordinary circumstance has been preserved by some medals being struck on the occasion.

One of the principal towns in this province is Carlstadt, an inland town, built by duke Charles on the island of Tingwalla, where the Clara falls into the lake of Wener. It stands on a commodious situation, has about eight hundred inhabitants, a superintendant, a school founded by king Charles XI. a woollen manufacture, a good metal weigh-house, from which great quantities of iron and copper are exported, and the town carries on a considerable trade.

Daland, or Thalland, or the vale country of West Gothland, derives its name from the great number of vallies it contains. It lies between the lake of Wener and

and Bohus-Lehn, and is sixty miles in length, and thirty-five in breadth. The greatest part of the province is covered with rocks and mountains; but the plains and valleys that lie between them are so fruitful, as to supply the country with plenty of grain. The inhabitants chiefly subsist by grazing, breeding of sheep, agriculture, fishing, and working in the mines. They also carry on a considerable trade in masts, deal-planks, tar, horses, oxen, sheep, bacon, butter, and cheese. The principal town in this province is,

Amal, which is situated on the lake of Wener, and divides the town and market-place into two parts. This town has a metal weigh-house, and carries on a considerable trade, particularly in timber, deals, and tar.

The government of Bohus-Lehn is bounded on one side by the North Sea, and on the other by the vale country of West Gothland, extending a hundred and twenty-six miles in length, and between eighteen and twenty-four in breadth. The country is in general level, and the soil, which is fertile, consists of fine meadows and arable land, diversified with woods, lakes, and rivers; but there are some mountains in which are large cavities that resemble spacious apartments, and are called the caves of the giants. There is also a high mountain, which chiefly consists of a kind of shells that are dug up and calcined for making lime. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in agriculture, grazing, and fishing. They also carry on a trade in masts, planks, deals, tar, cattle, hides, tallow, lime, and all kinds of fish. This country is in the diocese of Gottenburg.

We now come to South Gothland, which consists of the three provinces Schonen, Halland, and Blekingen.

The province of Schonen was in antient times governed by its own kings, and had its particular laws. If measured according to the roads, it is eighty-four miles in length, and about sixty-six in breadth. It is the most level, pleasant, and fertile spot in all Sweden, and produces plenty of rye, barley, oats, buck-wheat, pease, cummin-seed, and honey; also pit-coal, chalk, tiles, and pot-ash, of which ten thousand tons are annually exported from hence. The inhabitants likewise carry on a considerable trade in mill-stones, oak, timber, cordage, fish of several kinds, fine horses, sheep, and horned cattle. All the animals are larger in Schonen than in the northern parts of Sweden; but are less vigorous. Allum, sulphur, and amber, are also found here. This country, with regard to its many advantages, may be called the store-house and granary of Sweden. It contains more well-built towns, and finer seats belonging to the noblemen, than any other province in Sweden. The number of its inhabitants are computed at above six hundred thousand persons.

The principal places in this province are,

Lunden, in Latin Lunda Gothorum, a very antient city, an archbishop's see, and formerly the place where the kings of this country resided. It is said to have contained in the times of popery twenty-three churches, and at least as many convents. Its cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Lawrence, is an antient stately building, and has a superb altar, and a pulpit of alabaster and black marble. Authors have mentioned, as the greatest curiosity in this church, a very curious clock, which not only shews the hour, day, month, and year, together with all the festivals; but every hour two horsemen come forth, and encounter each other, giving the same number of blows that the hammer strikes upon the bell: then a door opening discovers the Virgin Mary sitting on a throne, with the infant Jesus in her arms, and the wise-men paying their homage to him, two trumpeters sounding all the while. Within this cathedral is a fine well, with which all the other wells in the city have a communication. The city has an university founded by Charles XI. whence it is stiled Academia Carolina Gothorum: it has since received the addition of a very elegant anatomical theatre; and has also a physic-garden. The bishop of the see is vice-chancellor of the university. The inhabitants of the city are chiefly employed in agriculture. In its neighbourhood are several good tobacco plantations, which nearly produce a hundred and sixty

thousand pounds weight annually. Above twenty thousand mulberry-trees have also been lately planted in the neighbourhood of this city. In 1679 king Charles XI. entirely defeated the Danes near this place, and in 1679 a peace was concluded here between the two kingdoms. It stands in latitude fifty-five degrees forty-one minutes six seconds.

Christianstadt is situated on the river Helgea, by which it is encompassed on three sides, in the latitude of fifty-six degrees one minute twenty seconds. This town was originally built in 1614 by Christian IV. king of Denmark, from whom it received its name. It has a handsome church, a good school, and a strong bridge, on which several warehouses are built. It has manufactures of silk, woollen, and linen cloth, and carries on a considerable trade. It is fortified with walls and horn-works; but the castle, which stands near the church, has nothing worthy of notice. In 1676 the Danes made themselves masters of this town, but the very next year Charles XI. retook it sword in hand.

Ween, in Latin Hevona, is a fertile island in the Sound, about eight thousand one hundred and sixty paces in circumference, and at a distance appears like a high mountain. By the treaty of Roschild, in 1658, it was annexed to the crown of Sweden. This island was rendered famous by its being granted to the celebrated astronomer Tycho Brahe, together with a fief in Norway, and some other lands by Frederic II. king of Denmark, who caused an elegant seat to be built for him at a very considerable expence. This structure, which is called Uranienburg, is sixty feet square, and seventy feet high. It has two towers designed for observatories, and two others which are not so high, but yield an extensive prospect, and it has also a delightful garden. However, the malice of Tycho's enemies deprived him of these enjoyments; he was obliged to leave Uranienburg in 1597, and died in Germany in 1601. His celestial globe, which was six feet in diameter, and is said to have cost him five thousand dollars, was carried from hence to Benadky, in Bohemia, and soon after it was removed to Prague, from whence it was conveyed to Neisse, in Silesia; but that town being taken in 1632, this curious machine was removed to Copenhagen, and deposited in the round tower, where it was entirely destroyed in 1728 by the dreadful fire which laid great part of that flourishing city in ashes. All the other valuable mathematical instruments and curious machines belonging to that celebrated astronomer have likewise been gradually lost, and his favourite Uranienburg now lies in ruins. In the whole island is but one village, which consists of fifty or sixty houses, and a church.

The province of Halland, which signifies high land, was thus called either from its lying higher up the country than Schonen, or from its high mountains. It is ninety-six miles in length, and about twenty-four in breadth. The produce of the arable land is not sufficient for the support of the inhabitants, but they have great plenty of fish, particularly salmon, which is esteemed the best in all Sweden. The inhabitants have also some pearl-fisheries, and an advantageous trade in cattle. The few inhabitants chiefly subsist by grazing and fishing; they also spin, weave, and make a kind of knit garments.

One of the most considerable towns in this province is Helmstadt, which is a pleasant well-built staple town, situated at the mouth of the river Nissa. The fortifications erected here by Christian VI. king of Denmark, have been razed, but the governor of the province resides in the castle. The linen and woollen manufactures established here are in a flourishing condition, and the salmon-fishery near the town is very famous.

The last province which remains to be mentioned in South Gothland is that of Blekingen, which lies to the east of Schonen, and extends about ninety miles in length, and twenty-four in breadth. It is a mountainous country, and exceeds in pleasantness most of the provinces of Sweden; but is computed to contain only about a thousand and eighty-nine families. The inhabitants have a considerable trade in beams, masts, deal-boards, hides, tallow, pot-ash, and tar: the best cheese in Sweden is made here, and grazing turns to a very good account.

The

The principal islands belonging to this province amount to about a hundred and thirty, and it contains twenty-nine parishes. The principal town in the province is,

Carlscron, or Carlscroon, in Latin Caroli Carona, a handsome staple town situated on the Baltic, in the latitude of fifty-six degrees twenty minutes, and longitude fifteen degrees two minutes east from London. It was built by Charles XI. who called it after his own name, and is esteemed next to Stockholm, the best town in the kingdom. A part of it is built on the small island of Biorkholm, where is the marine hospital; part on that of Stubholm, on which the arsenal is erected; and part on the mole, where the fleet is usually laid up. The large and small islands near the town, with the woods of oak, beech, and birch, render its situation extremely pleasant. Here are three churches; these are one Swedish, called the town-church, one which belongs to the Germans, and one belonging to the admiralty. The harbour is so commodious, that the whole royal navy may ride in it in safety, and its mouth is defended by two forts, in which there is a handsome parish church, and a German church. The dock-yard is remarkable for being dug out of a mountain to the depth of eighty feet. Its length is from three hundred to three hundred and fifty feet at the place where the king's fleet lies. This excellent dock, though prosecuted with all possible vigour, employed the engineers from the year 1715 to 1724, before it was completed. Its entrance, which has a sufficient depth of water to set the largest wen of war on float, is closed by two flood-gates, and the basin may be emptied in twenty-four hours; so that the dock becomes quite dry for repairing and careening the ships, after which the water is readmitted by means of two sluices, in order to carry them out of the basin. The inhabitants are supposed to amount to about five thousand.

SECT. VI.

Of SWEDEN PROPER.

Its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Produce, and the principal Places in each; with a more particular Account of Stockholm, the Capital of the whole Kingdom.

SWEDEN properly so called, is bounded on the north by Nordland, on the east by the sea, on the south by Gothland, and on the west by Warmeland and Norway. This country was antiently sometimes a distinct kingdom, and at others united to that of Gothland, as it has been ever since the year 1132. Of all the Swedish dominions this has the greatest number of mines, forges, and hammer-mills. It is divided into the five following provinces: Upland, Sudermanland, Nericia, Westmanland, and Dahl, or the Vale Country. These had all their respective kings, and were governed by their own laws, Nericia only excepted, which had no peculiar laws of its own. This country contains twenty-five cities and towns.

In describing these several provinces, we shall begin with Upland, called in Latin Uplandia. This country received its name from the superiority of the antient kings, who resided at Upsal, to the vassal kings and governors who were their tributaries. This province extends about a hundred and eight miles in length, and ninety in breadth. It is for the most part a level fertile country, that produces wheat, rye, barley, and oats, in such plenty, that the inhabitants sell considerable quantities to their neighbours. But in some parts of Upland there are neither woods nor pastures.

Among the mountains of this province, some are remarkable for having spacious caverns that resemble large regular apartments.

In Swedeland Proper are twelve rivers, and a still greater number of lakes. The principal of the latter is the lake of Maler, which is situated between Upland, Sudermanland, and Westmanland. It is seventy-two miles in length, yields great plenty of fish, and is said to contain twelve hundred and ninety islands. It has a communication with the sea through the mouths of the north and south rivers, which enter it near Stockholm, and its banks are beautifully diversified with towns, castles,

churches, noblemen's seats, and other edifices. In this province are the best iron mines in the kingdom; and there are several wealthy persons who are owners of mines and hammer-mills. The chief employment of the inhabitants is in agriculture, and a number of persons are also maintained by the fisheries.

The most remarkable places in Sweden Proper are the following:

Stockholm, called in Latin Holmia, is a staple city, the capital of the whole kingdom, and the residence of the king, is situated in the fifty-ninth degree twenty minutes of north latitude, and in nineteen degrees thirty minutes east longitude, at the junction of the Baltic and the lake of Maler, and therefore has the convenience both of salt and fresh water. Its circuit, computed from one gate to the other, is twelve miles, and it stands partly on islands and partly on peninsulas. Most of the streets are broad and kept very clean, and the market-places are spacious. In what is properly called the city there are above five thousand houses, most of which stand on piles, though they are entirely built of stone, and are four or five stories high: some of them are covered with copper or iron plates, and others with tiles. Besides these, there are a great number of timber houses in the suburbs, and twenty churches in all.

On the island of Stockholm, which contains what is properly called the city, is the new palace, which is a very magnificent structure, the senate-house, the town-house, St. Nicholas's church, St. Gertrude's or the German church, near which stands a grammar-school, the great market, the bank, the corn quay, and the house of the marine fraternity.

The senate-house just mentioned is a very superb structure, and one of the finest edifices in the kingdom: it is, as it were, one large pavilion, adorned on the outside with columns and marble statues, and within with pictures and sculptures, especially two large halls, where the nobility assemble.

Among the churches that of St. Nicholas is both the largest and most magnificent, it being supported by marble pillars, and covered with copper. It is also adorned with a great number of tombs of different kinds of marble. The statue of St. George on horseback trampling on a dragon is much admired. This is the fabulous history of his delivering Cleodolinda, the daughter of the king of Lydia, and twelve other devoted virgins from the fury of the dragon; and that princess is seen kneeling with her hands lifted up, returning thanks to their preserver. Over the altar is a cabinet finely gilt, on which is a table of a pyramidal form, with shelves of massy silver, on which are the following histories in basso relievo: on the first is the nativity of Christ; on the second his last supper; on the third his crucifixion; on the fourth his burial; and on the fifth his resurrection. These are all of silver, and on the top is a statue of the same metal about two feet high, representing the Ascension. There are other silver statues about the altar of the same height; as that of Moses, with the two tables of the law; John the Baptist, with a cross and lamb; and the evangelists, with the animals usually assigned them by painters and statuaries; all of them of silver, weighing together about thirty thousand ounces. This is the account given by several authors; but it is probable that the necessities of the state have caused this silver to be applied to a very different purpose. On the right side of the altar is a large picture of heaven and hell, which reaches from the roof to the pavement, and on the left side of the altar is painted the crucifixion. This church is very rich in plate, and, according to Mr. Mottraye, is worth no less than forty thousand crowns. The other churches are little remarkable, only they are generally covered with copper, have very lofty spires, and instead of bells have very musical chimes in their steeples, which play upon festivals and other solemn occasions.

The other islands on which the city stands are, the Ritterholm, which lies on the west side of the city, with which it has a communication by means of a bridge. On this island stood the old royal palace, which was burnt in 1697, and St. Francis's church, in which are interred many of their kings and queens.

Helgandsholm,

Helgandsholm, or the island of the Holy Ghost, which lies in the north channel between the city and the north suburb, and contains, among other buildings, the king's stables.

Schiffsholm, which lies to the east of the city, and contains the dock-yard and the admiralty.

Konigholm, on which stands the Ulrica Eleanora church.

Ladugardsland, which is considered as a suburb, and contains Hedwick's church, a market-place, an orchard belonging to the king, an orphan-house founded by the free masons in the year 1750, also two large suburbs. On the east side of this island is a royal palace named Frederichshof, built in 1732 by Frederic I. and near it is a park and an orangery, which is much admired.

The north suburb is separated from the city by what is called the north stream or channel, and lies in Upland, containing four churches, another orphan-house, the arsenal, and three market-places.

The south suburb is separated from the city by a canal dug in the year 1008, and lies in Suderland. In this suburb are three churches, one of which belongs to the Dutch Calvinists, and also a Russian chapel, with the Sudermaler market, in which is the town-house, the new market, a large hospital, and a fine iron weigh-house.

All these parts of Stockholm are joined together by bridges. The city on one side affords a prospect over the lake, and on the other over the harbour, which, being almost enclosed by rocks, resembles another lake; its water is so little brackish that it may be drunk, which is owing to the great quantity of fresh water that runs into it from the lake.

We have observed that the houses in these suburbs are chiefly built with wood, and it is said the inhabitants sometimes send the dimensions of the house they intend to build to Finland, where the walls and several separations are formed of pieces of timber laid one upon the other, and joined at the corners, and afterwards marked, taken down, and sent by water to Stockholm, there to be set up and finished.

The number of inhabitants who pay taxes in this metropolis is computed at sixty thousand.

The government of the city is lodged jointly in the magistracy and the governor, who presides in the royal chancery, and the city council-chamber. There are besides four burgomasters. The magistracy is divided into four particular offices: those of justice, the police, trade, and manufactures; and likewise into three courts of judicature. Here is also held the royal high court of Sweden established in 1614, for Sweden properly so called. In this city are likewise a college of physicians, a royal academy of sciences instituted in 1739, a royal academy for military architecture, and another for land-surveying, a chemical and mechanical laboratory, an academy of painting and sculpture, and a royal library.

There are besides in this capital a board of admiralty, a navy-office, a custom-house, an office of the revenues, a national bank, an insurance-office, an edifice where goods manufactured in the kingdom are examined, and disputes between manufacturers decided, a large iron weigh-house, commodious docks, in which many ships are built for foreigners, with manufactories of porcelain, glass, silk, woollen cloth, canvas, cotton, and parchment.

The foreign and domestic trade of Stockholm may be supposed to be very considerable, as it has an excellent harbour; but the many rocks at its mouth render its entrance somewhat difficult.

About a mile to the west of Stockholm is Carlberg, a fine royal pleasure-house, with a garden laid out in a most elegant taste, and adorned with some beautiful statues.

Three miles to the north of Stockholm is Ulricsholm, another royal seat, which has a fine park and garden, remarkable for the elegance of its curious grotto.

On the island of Lofon, which lies about a Swedish mile to the west of Stockholm, is Drotningholm, the finest of all the king of Sweden's palaces: it was founded by Hedwig Eleanora, consort of prince Charles Gustavus, the former palace being consumed by fire. Facing

the south front of this noble structure is a pleasant garden adorned with a variety of fountains, and the east and north sides exhibit a view of the ships at sea.

At the distance of about twelve miles from Stockholm, just at the entrance of the channel into the lake, is Waxholm, a strong citadel, built on a small island, in the year 1649. It has been since greatly improved and enlarged, so that it resembles a little town. On this island, which is called Waxon, are also a church, a school, and a custom-house, and here all homeward-bound ships are searched. The chief employment of the inhabitants is fishing.

The next place we shall mention is Upsal, in Latin Upsalia, a very antient and pretty large city, seated on the river Fyris, which divides it into two parts, that on the east side of the river being properly the city, and that on the west called Fierding. Upsal was antiently the chief seat of the sovereigns of Sweden, where they held their supreme tribunal. During the times of Paganism the greatest sacrifices offered by all the northern provinces were brought hither, and the most eminent heathen priests resided in the city. It is situated in latitude sixty degrees ten minutes, and in the seventeenth degree fifty-six minutes east longitude from London.

All the buildings of Upsal are of wood, except the cathedral and a few stone houses, and the roofs are frequently composed only of the bark of birch trees covered with turf. Here are three churches, the principal of which is the cathedral, which was built in the thirteenth century, but was not consecrated till the year 1435. The architect, being a native of Paris, took the church of Notre Dame in that city for his model. This cathedral has been five times destroyed by fire, the last time was in 1702; however, it has been since rebuilt in an elegant manner. The royal palace was consumed in 1702. Here the kings of Sweden are generally crowned.

Here is an university, called Academia Gustaviana, which is three stories high, and was built by Gustavus Adolphus in 1622. It has a round dome at the top, in which is a curious anatomical theatre; it has also a very valuable library, which contains near a thousand manuscripts. The museum, or cabinet of curiosities, is said to be worth a thousand Swedish dollars, at one shilling and nine-pence each: it has an astronomical observatory planned by the celebrated Celsius, and a physic-garden chiefly laid out by the famous Linnæus. A royal academy of sciences was instituted here in the year 1728. The archbishop of Upsal, who is the only one in the kingdom, is vice-chancellor of the university. The Swedish geographers place their first meridian, from which they compute the longitude, at Upsal.

Sudermanland, the second division of Sweden Proper, is a hundred and fifty miles in length, and seventy-two in breadth, and appears to have been one of the first that was inhabited and cultivated in this kingdom. The soil is fertile, and no labour is spared for its improvement; it abounds in fine arable land, pastures, woods, iron mines, and forges. Its lakes are well stocked with fish, and its advantageous situation, between the sea and the lake of Maler, is the cause of its carrying on a considerable trade. This country has several other lakes besides that just mentioned, particularly the Kielmar, which is forty-two miles long, and has a communication with the lake of Maler by means of a canal and the river Arboya. Among the principal lakes is also that of Bawen, in which are a hundred islands.

The inhabitants chiefly subsist by agriculture, fishing, hunting, and working in the mines; and carry on a considerable trade in corn, iron, and wooden-ware. From the pleasantness and fertility of this country the queen-dowager used to have her dowry, and the dukes their dutchies in this province.

The principal city in Sudermanland is Nikioping, which signifies a new mart, and is called in Latin Nicopia. It is a well-built staple town, and the capital of the province. It is one of the most antient cities of Sweden, and was formerly the residence of the kings and princes of Sudermanland. The air is so temperate and salubrious, that when a contagious disease prevails in Sweden, the royal family and the public offices have frequently removed from Stockholm to this place. The city

city is divided into nearly two equal parts by a large river, over which a stone bridge was built in the year 1728, that is scarcely to be equalled in the whole kingdom. Here was formerly a very antient castle famous in history; but it was demolished in 1665: in this structure the kings of Sudermanland resided, and it was so strongly fortified, that it was thought to be little inferior to those of Stockholm and Calmar. The streets of the city are all well laid out, and the High Street planted with Dutch limes. It has two handsome churches, with the palace of the governor of the province, who resides there; and without the town is a royal inclosure. It has a commodious harbour, and the inhabitants, who amount to about twelve hundred, have several manufactures of cloth, and what is called Morocco leather: they speak the Swedish language in the greatest purity, and carry on a considerable trade by sea. Its chief magistrates are two burgomasters. Nikioping was almost consumed by fire in 1661, and suffered extremely by the ravages of the Russians in 1719.

The province of Nericia, called by the Swedes Nerike, is sixty miles in length, and forty-six in breadth. The soil is in most parts fertile, and produces corn and pasturage. The country has also quarries of loadstone, limestone, and allum; with mines of iron and sulphur. Here are large woods, several high mountains, seven considerable rivers, and twenty-three lakes, which abound with fish.

Nericia is famous for its flourishing manufactures of all kinds of hard-ware, and in particular has always been remarkable for forging arms, &c. The chief employments of the inhabitants are agriculture, working in the mines and forges, hunting, and fishing; and they trade in grain and all kinds of iron-wares.

The principal place in this province is Orebro, an antient town situated at the junction of the river Schwartz with the lake of Hielmar, in fifty-nine degrees twenty-five minutes north latitude. It is a long narrow town, with a castle encompassed by water; and, as it has been frequently besieged, king Gustavus I. caused it to be well fortified, and the fortifications have been since improved. It has at present two churches, a grammar-school, and a manufacture of fire-arms. Its harbour on the lake of Hielmar has a communication with the Maler, by means of the river and canal of Arboga, and consequently there is a passage by water from hence to Stockholm. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade, and have the reputation of using great exactness in their weights and measures.

The sulphur work of Axberg lies about seven miles from Orebro. Of the ore dug up here, our author says, is first made sulphur, afterwards vitriol, and lastly a red colour for painting.

We now come to the province of Westmanland, in Latin Vestmania, which is a hundred and two miles in length, and sixty-four miles in breadth. The soil is fertile, and principally consists of arable land, with meadows, pastures, and some fine woods. It also contains silver, copper, and iron mines: it has many curious copper, steel, and brass hammer-mills; and, indeed, is the most famous province in the kingdom for mines, the quantity of iron annually exported from hence amounting to a hundred and twenty thousand pounds. The south part of the province supplies the inhabitants of the mine districts in the north with corn.

This province is well watered both by rivers and lakes, which yield vast plenty of fish; and the lake of Maler is of very great advantage to its commerce, as it affords a communication between this district and Stockholm.

The following are the most remarkable towns in this province:

Westerahs, in Latin Arosia, an antient inland town situated on the banks of the river Schwartz, which, after running through it, discharges itself into the Maler. It is an episcopal see, and has a castle, part of which is made use of as a granary, a seminary, a weigh-house for metals, from whence a vast quantity of copper, brass, and iron is annually exported to Stockholm, and is the residence of the governor of the province. The cathedral, which is a spacious and magnificent structure, is particu-

larly remarkable for the architecture of its tower, and for being the burial-place of king Eric XIV.

Sala, or Salberg, a handsome large mine town situated on the river Sag, in the sixtieth degree ten minutes north latitude, and in the seventeenth degree five minutes west longitude. It was built by king Gustavus Adolphus in 1624, who endowed it with several privileges. The streets are straight and well paved, and the market-place regular and spacious. Here is held a mine court, a court of works, and town council, and an inferior court of judicature. To this town belong several considerable estates, and the neighbouring villages supply the inhabitants with all kinds of commodities at a very cheap rate; no custom or duty being paid here.

Near the town is a very large antient silver mine, which used annually to produce twenty-four thousand Lothige marks of silver, each of these marks equal to nine ounces twelve pennyweights troy, but it is now greatly declined. In 1710 the royal family chose this town for the place of their retreat during a raging pestilence, and in 1736 it was destroyed by fire.

We now come to Dalecarlia, also called Swedish Thalland, from its many valleys. This province is two hundred and forty miles in length, and a hundred and fifty-six in breadth: it is very mountainous, and has little arable land; but where the soil between the mountains allows of tillage, it yields plenty of oats and pease, of which the inhabitants make bread. It is indeed every where diversified with mountains, valleys, woods, heaths, lakes, and rivers; and abounds in mines of silver, copper, and iron; with quarries of slate and mill-stones, and the pastures are proper for grazing, which turns to good account.

The inhabitants, who are called Dalecarlians, are celebrated for their integrity and firm attachment to their king and country, and particularly for their bravery. They are proof against toil, hardships, and want; and have thoroughly learned the advantage of industry and œconomy, by being able to subsist by their labour in such a barren mountainous country. In many parishes there is scarce a man who is not skilled in all necessary handicraft trades; and when they are in other parts of the kingdom, they hire themselves as labourers, masons, carpenters, and the like. They trade in the bark of birch trees, hops, slate, lime, wooden-ware, scythes, hatchets, and other iron utensils. In the north part of this province they speak a particular language that has a great affinity with the Gothic dialect; and they still retain the manner of living, dress, and customs of the antient Swedes. The Runic calendar is still in use among them, which they carry about them as a perpetual almanac.

The principal towns in this province are,

Hedemora, a very ancient city, which has been handsomely rebuilt: it stands on the lake of Hafran, carries on a good trade, and has an annual fair on the festival of St. Peter and St. Paul. It is indeed one of the principal cities in the whole kingdom, and is famous for the gunpowder made there. A mint was formerly set up in this town by Gustavus Vasa; and some of the pieces coined in this place are still to be seen in the cabinets of the curious. The gardens around the town, in which fruit trees are cultivated, are the most pleasant in all Dalecarlia.

Falun, in Latin Faluna, is a mine town, situated between two lakes and two mountains: it is large and very populous, but though its streets are regular, the houses are ill built with timber. One of its two market places is very spacious and handsome. On the north side of it stands a large stone edifice, in which is held a court of justice; and in the same market place are erected a granary and dispensary. On the east side of it, is a handsome church built with stone, and the roof covered with copper, the doors are of brass, and the tower is remarkably high. Without the town, towards the east, stands another church built with stone, and covered with copper. Falun has a good school, a fine copper weigh-house, a mine court, and other inferior courts. At a small distance to the west of Falun, is the famous copper mine that used every year to produce ten thousand

sand tons of copper, and in some years even more, but of late its produce is greatly decreased. The depth of this mine is 350 Swedish ells, and a great variety of curious engines belong to this work.

S E C T. VII.

Of Nordland, its Situation and Produce. Its Provinces described, with the Peculiarities and principal Places in each.

NORDLAND, in Latin Nordlandia, doubtless received its name from its being situated to the north of Sweden Proper. It is bounded on the east by the gulph of Bothnia; on the south by Upland and Dalecarlia; on the west it joins to Dalecarlia, Norway, and Lapland; and to the north it borders on Lapland only. This country, in the times of paganism, was a distinct monarchy, to which several vassal kings were tributary. It has more timber and venison than any of the other parts of the kingdom, but its rocks and mountains leave only a small extent of land fit for tillage. It has however some fertile spots and verdant pastures, that are agreeably interspersed with lakes, rivers, and woods, which abound with fish; and a great number of cattle are bred in the country. Here are greater flights of wild geese than in any other part of the kingdom; but oak and birch trees do not grow wild beyond Upland, so that those trees are very scarce. This province has several rich mines.

It is divided into seven provinces, and yet has no more than nine towns.

The province of Gastrickland, in Latin Gastricia, derives its name from the word Gastrick, which signifies hospitable, and contains little arable land, it mostly consisting of mines, woods, rivers, and lakes, from which the inhabitants procure a tolerable subsistence.

The only remarkable town in this province is Gesele, in Latin Gevalia, which is the largest in all Nordland, and is well situated on a creek of the gulf of Bothnia. The river Gesele, which runs through the town, supplies it with plenty of salmon, and afterwards dividing into three branches, forms the two pleasant islands of Alderholm and Islandsholm; and about the distance of three miles from the town discharges itself into the main sea. This is a staple town of such antiquity, that it boasts of being founded three hundred years before Stockholm. Some of the buildings are of stone, and others of wood, others have a mixture of both. The streets are very irregular, and the market place so badly laid out, that a stranger would never be able to find it without a guide. The town is populous, and has a fine town-house built with stone, a very ancient hospital, that was rebuilt with stone in the year 1731; and it carries on an advantageous trade. The company of fishermen constitute two thirds of the burghers. The castle was entirely destroyed by fire in 1727, but it has been since rebuilt, and the governor resides in it. On the neighbouring island of Alderholm just mentioned, are a handsome iron weigh-house, a dock, a landing-place for deals, &c. a large custom-house, an arsenal, a magazine, and two warehouses; and several magazines and warehouses are also erected on Islandsholm.

The province of Halsingland, called in Latin Helsingia, is one hundred and twenty miles in length, and ninety-six in breadth: its pastures feed a great number of fine cattle, and the little arable land it contains yields good crops. Linseed is cultivated here with great industry. Here are also large forests and good iron works.

The inhabitants trade in iron, linen, tallow, butter, tar, deal boards, timber, and wild fowl, as partridges, woodcocks, and moorhens, some thousands of which are every winter carried in sledges to Stockholm. The Helsingians are celebrated for their bravery, and have made themselves masters of several countries where they have settled, and to which they have given their own name. Besides the Gothic or Runic calendar, which is here every where known, they have the Halsingland Runic, as it is called, which differs from the former.

There are no considerable cities in this province, those most noted being only small sea-port towns that contain nothing worthy of observation.

The province of Medelpad, in Latin Medelpadia, is eighty-four miles in length and forty-two in breadth. Though it is very mountainous and woody, it has several valleys of arable and meadow land. The seed is not sown here till about Whitsuntide, but the corn ripens in ten weeks. Among the forests of this province there are some of prodigious extent that abound in game of all sorts, as elks, rein-deer, beavers, martens, lynxes, foxes, weasels, and wild-fowl.

The country is agreeably interspersed with lakes and rivers, which supply it with plenty of fish; and the grain produced in the province is sufficient for the support of its inhabitants. They have also plenty of cattle; and deal in timber, hoops, flax, hemp, butter, fowls and dried fish; salmon and seals are also caught here.

The principal place in this province is Sundswall, a well-built small town, and the only sea-port in the country. It was built in the reign of Gustavus Adolphus, on the spot now called the Old Town, but formerly the Trading-Place; but in 1647 was rebuilt by Queen Christina in its present situation, which is a barren sandy plain between high mountains. In the middle of the town is a pond well stocked with a kind of small carp. A woollen manufacture has been lately set up in this town; and here is a dock where several large vessels have been built. The harbour, which is above a league in breadth, is very commodious, and the inhabitants have a good trade in linen, flesh, cheese, butter, wooden chairs, deals, tar, and the bark of birch trees.

The next province we shall describe is that of Jamtland, called in Latin Jemtia, which borders on the kingdom of Norway, and is nearly of a circular form. It is an hundred and thirty-six miles in length, and an hundred and twenty in breadth, and was annexed to the crown of Sweden in 1658 by the treaty of Roschild. It is in general a mountainous country; the western part, on the frontiers of Norway, is over-run with vast craggy rocks and high mountains, and between these are deep vallies and rapid torrents; but there are some verdant spots among the mountains, that afford good pasture: in these parts the inhabitants house their cattle even in summer-time, and by this means breed fine cows, whose milk yields excellent butter.

The eastern part consists of a champaign country, watered by several lakes and rivers that abound with fish. Barley is the grain mostly sown here; they also sow a considerable quantity of rye, and some wheat, with oats of an extraordinary goodness. The country abounds with excellent turneps. The severity of the frost sometimes, indeed, causes a scarcity of corn, which obliges the Jamtlanders to make bread of the pounded bark of trees, the rye bread being reserved for festivals. Here are great numbers of elks, which the Jamtlanders castrate, in order to make them grow large and fat: and many hands are employed in extracting iron from a kind of iron ore, that resembles small stones, and are collected in fenny places. Here are also allum quarries, sand-stone, slate, the lapis ollarius, fine rock-crystals, lead-ore, a place where salt-petre is refined, and two new built copper-works.

This country is so thinly inhabited, that there are only six places where divine service is performed every Sunday; in some churches it is celebrated every other Sunday, in others only every third Sunday, and in all the rest the congregations assemble but three or four times a year. There is not so much as one town in the whole country, and only eleven parishes, in which are erected forty-six churches: in all these parishes there are but seven hundred and seventeen chimnies, though they form an area of two thousand four hundred square miles.

The inhabitants chiefly subsist by agriculture, grazing, hunting and fishing. They likewise carry on a considerable trade with the Norwegians, whom they supply with salt-pans, steel, iron-ware, and a kind of leather, dressed in such a manner as entirely to keep out the water; with this leather they make shoes, boots, and even jackets, that are proof against wet. In this solitary and

desart country, hypocondriac disorders and self-murders are very frequent.

The next province we shall describe is that of Harjedalen, in Latin Hardalia, which was added to the Swedish dominions by the treaty of Bremsebro, concluded in 1645, and is ninety miles in length, and from forty-two to forty-eight miles in breadth. It abounds in woods and mines; but little of the ground is tilled: it has however pastures that enable the inhabitants to carry on an advantageous trade in horned cattle; they subsist by grazing, hunting, and fishing, and sell a great quantity of cheese, which is much esteemed.

The province of Angermanland, in Latin Angermania, lies to the north of Harjedalen, and is an hundred forty-four miles in length, and thirty-six in breadth. It is extremely mountainous and woody; but some parts produce barley, rye, pease, linseed, and good flax; the meadow lands afford pasture for the cattle, and the lakes and rivers yield plenty of fish. Here are several fine iron works; and in the bottom of some of the stagnant lakes is found a fine red colour fit for painting.

The only town in this country is Hernosand, in Latin Hernesandja, a sea-port on the island of Hernon, near the mouth of the river Angerman, where it discharges itself into the gulf of Bothnia. It was built in 1584, and has a communication with the continent by a bridge about a hundred Swedish ells in length. The houses, which are of timber, have very thick walls, and stand on the declivity of a hill towards the sea. On the north side of the harbour the water is of a sufficient depth for the largest ships to come up and unload at the warehouses; but on the south side this can only be done by flat-bottomed vessels and lighters. This was formerly a staple town, and it still carries on a considerable trade, particularly in linen, and the annual fair held at this town on the fourteenth of September, is the most frequented of any in Nordland. The town has a seminary and a school. In 1710, 1714, and 1721, it was burnt by the Russians, but it has since recovered from these dreadful desolations.

The last province in Nordland is that of West Bothnia, which lies on the west side of the upper part of the gulf of Bothnia, while the opposite side is termed East Bothnia, of which we have given an account in our description of Finland.

The inhabited part of West Bothnia, from the frontiers of Angermanland to the church of Upper Tornea, is computed to be about three hundred forty-eight miles in length, and its breadth from ninety-six to a hundred and eight miles. Many pleasant islands lie off the coast of this province; it has also several forests, with many lakes and rivers. West Bothnia has some excellent pastures, though the summits of the high mountains are mostly covered with moss, on which the rein-deer generally feed. The land is for the most part level, and the soil tolerably fertile; for though they sow the corn very late, it ripens in six, seven, or eight weeks, according as the place lies more or less exposed to the north winds: sudden frosts, however, often prove extremely detrimental to the corn, particularly the frosty nights that frequently happen in the month of July. There are also several good copper and iron mines in this province.

The inhabitants, who are famed for their courage and bravery, subsist by agriculture, grazing, hunting, and fishing; they endure hunger and want better than most other people, they being inured to it from their youth, and even in fruitful years they mix their corn with chaff and pulverized pine-bark, to make what they term pounded bread. They trade in fables, and the skins of blue and white foxes, hyenas, bears, wolves, ermines, martens, beavers, and rein-deer; and also in beams, deal boards, timber, and shingles; tar, salted and smoke-dried salmon, and other fish; train oil, venison, tallow, butter, cheese, castor, and linen. These commodities are not only carried to other parts of Sweden, but over the mountains to Norway, or through vast deserts to Russia.

West Bothnia is divided into four inferior governments, the principal places in which are,

Umea, in Latin Uma, a considerable sea-port town, built by Gustavus Adolphus, at the mouth of the river

Umea. It has four streets, which extend in a straight line from east to west, with several others intersecting them at right angles from north to south. At the east angle is a large area, on which the church stands; the harbour is commodious, and the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade.

Pitea, in Latin Pitovia, is a sea-port situated in a small island at the mouth of a river of the same name. It is joined to the continent by a wooden bridge, at the end of which a gate is erected. The streets run in parallel lines; but the church stands a good way without the town; so that the bridge must be crossed to go to it. Pitea was first built in 1621, by Gustavus Adolphus, about three miles higher up in the country; but the town being entirely destroyed by fire in 1666, it was rebuilt on its present situation, where it has a commodious harbour and a good school. Old Pitea is now a large village, consisting of many houses irregularly scattered on a fine common.

The last town we shall mention in this province is Tornea, in Latin Torna, a small sea-port situated on a peninsula formed by the river Tornea, where it falls into the gulph of Bothnia, in the sixty-fifth degree fifty minutes fifty seconds north latitude, and is said to be the farthest towards the north of any town in Europe. It has three streets, which run in parallel lines from north to south, and are intersected at right angles by fourteen cross streets or lanes. The church, which is built with timber, stands at a small distance from the other buildings; but within the pallisades that inclose the town, and also a pretty large piece of arable land. Divine service is here performed in the Swedish language, which is used by the burghers. There is another church built with stone on an island called Bjorkhon, which lies near the town, and here the service is performed in the Finnean language for the benefit of the servants of the burghers, and the inhabitants of the adjacent country. All the dwellings in Tornea, like those in the neighbouring country, have a large court, of which two sides at least are taken up with apartments; and in the other two are the stables, barns, and other out-houses. These courts, in the country habitations, are exactly square; but in Tornea are of an oblong form. A very considerable trade is carried on here, not only by the Swedes and Laplanders, but by the Norwegians and Russians; who also resort to the trading places of Tornea, in order to traffic.

Mr. Busching observes, that in 1694 this town was honoured with the presence of king Charles XI. who, being accompanied by several persons of distinction and learning, took a view of the sun at midnight from the tower of the church at Tornea; for in the midst of summer the sun may be seen above the horizon when in the opposite part of the meridian of Tornea, by a spectator placed at a certain height above the surface of the earth.

S E C T. VIII.

Of SWEDISH LAPLAND.

Its Situation and Extent; with a very particular Account of the Climate, and Face of the Country; the Beauty of the Northern Lights in a Lapland Winter; the Beasts, Birds, and Fishes.

SWEDISH Lapland, which is called by its inhabitants Sameland, or Samenolmoi, is bounded on the east by East Bothnia and Russian Lapland, on the south by Jamtland, and on the west and north by Norwegian Lapland. According to some computations this country is four hundred and twenty miles in length, and three hundred and sixty in breadth; but others represent it as every way much more extensive.

It must, however, be acknowledged, that this country seems at first sight, especially in winter, scarce fit to be the habitation of man. In most places it abounds with rocks and mountains, whose summits seem to pierce the clouds, and are covered with everlasting snow. Other parts of Lapland consist of barren heaths and sandy deserts, over-run with moss, fern, and to appearance unprofitable weeds; while one barren wild stretches beyond another,

another with little or no pasture growing on the intermediate spots.

Besides these inconveniencies, the long and severe winters, the cold, dark, and tedious winter nights, with the vast depth of snow that covers this desolate region, might seem sufficient to deter every living creature from fixing his abode in this inhospitable country. The description given by M. Maupertuis of the severity of this climate, when he, with other astronomers, went by order of the French king to determine the figure of the earth at the polar circle, is enough to make one shudder, though he made his observations on the southern borders of this country. "In December, says he, the snow continually falling, or ready to fall, for the most part hid the sun the few moments he might have appeared at mid-day. In the month of January the cold was increased to that extremity, that Mr. Reaumur's mercurial thermometer, which at Paris, in the great frost of 1709, it was thought strange to see fall to fourteen degrees below the freezing point, were now got down to thirty-seven. The spirit of wine in the others was frozen. If we opened the door of a warm room, the external air instantly converted all the vapour in it into snow; whirling it round in white vortexes. If we went abroad, we felt as if the air was tearing our breasts in pieces; and the cracking of the wood of which the houses are built, as if split by the violence of the frost, continually alarmed us with an increase of cold; and in this country you may often see people who have lost an arm or leg by the frost. The cold, which is always very great, sometimes increases by such violent and sudden fits, as are almost infallibly fatal to those who are so unhappy as to be exposed to it; and sometimes there rise sudden tempests of snow that are still more dangerous. The winds seem to blow from all quarters at once, and drive about the snow with such fury, that all the roads are in a moment rendered invisible. Dreadful is the situation of a person surprized in the fields by such a storm: his knowledge of the country, and even the mark he may have taken by the trees, cannot avail him: he is blinded by the snow, and if he attempts to find his way home is generally lost. In short, during the whole winter the cold was so excessive, that on the seventh of April, at five in the morning, the thermometer was fallen to twenty divisions below the point of freezing, though every afternoon it rose two or three divisions above it: a difference in the height not much less than that which the greatest heat and cold felt at Paris usually produce in that instrument. Thus in twenty-four hours we had all the variety felt in the temperate zones in the compass of a whole year."

When at last, in summer, the sun warms the air, Lapland is infested with such swarms of gnats and flies of various species, that, like clouds, they darken the sky, and obscure the light of the sun. These fix on every naked part of the body, bite with unremitting fury, and some draw blood wherever they fix.

After this description it must appear much less surprising that Lapland should be thinly peopled, than that it should be peopled at all: but notwithstanding these disadvantages, Nature has bestowed on these dreary regions several conveniencies; and it is certain, however improbable it may appear, that content and happiness are to be found there.

The mountains, which are of a prodigious height and extent, are perhaps intended to shelter the plains from violent winds; and even their wildness and irregularity has something very entertaining to the eye, especially in summer: the alternate succession of hills and valleys exhibit a delightful variety of prospects; and there are some places in this country, which in summer may be reckoned amongst the most delightful spots in the world. The fine lakes, says the last mentioned author, that surround the mountain of Niemi, give it the air of an enchanted island in romance. On one hand you see a grove of trees rise from a plain smooth and level as the walks of a garden, and at such easy distances as neither to embarrass the walks, nor the prospect of the lakes that wash the foot of the mountain. On the other hand are apartments of different sizes that seem cut by art in the rocks,

and to want only a regular roof to render them complete. The rocks themselves are so perpendicular, so high, and so smooth, that they might be taken for the walls of an unfinished palace, rather than for the work of nature. "From this height, he adds, we saw those vapours rise from the lake which the people of the country call haltios, and deem the guardian spirits of the mountains. We had been frightened with stories of bears haunting this place, but saw none. It seemed rather, indeed, a place of resort for fairies and genii, than for those of savage animals."

It also appears, from the trials that have been made, that these mountains are inferior to none in the richness of ores and fossils: at least the largest and clearest rock-crystals, purple amethysts, topazes, loadstones, native cinnabar, quicksilver, and other fossils and minerals, have been found in their bowels.

If at a certain season of the year the days are very short, and the nights long, tedious, and irksome; this is in some measure compensated by the pleasant luminous summers, when, in most parts of this country, the sun is visible for several weeks above the horizon; a phenomenon to which the inhabitants of the temperate climates are entirely strangers. Even in winter, the radiancy of the sun, the brightness of the moon-light, the twinkling of the stars, and the effulgent corruscations of the aurora borealis, afford a light sufficient for most occasions of life. "The short days are no sooner closed, says Maupertuis, than fires of a thousand figures and colours light up the sky, as if designed to compensate for the absence of the sun. These fires have not here, as in more southern climates, any constant situation. Though a luminous arch is often seen fixed towards the north, they seem more frequently to possess the whole extent of the hemisphere. Sometimes they begin in the form of a great scarf of bright light, with its extremities upon the horizon, which, with a motion resembling that of a fishing-net, glides softly up the sky, preserving in this motion a direction nearly perpendicular to the meridian; and most commonly after these preludes, all the lights unite at the zenith, and form the top of a crown. Arcs like those seen in France towards the north, are here frequently situated towards the south; and often towards both the north and south at once. Their summits approach each other; the distance of their extremities widens towards the horizon. I have seen some of the opposite arcs whose summits almost joined at the zenith; and both the one and the other have frequently several concentric arcs beyond it. Their tops are all placed in the direction of the meridian, though with a little declination to the west; which I did not find to be constant, and which is sometimes insensible. It would be endless to mention all the different figures these meteors assume, and the various motions with which they are agitated. Their motion is most commonly like that of a pair of colours waved in the air, and the different tints of their light gives them the appearance of so many vast streamers of changeable taffety. Sometimes they line a part of the sky with scarlet. On the eighteenth of December I saw a phenomenon of this kind, that in the midst of all the wonders to which I was now every day accustomed, raised my admiration. To the south a great space of the sky appeared tinged with so lively a red, that the whole constellation of Orion looked as if it had been dipped in blood. This light, which was at first fixed, soon moved, and changing into other colours, violet and blue, settled into a dome, whose top stood a little to the south-west of the zenith. The moon shone bright, but did not in the least efface it. In this country, where there are lights of so many different colours, I never saw but two that were red; and such are taken for prefaces of some great misfortune. After all, when people gaze at these phenomena with an unphilosophic eye, it is not surprizing if they discover in them armies engaged, fiery chariots, and a thousand other prodigies."

Another advantage is the twilight, which begins four or five hours before sun-rise, and lasts as long after that luminary is set. Indeed many of the inhabitants sleep away most of the dark season, and employ the luminous

part of the year in their respective occupations ; and, in general, suffer little in their health from this apparent inconvenience.

In the woods upon the mountains are almost as many trees fallen as standing ; for the soil, after having raised them to a certain height, can generally no longer furnish proper nourishment ; nor is it deep enough to allow them to take firm root ; whence they are overfet by the least blast of wind, and in all these woods a multitude of firs and birches are blown down. Time reduces the wood of the latter to dust, without affecting the bark ; and one would be surprized to find pretty large trees that crumble upon the slightest touch. This probably gave the Swedes the hint of covering their houses with this bark ; and indeed nothing can be imagined fitter for the purpose.

In the valleys, and along the banks of the lakes and rivers, where the trees find a deeper soil, pine, fir, birch, juniper, aspen, alder, willow, and other trees, are observed to thrive ; and some wholesome vegetables, berries, and flowers, are produced. The pine-trees are more serviceable than orchards would be there ; that beneficial tree, besides several other uses to which it is applied, being an essential part of the food of the inhabitants ; for a labouring man who feeds on bread made of the pounded bark of the pine-tree, preserves his health and vigour to a great age.

Lapland abounds in many kinds of beasts, birds, and fishes. The furs and skins of bears, wolves, beavers, martens, otters, wild and tame rein-deer, hyenas, ermines, hares, squirrels, black, red, and white foxes, &c. bring a great deal of money into the country. Here are also a species of partridges, moor-hens, woodcocks, falcons, snow-birds, as they are called, and other large and small birds.

The fisheries not only afford a plentiful subsistence to many of the inhabitants, but enable them to sell a considerable quantity of fish to their neighbours. The pearls found in the rivers of Lapland are remarkably valuable ; and swans, geese, all kinds of wild ducks, and several sorts of sea-fowl unknown in other countries, abound here, especially in the southern parts of Lapland.

SECT. IX.

Of the Persons, Dress, and Manner of Life of the Laplanders, whose principal Wealth and Subsistence consists in their Rein-deer, which are therefore particularly described. Their Arts ; the Riches of those who engage in Trade ; their Tents and Furniture ; and their Skill in the Management of their Boats. The Food of the different Tribes.

THE Laplanders are of a brown and swarthy complexion, which is the case with the inhabitants both of very cold and very hot countries ; their hair is black, and their faces broad, with peaked chins, and hollow cheeks. They are generally of a middling stature. The all-wise Creator has made a provision for them against the severity of winter, by placing there a multitude of animals, whose soft and warm furs and skins defend them from the most piercing cold.

The upper garment both of the men and women is made of skins with the hair on, formed like the ploughman's frock, girt about them with a broad belt ; they wear breeches which reach down to their ancles, and their cap, which is made of the skin of a young rein-deer, fits as close to their heads as a scull-cap, covering all the neck and shoulders. Their shoes are peaked, and turned up at the toes. The finery of the women consists in a kind of pewter wire, with which they work the bosoms of their coats, their girdles, and the edges of their caps. Neither sex know what it is to wear linen ; but in the cold season wear next the body a fawn's skin waistcoat. Almost the only difference between the dress of the men and that of the women is, that the latter is somewhat longer. A purse hangs at their girdles, with their money, rings, and toys ; a knife, and a leathern bag.

These people afford an instance of a whole European nation subsisting contentedly without ploughing, sowing, or planting ; without spinning or weaving, brewing or

baking. They employ themselves in feeding of herds ; and as their lot is cast in a country where winter takes up the greatest part of the year, and consequently renders it impossible for them to provide a sufficient quantity of hay and fodder for great herds of cattle, the bountiful Creator has therefore bestowed on them a species of animals that are provided for with little trouble : this is the rein-deer, which of all tame animals requires the least attendance and support, while it procures the greatest advantage to its owners. These creatures provide for themselves, feeding in summer on leaves, moss, and grass, of which they find as much as is sufficient for them, even among the mountains ; and in winter live only on a kind of moss that grows in almost every part of Lapland. They come at this moss by scraping away the snow with their feet, and are taught by instinct to find the spots where it grows. During a journey of several days with these animals, the only trouble a traveller is at is, either to turn them loose, or tie them to a tree, where the quantity of food they eat at a time does not exceed a handful. The Laplanders are only solicitous to keep their herds of rein-deer from going astray, and to protect them from wild beasts ; and this, particularly in summer, they think no inconsiderable task. They have no occasion to house these animals, for they always lie out in the open air, without any inconvenience ; and when after a strict search there is no danger from beasts of prey, they turn them loose into the woods ; but when they are under any apprehension of danger from that quarter, they are watched by the Lapland herdsmen.

The rein-deer nearly resembles a stag, except its hanging the head down a little, and the horns projecting directly forward : besides, on the fore part of the head, near the root of the large horns, are two smaller branches ; so that they seem to have four horns. There are two different species of these animals, namely, the wild and the tame. The latter is well made and exceeding swift, and indeed is of such use to the Laplanders, that it supplies the place of corn-fields and meadows, horses and cows. In winter they make use of the rein-deer in travelling ; its flesh, either fresh or dried, without salt, is their chief food ; and all their cloathing, from head to foot, consists of the skins of these animals. The rein-deer also supplies its owner with a bed, and both winter and summer, with good milk and excellent cheese ; besides, of the intestines and tendons he makes thread and cordage.

The Laplanders, with respect to their manner of living and habitations, consist of two different tribes, namely, the Forest and Mountain Laplanders. The former spend the greatest part of the summer in the woods, and have no property ; but the latter live among the mountains. The food of the former chiefly consists of fish and fowl ; but that of the latter principally depends on their herds of rein-deer. The Laplanders in general, and particularly the Foresters, are esteemed good marksmen. They have a great aversion to mining. In most of the lapmarks they make it their employment to carry the burghers to the yearly fairs ; and some of the Laplanders, for a reasonable reward, look after the rein-deer belonging to other people. Most of them choose rather to sleep away the whole day in their tents, than to engage in any laborious employment ; but those whom want has prompted to industry, give evident proofs that they are not without a capacity for mechanic trades, nor even for exquisite pieces of workmanship. Their boats and utensils are plain indications of their skill, and some of their sledges are inlaid with horn in a variety of figures. Their horn spoons, their Runic calendars, their moulds for casting pewter utensils, their bows and arrows, and the like, are all of their own making.

The Lapland women make use of a horn perforated with large and small holes, through which they draw tin or pewter into wires of different thickness, with which they neatly embroider their girdles, cloaths, and sledge furniture. They also prepare all kinds of skins by various methods, and cut out and sew the habits used among them.

Several Laplanders, besides the herds of rein-deer, are masters of a considerable quantity of silver in rings, buckles, large and small spoons, cups, &c. and money grows

grows daily more and more in use among them: but they prefer the Holland rixdollar to all other coins, because the Norwegians, with whom they trade in summer, will not take any other money in exchange for their goods. The rest of their substance consists of domestic utensils and other furniture, as tents, iron pots, copper and brass kettles, furs and other cloaths, bed-furniture, fine sledges with harnesses, hatchets, boats, and fishing-tackle. As to the poorer sort, they are obliged to be satisfied with fewer conveniencies.

As feeding their herds of rein-deer is the chief employment of the Laplanders, they frequently shift their habitations. At the approach of spring most of them move with their families twenty or thirty Swedish miles among the mountains of Norway as far as the North Sea, where they fix their abode till autumn, and then quit the mountains and return to the south, to prevent their being frozen to death for want of fuel; and their rein-deer being starved, there being little or no moss so far to the north.

The other Laplanders, who make no excursions to the mountains, but dwell in the village districts, or live by fishing, likewise never settle in one place: to this they are obliged by their rein-deer, which at certain times shew a disposition to remove, either from the want of fodder, or their being sensible of the changes that will happen in the weather.

This unsettled way of life obliges the Laplanders to provide portable dwellings, and such are their tents, which are thus formed: they first set up several poles in a circular position, gradually closing together on the top, much in the form of a sugar-loaf with the top of it broken off. Over these poles they lay a kind of coarse cloth, and thus form tents, some of which are sufficient to contain twenty persons. The hearth is in the middle, with stones laid round it, to prevent the fire from spreading. An aperture is left at the top, where the poles almost join, which serves both for chimney and window. From this hole hang two chains with hooks at the end, to hang the pots on, in order to boil their victuals, or melt the ice or snow into water to drink. Round the inside of the tent they lay their cloaths to keep out the cold wind, and spread branches of birch or fir round the tent, by way of seats to sit upon; for they have neither chairs, stools, nor benches. About the tent stand the cupboards, where they keep their provisions; these are fixed on posts or blocks of wood, and have some resemblance to pigeon-houses erected on pillars. The Laplanders, whenever they have an opportunity, pitch their tents near dried pines, for the convenience of fuel; but in spring and autumn they are forced to be contented with brush-wood. It ought not to be omitted, that in some of the lapmarks they erect boarded cottages, or wooden houses, that resemble those of the Swedes.

Their carriages are sledges shaped like small boats with a broad keel, and so thick, that no water can penetrate through them. They have a back-board for the traveller to lean against, who sits fast laced in the sledge, and well secured from the cold. This vehicle is drawn by the rein-deer with incredible swiftness through the snow over mountains and valleys. The rein-deer is harnessed with a large cloth girt, embroidered with pewter wire, and fastened on his back. The bit is a piece of leather tacked to the reins of the bridle over the deer's head and neck, and from the breast a leather strap passing under the belly is fastened to the fore-part of the sledge, which serves instead of shafts. The rein-deer in a great measure lose their vigour and swiftness in summer, when these are less necessary; but even then they are very proper for carrying the Laplanders effects from one place to another.

The Laplanders also use a kind of skates, like those used by the Fins and Nordlanders. These consist of a board three or four Swedish ells in length, and six inches broad, ending in a point which turns up before. With these boards fastened to their feet, and a pole, with a round piece of wood at the end to prevent its sinking too deep into the snow, the Laplanders slide along with such swiftness, as to overtake wolves and bears.

The Laplanders who practise fishing, and live in South Lapmark, make use of a kind of boat or little bark for

crossing rivers, made of slight boards curiously joined together with filaments of the roots of trees, or hempen strings, and are so light that a Laplander carries his boat on his shoulders, with the oars and every thing belonging to it, besides his bag of provisions. These boats they steer with amazing dexterity, even among the rocks and down the most rapid water-falls; and though the cataract be ever so dreadful, and the Laplander ever so great a stranger to it, he undauntedly ventures down the precipice in his little boat: but when he steers against the stream, and comes to a water-fall, he puts ashore, takes his boat upon his back, and travels till he comes to smooth water.

In the Northern lapmarks they have larger boats, four or five fathoms in length; these they either haul up the great water-falls with ropes, or where the cascades are small, shove them up with poles; which is done by two men, one of whom sits at the head, and the other at the stern. As for going down the water-falls with the stream, they consider it as attended with no difficulty.

The Mountain Laplanders in summer live chiefly upon milk, and of the cheese made of it, of which they lay up a store for winter. In the month of September, before the piercing frosts set in, they kill as many of their rein-deer as they think will serve them till Christmas: afterwards they kill as many as will supply them for the rest of the winter, and sometimes kill one or two occasionally. It is not unusual with the Western Laplanders to buy Norway cows and sheep in summer, which they kill for their winter provision. They also eat the flesh of bears and beavers, sea and wild fowl, &c. The poor who live in villages are contented with the flesh of dogs, wolves, foxes, and horses, when they can get them. The Fishing Laplanders live on fish, which they have various ways of dressing; and those who have rein-deer on their high days and festivals, dress flesh and fish together. In summer they buy their salt of the Norwegians, and in the winter purchase it of the burghers. Tobacco is not very uncommon among them; but they buy it at a very high price. In this country none of the women have any hand in dressing provisions, that office belonging to the master of the house. They never omit saying of grace before and after meat, nor shaking one another by the hand before they rise from table.

S E C T. X.

Of the Marriages and Religion of the Swedish Laplanders; their Sorcerers, and the Manner in which they pretend to foretel future Events by their Magic Drums. The Government, Trade, and Divisions of Lapland.

THE marriages of the Laplanders depend entirely on the pleasure of their parents, who pay no regard to the inclinations and affections of their children; and it is said that a widow, though decrepid with age, and both deaf and blind, will never want suitors, if she be but rich. They seem to disapprove of marriages between relations, and even intimate friends: as to polygamy, it has never obtained amongst them. When the parents have determined to choose a daughter-in-law, they take their son, let him be ever so unwilling, and accompanied by some of their near relations, go to the dwelling of the son's future father-in-law, always taking some brandy with them. This liquor is the first and most powerful pleader in their behalf, and the acceptance of it is esteemed a good presage of success; but if the treaty comes to nothing, the young woman's parents are obliged to pay for all the brandy used during the courtship. If the marriage takes place, an agreement is made about the money and goods which the parents of the bridegroom are to give to those of the bride. In return, the bride's parents are obliged to give the new-married pair as much furniture and as many rein-deer as are esteemed an equivalent for the presents they have received. Those who are poor marry without any of these previous ceremonies, every one at such times providing according to his ability. The marriages are solemnized in the churches; and the bride usually feigns such timidity, and shews such reluctance, that force is sometimes obliged to be used to get

get her thither. After the ceremony the company return to their tents, where they have a feast, every one bringing his portion of provisions, which are all dressed and served up together.

The children are inured to hardships from their infancy: they are first securely laced up in little cradles, which are suspended in the smoke near the top of the tent, and rocked by pulling two cords that hang down from each side. They are very careful when they begin to grow up, to teach them to earn a comfortable subsistence, by accustoming them to all kinds of work practised among them; but they have a great aversion to schools.

Though the inhabitants of the Swedish lapmarks make an outward profession of Christianity, yet the greatest part of them are most grossly ignorant, and shew no other signs of their having embraced that religion, than by being baptized and called by Christian names. Indeed they are extremely tenacious of their pagan rites and customs, which proceeds from the high idea they entertain of their ancestors, and their willingness to believe that whatever they did must be reasonable, just, and worthy of commendation.

Those who are still pagans call the Supreme God by the name of Jubmal, and term the prince of the evil spirits Perkmel. As they attribute to this last spirit a power equal to that of God, they endeavour to obtain his favour and render him propitious, in order that he may not hurt them. Besides these, and some other deities, they have a number of demi-gods. They make images both of wood and stone, but pay the greatest reverence to the latter. When the Laplanders come within sight of the place where the idol stands, they uncover themselves, make low bows, and creep on their hands and feet up to the idols, in order to make their offerings.

Much has been said of the sorcery practised by these people; but fame has magnified their skill far beyond the truth. Few of the Laplanders pretend to have any skill in magic, and when any thing singular seems to be brought about by their magicians, it causes as much admiration as among other nations. They are indeed persuaded that their forcerers, by repeating mystical words, or by some other means, can restore health to the sick, give tidings of goods stolen, and have it in their power to injure their neighbours.

Almost every body has heard of their magic drums; but they are so cautious in the use of them, that their own countrymen scarce know any thing about them; for if they are detected in using them, it costs the pretended magician his life. They are supposed to use these drums as oracles; for they imagine, that by means of various figures painted on the head of the drum, they can know what passes in distant places; whether they shall meet with success in hunting; what offerings will be most acceptable to their gods; with the causes and cures of certain diseases.

We are told that M. Motraye, who travelled through Lapland in 1718, hired a guide to direct him to the tent of one of these magicians in the most remote part of Lapland; but was first obliged to give the guide all imaginable assurances that he would not betray him to the government. He found the wizard in a poor hut, and in as wretched circumstances as can be imagined. This miserable magician gave M. Motraye his hand, and ordered him to follow him to the top of a high mountain, where he desired him to stay while he fetched his drum and other utensils. Soon after the Laplander returned with his magic drum, which he had concealed among the shrubs for fear of a discovery. It was of an oval form, and had but one head, which was covered with a kind of transparent parchment, wretchedly painted with the celestial signs; and to it was fastened a chain with several brass rings. Before the operation began, the wizard de-

manded if they had any brandy; and half a pint of that liquor being given him, he immediately drank two-thirds of it. He then put the chain and rings into the inside of his drum, and turning the bottom upwards, beat upon it with a forked piece of a rein-deer's horn for a few minutes, the rings all the while jumping about and making a jingling noise. After this he laid himself flat on his back, set the head of the drum on his bare breast, and shutting his eyes, pretended to be in a trance; but at length fetching a deep sigh, he gently raised the drum above his head, and looked at the rings, which he could easily discern through the transparent parchment. Having observed their position and distance from the figures of the celestial signs, he fixed his eyes upon M. Motraye, and declared he would run a great hazard of his life by water as he returned in his sledge, and would also be in great danger in going down the cataracts in a boat: that he would have another narrow escape from fire; and that his life would be long and healthful after he had overcome two fits of illness, both which would seize him within the space of two years. As for the Lapland interpreter who led M. Motraye to his cell, he directed him to go out to fish on some particular days in that and the following month, when he should return home laden with fish: he also pretended to tell him on what days he would be equally fortunate in hunting. M. Motraye asked if he could tell whether he was a bachelor or a married man, into what countries he had travelled, and other questions of the like nature; but this pretended magician was too wise to guess at things that were past, in which he knew his ignorance must be instantly discovered.

With respect to the government of this country, the Laplanders in general acknowledge the king of Sweden for their rightful sovereign; though some of them also pay tribute to Denmark and Russia, as at certain seasons they pitch their tents within the dominions of those crowns. They, however, conform to the Swedish laws; some of them attend the celebration of divine service in the Swedish churches, and apply to the Swedish courts of judicature established all over Lapland.

The judges assistants are chosen from among the Laplanders, and the taxes are usually paid at the time when those courts of justice are held. At the places appointed for these courts, and for levying the taxes, are houses and tents, erected by the Laplanders for their own convenience, with houses and shops that are let to the burghers who frequent the annual fairs. The most considerable of these fairs are held at the same time with the courts of justice, and in some provinces last about a fortnight, but in others only a few days. The goods which the Laplanders buy from the inhabitants of the towns are chiefly tobacco, salt, meal, cloth, a kind of coarse cloth called walmar, kettles, pots, silver spoons, buckles, girdles, rings, cups, needles, laces, hatchets, knives, scissars, lead, powder, fire-arms, tin, or pewter, sulphur, wine, malt-liquor, figs, &c. The Laplanders in return sell to the inhabitants of the towns furs of all kinds, the flesh and skins of rein-deer, fur gowns, boots, shoes, fish, cheese, &c. There are neither towns nor any fixed or measured miles used in any of the lapmarks.

Lapland is divided into seven lapmarks, or provinces, which receive their names from the places of note in Nordland in whose neighbourhood they lie. They all belong to the government of West Bothnia, except Jamtland lapmark, which is included in the government of West Nordland. We might here give an account of each of these lapmarks, but as it would afford neither any useful instruction nor entertainment to the reader to describe petty villages, consisting of a few little wooden houses, or huts, and a church resembling a barn, we shall conclude our account of Swedish Lapland, and proceed to Norway, which bounds it to the west.

C H A P. VI.

O F N O R W A Y.

S E C T. I.

Of the Situation, Climate, Coast, Mountains, Roads, Bridges, and Face of the Country in Norway. Of the different Kinds of Marble, and other Stones; with a particular Account of the Asbestos, or Amianthus, a Sort of incombustible Flax; and of the Mines of that Country.

NORWAY, which is called by the Danes and the Norwegians themselves Norge, is bounded on the north and west by the North Sea, on the east by Swedish Lapland and Sweden, and on the south by the sea called the Categate, extending in length from the fifty-seventh degree forty-seven minutes to the North Cape in the seventy-first degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in breadth from the fourth degree thirty-five minutes to very unequal distances within land, it being in some places two hundred and eighty, in others about a hundred and fifty, and in others not above thirty miles broad.

In most parts of Norway the air is pure and salubrious, but more so in the middle and east side than on the western coast; for in the latter the air is damp, and the western extremely variable, on which account scorbutic disorders are very common among the Norwegians.

In the summer nights the horizon, when unclouded, is so clear and luminous, that at midnight one may read, write, and do all kinds of work as in the day; and in the extremity of this country, towards the islands of Finmark, the sun is in the midst of summer continually in view, and is observed to encircle day and night the north pole, contracting its orbit and then gradually enlarging it, till at length it leaves the horizon. On the other hand, in the depth of winter the sun is for some weeks invisible, all the light perceived at noon being a faint glimmering that continues about an hour and a half, which, as the sun does not then appear above the horizon, chiefly proceeds from the reflection of the rays on the highest mountains, whose summits are seen more clearly than any other objects; but the bountiful Creator has granted the inhabitants all possible assistance; for besides the moon-shine, which by reflection from the mountains is rendered exceeding bright in the valleys, the people receive considerable relief from the aurora borealis, or northern lights, which frequently afford them as much light as is necessary for their performing their ordinary labours.

In the western parts of this country the cold of winter generally sets in about the middle of October, and continues till the middle of April. The waters are congealed to a thick ice, and the mountains and valleys covered with snow: yet even this is of such importance to the welfare of the country, that in a mild winter the peasants, who live among the mountains, are considerable sufferers; for without this severe frost and snow, they can neither convey the timber they have felled to the rivers, nor carry their corn, butter, furs, and other commodities, in their sledges to the market-towns; and after the sale of them carry back the necessaries with which they are there supplied: for the largest rivers, with their roaring cataracts, are arrested in their course by the frost, and the very spittle is no sooner out of the mouth than it is congealed, and rolls along the ground like hail. But the wise Creator has given the inhabitants of this cold climate a greater variety of preservatives against the weather, than most countries afford. Extensive forests supply them with plenty of timber for building and for fuel; the wool of the sheep, and the furs and skins of wild beasts, furnish them with warm lining for their cloaths, and covering for their beds; innumerable flights of wild fowl supply them with down and feathers; the mountains themselves serve them for fences against the north and east winds, and their caverns afford them shelter.

While the winter thus rages in the east of Norway, the lakes and bays on the west side are kept open by the warm exhalations of the ocean, though lying in a direct line with these frozen eastern parts; and the frosts are seldom known to last above a fortnight or three weeks. Even in the centre of Germany, which is two hundred leagues nearer the line, the winters are generally more severe, and the frosts sharper than in the diocese of Bergen; for the inhabitants here are often surprized at reading in the public papers of frost and snow in Poland and Germany, when they feel no such weather; and the learned Dr. Pontoppidan observes, that the harbours of Amsterdam, Hamburg, Copenhagen, and Lubec, are much oftener froze than those of Norway, where this seldom happens above two or three times in a whole century. Thus the winter at Bergen is so moderate, that the seas are almost always open to the fishermen and mariners; and there the North Sea continues navigable during the whole winter as far as the eightieth or eighty-second degree. Thus while the inhabitants of the eastern parts have by means of the ice and snow the convenience of bringing their commodities in sledges to the market-towns, those of the western side on the sea coast are at the same time employed in their profitable fisheries. However, Bergen, and all the eastern coast, is so subject to frequent rains, that the men, whenever they go abroad, wear rain-hats made like umbrellas, and the women in all weathers secure themselves by wearing a woollen or silk black veil over their heads.

In summer the weather is not only warm but extremely hot. These violent heats, which are, however, of short duration, may be partly derived from the valleys inclosed within high mountains, where the reverberation of the rays of the sun on all sides heat the air; and as there is almost no night, neither the atmosphere nor the mountains have time to cool. Indeed there cannot be a more decisive proof of the summer's heat in Norway, than that several vegetables, and particularly barley, in some places grow up and ripen within six weeks or two months.

With respect to the coast, that on the west of Norway is surrounded by a great number of islands and rocks, some of the former being three, six, or nine Norway miles in length, and pretty fertile; but most of them are small, and inhabited by only a few fishermen and pilots. The rocks, which rise several fathoms above the surface of the water, are a kind of rampart that defends the coast, and amount to some hundred thousands. They form a-bundance of good harbours; and in many places iron rings are fastened to them for mooring ships, where there is not sea-room or good anchorage. As the water is calm and smooth, they are of great service to coasters, the violence of the waves being broken against these barriers, while the open places are very dangerous, and every year prove fatal to many small vessels. The shore of Norway is generally steep and perpendicular, so that close to the rocks, the depth of the sea is from a hundred to two, three, or four hundred fathoms.

Several gulphs and creeks run forty, fifty, and sixty miles into the land, and in some of them, which are but from fifty to a hundred fathoms in breadth, runs a narrow channel four hundred fathoms deep; but on the sides the depth does not exceed a hundred fathoms.

As the country is extremely mountainous, the arable land is but little in comparison of the waters and desarts, which obliges the inhabitants to procure half their subsistence from the sea. Hence the villages are small, and the houses scattered among the vallies: in some places, however, those of the peasants stand so high on the edge of steep precipices, that ladders are fixed to climb up to them; so that when a clergyman is sent for, who is unused to the road, he risks his life in ascending them, especially in winter, when the ways are slippery. In

such places the bodies of the dead are let down with ropes, or brought down on men's backs, before they are laid in a coffin; and at some distance from Bergen, they are obliged in winter to draw the mail over the steepest mountains.

One of the principal inconveniencies experienced by travellers arises from the roads; for they cannot, without terror, pass even the king's road, which in several places extends up the sides of steep and craggy mountains on ways that are either shored up, or suspended by iron bolts fixed in the mountains; and, though not above the breadth of a foot path, have no rails on the side. If two travellers were to meet there in the night, and not see each other soon enough to stop where the road will suffer them to pass, they must stop short, without being able to pass by each other, or to find a turning for their horses, or even to alight. The only resource I can imagine in this difficulty, says the bishop of Bergen, is, that one must endeavour to cling to some cliff of this steep mountain, or, if help be at hand, be drawn up by a rope, and then throw his horse headlong down a tremendous precipice, in order to make room for the other traveller to pass.

The caverns of the mountains also afford shelter to the wild beasts, which render it difficult to extirpate them; and it is not easy to describe the havoc made by the lynxes, foxes, bears, and especially wolves, among the cattle, goats, hares, and other useful animals.

Another disadvantage is, that the cows, sheep, and goats belonging to the peasants often fall down the precipices, and are destroyed. Sometimes they make a false step into a projection called a mountain-hammer, where they can neither ascend nor descend: on this occasion a peasant cheerfully ventures his life for a sheep or a goat; descending from the top of a mountain by a rope of some hundred fathoms in length, with his legs over a cross stick, till he sets his foot on the place where he finds his goat, when he fastens it to the rope, and it is drawn up along with himself. But the most amazing circumstance is, that he runs this risk with the help of only a single person, who holds the end of the rope, or fastens it to a rock, if there be one at hand proper for that purpose. There are instances of the assistant himself having been dragged down, and sacrificing his life from his fidelity to his friend, on which both have perished. When a man or beast has thus the misfortune to fall some hundred fathoms down the precipices, it is observed, that the air presses with such force against the bodies thus falling, that they are not only deprived of life for some time before they reach the ground, but their bellies burst, and their entrails come out, which is plainly the case when they fall into deep water.

From the multitude of springs that issue from the mountains, and the vast masses of snow accumulated on their summits, which gently dissolves in summer, are formed many lakes, in some of which are floating islands, and a considerable number of rivers, the largest of which is the Glommen, or Glamer; but none of them are navigable far up the country: the passage being every where interrupted by rocks, and in some places by dreadful cataracts, in which the stream precipitates itself from the height of forty, fifty, and even a hundred fathoms. The bridges over these rivers are not walled, but formed of timber cases filled with stones, which serve for the piers on which the timbers are laid. The largest bridge of this kind has forty-three stone cases, and is a hundred paces in length. In those places where the narrowness and rapidity of the current will not admit of sinking these cases, thick masts are laid on each side on the shore, with the thickest end fastened to the rocks: one mast being thus laid in the water, another is placed upon it, reaching a fathom beyond it, and then a third or fourth in like manner to the middle of the stream, where it is joined by other connected masts from the opposite side. Thus in passing over the bridge, especially in the middle, it seems to swing, which to those who are not used to these bridges appears extremely dangerous, so that filled with terror they alight from their horses, and lead them over.

The mountains of Norway are, however, attended with some advantages: a great chain of them serves as a

barrier between this country and Sweden; and besides, they exhibit the most delightful prospects; for here nature has added greater beauties to the situation of cottages and farm-houses, than in other countries can be enjoyed by royal palaces, though assisted by all the varieties of groves, terraces, canals, and cascades. A predecessor of mine, says the bishop of Bergen, is said to have given the name of the Northern Italy to the district of Waas, which lies some leagues to the eastward of Bergen; and certainly there cannot be a more enchanting prospect. All the buildings in it are the church, the parsonage, and a few farm-houses scattered on different eminences. The beauty of the place is much heightened by two uniform mountains gradually rising to a vast height, betwixt which runs a valley near half a league in breadth, and a river which sometimes precipitates itself down the rocks in foaming cataracts, and at others spreads itself into small lakes. On both sides it is bordered with the finest meadows intermingled with little thickets, and by the easy declivities of the verdant mountains covered with fruitful fields and farm-houses, standing above each other in a succession of natural terraces. Between these a stately forest presents itself to the view, and beyond that the summits of mountains covered with perpetual snow, and ten or twelve streams issuing from the snowy mountains, form an agreeable contrast in their meanders along the blooming sides of the hills, till they lose themselves in the rivers beneath.

Within the bowels of some of the mountains are several of the most beautiful kinds of marble, some white, others veined with blue, and others variegated with a variety of colours: there is likewise black marble spotted with white, green marble with greyish veins, and blue marble with white veins. They also contain such quantities of the magnet or loadstone, that some tons of them have been exported: they likewise yield the asbestos, of which incombustible linen and paper have been made.

It will not be unentertaining to the reader to see here a particular account of the asbestos, or amianthus, as described by Dr. Pontoppidan, bishop of Bergen: "Having heard of some wood petrified by a certain spring, I wrote, says he, for some samples, and a large parcel of it was sent me. At first I thought it resembled hazle, that had lain a long time in the water; but upon a narrower inspection, and drawing out some of the filaments, I found it to be amianthus, much finer than the Greenland stone-flax, which the reverend Mr. Egede says is used there as wicks in the lamps, without being in the least wasted, while supplied with oil or fat. This amianthus, from the softness and fineness of its fibres, deserves to be called stone-silk, rather than stone-flax: I also made a wick for a lamp of it, and it was not consumed; but its light being much dimmer than that produced by cotton, I laid it aside. I have also in my possession a piece of paper of this asbestos, which when thrown into a fierce fire is not in the least wasted; but what was written on it totally disappears.

"The manner of preparing this stone-silk or stone-flax is this: After its being softened in water, it is beaten with a moderate force, till the fibres, or long threads, separate from each other; afterwards they are carefully and repeatedly washed till clear of all terrene particles; then the flax is dried in a sieve: all that remains now is to spin these fine filaments, wherein great care is required; besides which the fingers must be softened with oil, that the thread may be the more supple and pliant."

Though this country thus abounds in stones, no flints have yet been found there, so that those for fire-arms are imported from Denmark or Germany: but though there are no flints, there are amethysts, garnets, chalcedonies, agate, jasper, and crystals.

Norway formerly produced gold; but the expence of working the mines, and separating the gold from the ore, being greater than the profit, they have been neglected. There are, however, silver mines, which are extremely valuable, and give employment to several thousand persons. The copper-mines are also extraordinary rich, and employ great numbers: one of the most profitable productions of this country is iron, several hundred thousand

sand quintals being annually exported chiefly in bars, and the rest cast into cannon, kettles, stoves, and the like. Here are likewise some lead-mines, but none of tin or quicksilver.

S E C T. II.

Of the Corn, Fruit, and Trees; Beasts, Insects, Birds, and Fishes of Norway.

THOUGH this country is situated so far to the north, it produces rye, barley, white, grey, and green peas, vetches, which are used as provender for horses; hops, flax, and hemp; many kinds of roots and greens for the kitchen, with a considerable number of hardy flowers. There are several kinds of cherries, of which the peasants sell great quantities dried; there are also many sorts of wholesome and well-tasted berries, as strawberries, raspberries, red and white currants, red and white gooseberries, sun-berries, barberries, bilberries, cranberries, blackberries, and many others; several kinds of plums attain to a tolerable ripeness; but this is seldom the case with peaches, apricots, and grapes. However, several sorts of apples and pears are found all over the country; but the greatest part of these are summer fruit, which ripen early; for winter fruit seldom come to perfection, except the summer proves hotter, and the winter sets in later than usual. But though Norway is inferior with respect to its fruits than many other countries in Europe, yet this deficiency is compensated by its inexhaustible forests, from which most of the provinces are enabled to receive immense sums from foreigners for beams, masts, planks, and boards; besides the great consumption for houses built at home, entirely of beams of wood, ships, bridges, and a prodigious number of foundries, which require an immense quantity of charcoal in the fusion of metals; to which we must add, that in many places the woods are felled only to clear the ground, and are burnt for the sake of the ashes, which serve for manure.

In treating of the animals in Norway, we shall begin with the horses, which are of greater use in riding than in drawing; they have an easy pace, are full of spirit, and very sure-footed. When they mount or descend a steep rock on stones, like steps, they first tread gently with one foot, to try if the stone they touch be fast, and in this they must be left to themselves, or the best rider will endanger his neck; but when they are to go down a very steep and slippery place, they, in a surprising manner, draw their hind-legs under them and slide down. They shew great courage in fighting with the wolves and bears, which is very usual with them; for when a horse perceives any of these furious animals advancing towards him, and has a mare or gelding with him, this generous animal places them behind him, and then attacks his antagonist, by striking at him with his fore-legs, with such courage, that he commonly remains conqueror. Both the Norway horses and cows are generally of a yellowish colour, but the latter are small, and yield no great quantity of milk; however, their flesh has a fine grain, is juicy, and well-tasted. The sheep are also small, and resemble those of Denmark.

In many places the goats run wild in the fields, both in winter and summer, till they are ten or twelve years old, and when the peasant to whom they belong is resolved to take them, he must either do it by some snare or shoot them: They are so bold, that on the approach of a wolf, they stay to receive him, and if they have dogs with them, will resist a whole herd. They also frequently attack the snakes, and when they are bit by them, not only kill, but eat them, after which they are never known to die of the bite, though they are ill for several days. If these goats are tame, the owner warms their own milk, and with it washes the wound.

The bishop of Bergen observes, on mentioning these animals, that near Rostadt is a flat and naked field, on which no vegetable will grow. The soil is almost white, with grey stripes, and has somewhat so peculiarly poisonous in its nature, that though all other animals may safely pass over it, a goat or kid no sooner sets its foot upon it,

than it drops down, stretches out its legs, its tongue hangs out of its mouth, and, if it has not instant help, it expires.

Norway has few swine, and not many of the common deer; but the hares, which in the cold season change from brown or grey to a snow white, are very cheap in winter. In some parts of the country there are elks, but they are not numerous. The rein-deer, however, run wild in herds, and are shot for food by the inhabitants. Of these animals we have given a description in treating of Swedish Lapland; but the author just mentioned takes notice of one or two particulars that ought not to be omitted: he says that when the rein-deer sheds his horns, and others rise in their stead, they appear at first covered with a skin, and till they are of a finger's length, are so soft, that they may be cut with a knife like a sausage, and are delicate eating, even when raw. The hunters, therefore, when far out in the country, and pinched for want of food, eat them, and find that they satisfy both their hunger and thirst. But when the horn is grown, there breeds within the skin a worm, which eats away the root. The same gentleman also takes notice, that the rein-deer can draw over his eyes a kind of skin, through which he can see, when otherwise in the hard snows, he would be obliged to shut his eyes entirely: a singular instance of the wisdom and benevolence of the Creator, in providing for the wants of each creature according to its destined manner of life.

Besides the bears and wolves, already mentioned, there are here the lynx; vast numbers of white, red, and black foxes; and the glutton, which receives its name from its voracious appetite. Those of this country, in their shape and size, have some resemblance to a long-bodied dog, with thick legs, sharp claws and teeth; his colour is black, variegated with brown and yellowish streaks: he has the boldness to attack every beast he can possibly conquer, and if he finds a carcase six times as big as himself, he will not leave it, while there is any left: when fully gorged, says our author, he presses and squeezes himself between two trees that stand near together, and thus empties himself of what he has not time to digest. As his skin shines like damask, and is covered with soft hair, it is much valued, and it is therefore well worth the huntsman's while to kill the animal without wounding the skin, which is done by shooting him with a bow and blunt arrows.

The marten is likewise hunted for the sake of its skin; as are also the ermine and the squirrel, both of which are shot with blunt arrows. The skin of the ermine is of a beautiful white, and it has a black spot on the tail. These little animals run after mice like cats, and drag away what they catch, particularly eggs, which are their greatest delicacy. Here are also otters, castors, hedgehogs, and badgers.

Among the mice, some are thought poisonous, and others are remarkable for their being white, and their having red eyes. But the most pernicious vermin is a little animal called the læmus or lemming, which is between the size of a rat and a mouse; the tail is short, and turned up at the end, and the legs are also so short, that they scarce keep the belly from the ground. They have very soft hair, and are of different colours; particularly black, with yellow and brown in streaks, and some in spots. About once or twice in every twenty years, says our reverend author, they assemble from their secret abodes in prodigious numbers, like the messengers of heaven to punish the neighbouring inhabitants. They proceed from Kolen's rock, which divides the Nordland manor from Sweden, and is held to be their peculiar and native place, marching in vast multitudes through Nordland and Finmark to the western ocean; and other bodies of them through Swedish Lapmark to the Sinus Bothnicus, devouring all the grass and vegetables in their way. They do this in a direct line, and going straight forward, proceed into the rivers or the sea: thus, if they meet with a boat in any river, they run in at one end, or side, and out again at the other, in order to keep their course. They carry their young with them on their backs, or in their mouths, and if they meet with peasants who come to oppose them, they will stand undaunted, and bark at them like dogs. This evil is, however,

however, of short duration; for on entering the sea, they swim as long as their strength lasts, and then are drowned. If any are stopped in their course, and unable to reach the sea, they are killed by the frosts of winter, and if any of these escape, most of them die as soon as they eat the new grass.

With respect to the reptiles, toads and snakes are only in the southern parts of this country, and these snakes are less poisonous than in warmer climates. There are lizards here of various colours, as brown, green, and striped: those that are green are found in the fields, and the others in the cracks and holes in the rocks.

There are here most of the fowls to be found in the rest of Europe, and some that appear peculiar to this country. Among the former are common poultry, turkeys, tame and wild geese, peacocks, ducks, and pigeons; nightingales, larks, quails, partridges, starlings, wrens, magpies, bats, water-wagtails, storks, herons, gulls, owls, ravens, cormorants, falcons, eagles, and many others. Of the latter, there are only two species, the rock-eagle and the fish-eagle; the former is somewhat less than the other, and spotted with grey; it haunts the highest places in the country, and frequently kills hares, sheep, lambs, and the like animals, as well as birds. The farmers here say, that he will sometimes attack a deer, in which case he makes use of the following stratagem: he soaks his wings in water, and then covering them with sand, and flying against the deer's face, blinds him for a time, when the pain makes him run about as if mad, and he frequently falls down a rock and breaks his neck, upon which the eagle seizes upon him for his prey. There are also many accounts of their carrying away young children.

The fish-eagle is of a larger size, and of a light brown. Though it does not dislike a dead carcase on shore, it lives principally on fish, which it often takes from the otters, and frequently seizes fish on the surface of the water. When this bird flies out to sea, in order to strike a fish with his talons, he sometimes lays hold of such as are too strong for him, particularly the fish here called the queite, whose high and prominent back makes him appear much less than he really is: when the eagle strikes his talons into him, he cannot easily disengage them, on account of their crookedness and length, in which case the fish drags him down with him; while the bird, making a miserable cry, strives to keep himself up, and works with his wings spread as long as possible, though in vain; for at last he must yield, and fall a prey to those he intended to devour. Our author mentions another instance, in order to shew that this king of birds, as he is called, extends his attempts beyond his power. Near Bergen, an eagle standing on the bank of a river, saw a large salmon as it were just under him; on which he instantly struck one of his talons into the root of an elm near it, and partly hanging over the river, struck the other into the salmon, which being large and strong, swam away, and split the eagle to his neck.

Among the birds in a manner peculiar to this country is the francolin, an excellent land-bird, which serves the Norwegians instead of the pheasant, its flesh being white, firm, and of a delicious taste.

The great northern diver is a pretty large sea bird, bigger than a goose. It has a long neck, the upper part of which is black, as well as the beak and feet; but from the breast downwards it is white. There are also some white feathers at the extremity of the wings and tail. The wings are so short, that they can hardly raise themselves with them; and the legs stand so far backward, that they are less fit to walk with than to paddle along the water, on which account they are seldom seen to come ashore. They are said to lay but two eggs, and that under their wings there are two pretty deep holes big enough to put one's fist in. In each of these they hide an egg, and hatch the young ones there as perfectly, and with less trouble than others do on shore.

The Norwegian parrot is a middle-sized sea bird somewhat larger than a pigeon. Its feathers are black and white, and its beak, which is hooked like that of a parrot, is striped with yellow, red, and black, and so sharp, that when he bites any of the bird-catchers, he takes away a piece of flesh: his claws are also very sharp, with

which, and his beak, he defends himself against the raven, whom he holds by the throat, and will carry out to sea, and drown him before he loses his hold. This bird builds his nest in a slanting hole in the ground, two or three ells deep, and also between the clefts of the rocks.

The black cap is almost as small as the wren; the body is black and yellow, white under the belly, and the top of the head black. These birds keep near the houses, and are such lovers of meat, that the farmers can hardly keep them from it, and therefore catch them in a trap like mice. In short, there are such incredible numbers of sea and land fowl near the rocks on the sea shore, that they sometimes obscure the sight of the heavens for many miles out at sea, so that one would imagine that all the fowls in the universe were assembled in one flock.

Norway is also as plentifully supplied with fish as any country in the world. There are here whales of several kinds, porpoises, sword-fish, and sharks; sturgeon, salmon, salmon-trout, turbot, cod, thornback, rock-fish, flying-fish, whiting, carp, gurnet, flounders, plaice, mackerel, herrings, bream, anchovies, eels, and many others well known in other countries.

Among those which are more uncommon is the fin-fish, which is forty feet or more in length; their liver alone yields several casks of train-oil. On their backs they have a high round and sharp bone, with which they tear open the bellies of other fish. They are covered with a kind of hair, something like a horse's mane, and are often seen about the boats of the fishermen, who are as much afraid of them as of the most dangerous sea monster.

The ink-fish, called by some the sea-gnat, is one of the most extraordinary creatures produced in the ocean, and are from nine inches to upwards of two feet in length. The head has two large eyes, and the mouth has some resemblance to a bird's beak; above which there stand two long arms or horns, each of which is octangular, and covered with a number of small round balls, somewhat longer than a pin's head. At the back of the head are two of these horns twice as long as the rest, and broader towards the end. The body is almost round; it resembles a small bag, and is blunt at both ends. On each side of it are two skinny membranes, with which the animal can cover itself over; and it assumes various forms by the motion of its skin and arms: but what must appear very extraordinary, the fore part of the body is filled with a black fluid, which makes the fish appear of a blue colour, though this fluid is of a fine black, and may serve for ink to write with. When these creatures are in danger, they discharge this liquid, which blackening the water all round them, they become invisible to their pursuers, and thus make their escape. Thus this otherwise helpless animal is provided by the wise Creator for its defence. If any of this black fluid happens to drop upon the hand, it burns like a caustic.

There are here also a vast variety of shell-fish, as lobsters, crabs, craw-fish, prawns, shrimps, oysters, muscles, cockles, sea-snails, star-fish, hermit-fish, and many others; one of the most curious of which is the sea-urchin, known also by the name of the sea-apple, a name that represents the size and figure of the thin and tender shell that surrounds this extraordinary fish, which are very common on the coast of Norway, where they are seen every day. They are of various sizes, from that of a walnut to the head of a new-born infant; some are of the form of a cone, and others are quite round, except the under part, which is pretty flat, and of these are the greatest number. The shell is covered with a multitude of small sharp prickles like small pins, which they probably shed once a year, and have new ones. When they are just taken out of the sea, they have a beautiful greenish lustre; but their greatest beauty appears when they are dried, boiled, and the prickles rubbed off. This consists in certain regular interchangeable stripes of a cylindrical form, running from the top to the bottom: some are white, others of an orange colour, others of a light red, and others of a deep red; and these stripes are strewed over with as many little white knobs as there were originally prickles. When this beautiful shell is broken, which is

easily done; there is found in it a quantity of slime and water, with a small fish, of a black or dark red colour; and from this little body there runs into all the turnings and windings of the shell a great number of fine threads, that seem only composed of a thicker slime, and have a communication with the external prickles; and between these is disposed in stripes a yellowish spawn. The fish lies stretched from the bottom to the top of the shell, where there is an almost imperceptible opening, through which the excrements pass. The mouth, which is extremely curious, is formed of five bones, part convex and part concave, all running to a small point; where they join together like the bill of a bird, and have some resemblance to a flower. The sea-urchin is found in a sandy bottom, where he rolls himself about on his prickles wherever he pleases.

S E C T. III.

Of the Persons, Dress, Houses, Food, and Employments of the Norwegians; with a particular Account of the extraordinary Manner in which they catch Fowl on the highest Rocks.

THE Norwegians are generally tall of stature, well made, and lively; yet those on the coast are said to be neither so tall nor so robust as those who inhabit the mountains, but are remarkable for being fatter and having rounder faces. The hair and eyes of the Norwegians are of a lighter colour than those of most other nations; and a dark complexion is as rare here, as a fair complexion in Italy. Indeed their eyes are generally blue or of a light grey; and they are in every respect a different people from the Laplanders, who lie farther to the north, and are of a smaller stature, have a flatter visage, a dark brown complexion, and black hair.

The Norwegians in general are brisk, active, and so ingenious, that the peasants employ neither hatters, shoe-makers, weavers, taylors, tanners, carpenters, joiners, or smiths: all these trades being exercised in every farm-house, and they think a boy can neither be an useful member of society, nor a good man, without becoming master of all these arts.

The Norwegians, who live in towns, have nothing remarkable in their dress; but the peasants do not trouble themselves about fashions. Those termed stire farmers have their breeches and stockings of one piece. They have a wide loose jacket, made of a coarse woollen cloth, as are also their waistcoat; and those who are fond of appearing fine, have the seams covered with cloth of a different colour. The peasants of one parish are remarkable for wearing white cloaths edged with black: the dress of another parish is black edged with red, and that of another is all black; others wear black and yellow: and thus the inhabitants of almost every parish vary in the colour of their cloaths.

They wear a flapped hat, or a little brown, grey, or black cap, made quite round, and the seams adorned with black ribbons. They have shoes of a particular construction without heels, consisting of two pieces, the upper-leather fitting close to the foot, and the sole being joined to it by many plaits and folds. In winter, and when they travel, they wear a sort of half boots that reach up to the calf of the leg, and are laced on one side; and when they go on the rocks in the snow, they put on snow-shoes: but as these are troublesome, when they have a great way to travel, they put on snow-skates, which are about as broad as the foot, but six or eight feet long, and pointed before; they are covered underneath with seal-skin, so that the smooth grain of the hair turns backwards to the heel. With these snow-skates they slide as fast upon the snow as upon the ice, and no horse can keep pace with them.

The peasants never wear a neckcloth, or any thing of that kind, except when they are dressed; for their neck and breast are always open, and they let the snow beat into their bosoms: on the contrary, they cover their veins, binding a woollen fillet round their wrists. About their body they wear a broad leather belt, a dorne with

convex brass plates, to which hangs a brass chain that holds their large knife, gimblet, and other tackle.

The women at church, and in genteel assemblies, are dressed in jackets laced close, and have leather girdles, with silver ornaments about them. They also wear a silver chain three or four times round the neck, with a gilt medal hanging at the end of it. Their handkerchiefs and caps are almost covered with small silver, brass, and tin plates, buttons, and large rings, such as they wear on their fingers, to which they hang again a parcel of small ones, which make a jingling noise when they move. A maiden-bride has her hair platted, and hung as full as possible with such kind of trinkets, as also her cloaths: for this purpose they get all the ornaments they can.

Their houses are generally built of fir and pine-trees, the whole trunks of which are only chopped even to make them lie close, and then laid one upon another, and fastened with mortices at the corners. These trunks are left round as they grow, both on the inside and outside of the house, and are frequently boarded over and painted, especially in the trading towns, which gives them a genteel appearance.

The people in the country villages build their houses at a distance from each other, with their fields and grounds about them. The store-house for the provisions is generally at a distance from the dwelling-house, for fear of fire, and placed high upon poles, to keep the provisions dry, and preserve them from mice and all kinds of vermin. The kitchen also stands separate, as do the cow-houses, barns, stables, and the like. A farm has generally a mill belonging to it, situated by some rivulet; besides a smith's forge. Up the country, where timber for building is of little value, there are many farm-houses as large as the seats of noblemen: these are frequently two stories high, and have a railed balcony in the front, and the additional buildings resemble a village. The common farm-houses have, however, only the ground-floor, and no other window but a square hole in the wall, which in summer is left open; but in winter, or in wet weather, is filled up with a wooden frame, covered with the inward membrane of some animal that is very strong, and as transparent as a bladder. This hole, which is as high as possible, also serves to let out the smoke, by answering the purpose of a chimney.

Under the above hole there is generally placed a long thick table, with benches round it; and at the upper end is a high seat, which belongs solely to the master. In the towns these houses are covered with tiles; but in the country the people lay over the boards the sappy bark of birch trees, which will not decay in many years. They cover this again three or four inches thick with turf, on which grass or moss always grows.

The people are remarkable for their civility, and are willing to do any one all the service in their power. Hence a traveller is seldom permitted to pay for his lodging; for they think it their duty to treat a stranger as well as they can, and think he does them an honour by accepting of their civilities: yet the peasant never gives his place at the upper end of the table to the greatest guest that ever comes under his roof; for he thinks that place belongs only to himself. They keep open-house at Christmas for three weeks, during which their tables are spread and loaded with the best provisions they can afford. At Christmas-eve their hospitality extends to the very birds, for whose use they hang on a pole at the barn-door an unthreshed sheaf of corn, which draws thither the sparrows and other small birds.

In the trading towns the inhabitants live with respect to provisions much in the same manner as the Danes; but the peasants keep close to the manners of their forefathers. Their oat-cakes are their common bread, but upon particular occasions, as at weddings, or other entertainments, they have rye bread. However, if grain be scarce, which is usually the case after a very severe winter, the peasants have recourse to what even they esteem a disagreeable method of preserving life, by boiling and drying the bark of the fir-tree, mixing it with a little oatmeal, and making it into a sort of bread. Even in times of plenty they eat a little of this, in order that when there is a scarcity, they may think it the less disagreeable.

The best dainties of the Norway peasants consist in milk, meats, and different sorts of cheese, on which they spread butter as on bread. The highland peasants are so fond of angelica, which grows very plentifully in the mountains, that they chew it in a morning dried, and also make snuff of it.

The mountains furnish the people with game, and the lakes and rivers with plenty of fresh-water fish. They kill cows, sheep, and goats for their winter stock, part of which they pickle and smoke, and some of it they cut in thin slices, sprinkle it with salt, then dry it in the wind, and eat it like hung beef. They are fond of brandy, and of chewing and smoking tobacco.

The peasants employ themselves in cutting wood, felling and floating of timber, burning of charcoal, and extracting of tar. Many are also employed in the mines, furnaces, and stamping mills; and also in navigation and fishing, besides hunting and shooting; for every body is at liberty to pursue the game, especially in the mountains, and on the heaths and commons, where every peasant may make use of what arms he pleases.

SECT. IV.

The Hardiness of the Norwegians; the Manner in which they carry on their Fishing, and their Agriculture; with their astonishing Methods of catching Fowl.

THE Norwegians are inured to cold and hardships from their childhood; for in the latter end of November they run about bare-foot, even upon the ice. The mountaineers who daily go in the woods have frequently their beards full of icicles, and their bosom full of snow. Our author says, that in his travels over the highest mountains of Norway, which are covered with snow, and where horses are of no service, he has seen the peasants in great numbers do the work of these animals, which they seem almost to equal in strength. When they have been in a profuse sweat, he saw them throw themselves every half hour upon the snow, for the sake of its refreshing coolness, and even sucked it to quench their thirst. This they undergo without the least apprehensions of a cold, or a fever, and without murmuring, or betraying the least discontent. On the contrary, they go on singing merrily, and with incredible cheerfulness and alacrity undergo the hardest labour imaginable for nine hours together.

The strong constitutions of the fishermen and seafaring people of this country are no less remarkable. The peasants of both sexes assemble together in prodigious numbers about the middle of January, to make their winter-harvest of the rich produce of the ocean. The people of every family at these times take with them five or six weeks provisions, which chiefly consist of dried fish. They keep out at sea all day and a great part of the night, by moon-shine in open boats; and after that crowd together by scores into little huts built in the islands near the coast, where they have hardly room to lay themselves down in their wet cloaths. Here they repose themselves the remainder of the night, and the next morning return to the same laborious employment with as much pleasure and cheerfulness as if they were going to a merry-making.

Agriculture in Norway is less burthensome to the farmer than in other parts; for he does not here toil in the fields of an oppressive lord; but the fruits of his labour, as in the British dominions, are his absolute and certain property. But, on the other hand, it is in many places attended with great inconvenience and fatigue: the fields consisting of little spots of ground among the rocks, many of which must be dug instead of being plowed, and particularly in the diocese of Bergen, where the soil is less fruitful, and affords few places where the plough can be used. Instead of this they sometimes use a crooked stick, with an iron at the end, which yielding easier to the stones, is not so subject to break. Nor is the harvest without its difficulties; the grain, according to the old custom of the peasants, not being mowed with a scythe, except about Christiana, where it is lately come

into use, but cut with a sickle; for the corn often grows so thick and close, and the stalks are so apt to bend with the weight of the ears, that the reapers grasp the stems with one hand, while they cut them with the other, and then bind them in sheafs: that they may be thoroughly aired and dried, a great number of poles are set up in the fields, and six or eight sheafs hung to each pole. No waggons are used in harvest work, except on the frontiers, where they have been introduced; but instead of them the Norway peasants use sledges, and are prejudiced against any other kind of vehicle, even in places where waggons might easily travel, though their work would be performed with much greater ease and expedition. But in this and every thing else they are so superstitiously tenacious of the customs transmitted to them by their forefathers, that they will not venture to move a stone which their parents had suffered to lie.

The catching of birds affords some of the inhabitants a very good maintenance: but it is impossible to give a just idea of the fatigue and danger with which the people search for the birds in the high and steep rocks, many of which are above two hundred fathoms perpendicular. These people who are called birdmen have two methods of catching them: they either climb up these perpendicular rocks, or are let down from the top by a strong and thick rope. When they climb up they have a large pole of eleven or twelve ells in length, with an iron hook at the end. They who are underneath in a boat, or stand on a cliff, fasten this hook to the waistband of the man's breeches who climbs, by which means they help him up to the highest projection he can reach, and fix his feet upon. They then help up another to the same place; and when they are both up, give each his bird-pole, and a long rope which they tie at each end round their waists. The one then climbs up as high as he can, and where it is difficult the other, by putting his pole under his breech, pushes him up, till he gets to a good standing-place. The uppermost of the two then helps the other up to him with the rope; and thus they proceed till they get to the part where the birds build, and there they search for them. As they have many dangerous places still to climb, one always seeks a convenient spot where he can stand secure by being able to hold himself fast, while the other is climbing about. If the latter should happen to slip he is held up by the other, who stands firm; and when he has passed in safety those dangerous places, he fixes himself in the same manner, that he may enable the other to come safe to him; and then they clamber about after birds where they please. But sometimes accidents happen; for if one does not stand firm, or is too weak to support the other, when he slips, they both fall and are killed; and every year some perish in this manner.

On their thus reaching the places that are seldom visited, they find the birds so tame, that they may take them with their hands, they being unwilling to leave their young; but where they are wild, they throw a net over them in the rock, and entangle those that are flying, with a net fixed to the end of their poles. Thus they catch a vast number of fowls, and the boat keeping underneath them, they throw the dead birds into it, and soon fill the vessel. If the weather continues favourable, and there be a great deal of game, the birdmen sometimes continue eight days together on the rocks; where they find holes or caverns, in which they can securely take their repose. In this case they draw up provisions with lines, and boats are kept coming and going to carry away the game they have caught.

As many of the rocks are so steep and dangerous, that they cannot possibly climb up them, they are then let down from above; when they have a strong rope, eighty or a hundred fathoms long, and about three inches in thickness. One end of it the birdman fastens about his waist, and then drawing it between his legs, so that he can sit on it, he is let down with his bird-pole in his hand, by six men at the top, who let the rope sink by degrees, but lay a piece of timber on the edge of the rock, for it to slide on, to prevent its being torn to pieces by the sharp edge of the stones. Another line is fastened round the man's waist, which he pulls to give signs when

when he would have them pull him up, let him lower, or keep him where he is. He is in great danger of the stones loosening by the rope, and falling upon him; he therefore wears a thick furred cap well lined, which secures him from the blows he may receive from small stones; but if large ones fall, he is in the greatest hazard of losing his life. Thus do these poor men often expose themselves to the most imminent danger, merely to get a subsistence for their families. There are some indeed who say there is no great hazard in it, after they are accustomed to it; but at first the rope turns round with them, till their heads are giddy, and they can do nothing to save themselves. Those who have learnt the art make a play of it; they put their feet against the rock, throw themselves several fathoms out, and push themselves into what place they please. They even keep themselves out on the line in the air, and catch with their poles numbers of birds flying out and into their holes. The greatest art consists in throwing themselves out, so as to swing under the projection of a rock, where the birds gather together: here they fix their feet, loosen themselves from the rope, and fasten it to a stone, to prevent its swinging out of their reach. When a man has done this, he climbs about and catches the birds either with his hands or his pole, and when he has killed as many as he thinks proper, he ties them together, fastens them to the small line, and by a pull gives a sign for those above to draw them up. In this manner he works all day, and when he wants to go up, he either gives a signal to be drawn up, or, with his belt full of birds, works himself up with his hands and feet.

In case there are not people enough to hold the rope, the birdman fixes a post in the ground, fastens his rope to it, and slides down without any help. After which he goes to work as before. In some places there are steep cliffs of a prodigious size lying under the land, and yet above two hundred yards above the water, which are likewise very difficult to be got at. Down these cliffs they help one another in the above manner, and taking a strong rope with them, fasten it here and there in the cliff where they can, and leave it all the summer: upon this they will run up and down, and take the birds at pleasure.

It is impossible to describe how dreadful and dangerous this bird-catching appears to the beholders, from the vast height and excessive steepness of the rocks, many of which hang over the sea. It seems impossible for men to enter the holes under these projections, or to walk a hundred fathoms high on crags of rocks, where they can but just fix their toes.

After the birds are brought home, they eat part of them fresh, and part is hung up to dry for the winter season. These birds afford the inhabitants a good maintenance, partly from their feathers, which are gathered and sent to foreign parts, and partly from their flesh and eggs; some sorts of which are as good as hens eggs, and are sent to market, though they are of various colours and sizes.

S E C T. V.

Of the Religion and Government of the Norwegians.

LUTHERANISM is the established and almost the only religion in Norway, except in the province of Finmark, where are still no inconsiderable number of pagans, but no hardship, expence, or labour is spared for their conversion. The first measures for the reformation of religion in Norway, were taken in the year 1528, and were completed in 1537. In 1607 a new hierarchy, or church government, was established: in every see there is a bishop: the bishop of Christiana is the principal, and takes place of all the rest. Under the bishops are the provosts, the preachers, and the chaplains, or curates, with inferior church officers. A parish usually contains more churches than one; whence the parochial incumbent has often the care of many.

With respect to the laws of Norway, king Olave is said to have been the first legislator of this country, and to have instituted a law for the punishment of rob-

bery, fraud, and assaults. King Christian IV. published a new body of laws for Norway, which were in force till the reign of Christian V. who caused a new digest to be drawn up, and these are the only laws now observed in the kingdom. This law-book was printed in one volume in quarto at Copenhagen in 1687; the substance of it is taken from that of Denmark, with only a few alterations made necessary by the different circumstances of the two kingdoms.

At present the chief officer in Norway is a vice-stadtholder, who is president of the supreme court of judicature at Christiana, which is the general tribunal for all Norway, to which there lies an appeal in all causes from the inferior courts of the several dioceses, or general governments, in this kingdom; but may, however, be removed to the supreme court at Copenhagen.

Each of the four dioceses, or general governments, into which Norway is divided, has its general governor, and under these are the prefects. The office of both is the same as in Denmark.

Next to the prefects are the secretaries, and the collectors, who levy the king's taxes, and pay them into the hands of the receiver.

Over the nine provincial courts are nine judges: there are also inferior judges, each of whom, in conjunction with eight assistants, has the power of deciding causes within his district. Besides, in the four chief cities of Norway, Christiana, Christiansand, Bergen, and Drontheim, are presidents appointed by the king; and under these, as in all other towns, are collectors. There are likewise collectors of the toll, comptrollers over the farmers of the duties, and commissaries of provisions in this part of his Danish majesty's dominions.

With respect to the divisions of Norway, nature has divided the main land of this kingdom into two parts by the immense chain of mountains called Dofrefield and Langfield, which separate the western and northern parts that lie near the sea, from the southern and eastern, or inland parts. Here it must be observed, that the high lands which lie to the south and east of these mountains are called Sondenfield, or South-land; while that lying north of Dofrefield and west of Langfield towards the sea, is called Nordenfields, or North-land.

But, according to the political division of this country, it consists of four general governments; two of which, that is Christiana and Christiansand, lie in the south; and Bergen and Drontheim in the north part of the kingdom. The ecclesiastical division into four bishoprics, is agreeable to the civil, and as the general governments are subdivided into prefectures, and districts or fiefs, so the bishoprics are subdivided into provostships and parishes.

S E C T. VI.

Of the four Governments of Norway, and the principal Places in each; particularly of the Silver-Mines of Kongsberg.

THE government of Christiana, or Aggerhuus, is the largest in the south part of the kingdom, and the richest in all Norway. Its principal city is Christiana, which is said to be the most magnificent city in the kingdom; it is regularly built, is of considerable extent, and carries on a great trade. Here the governor and the bishop of Christiana resides, and here are held the general and provincial high courts of judicature. It has a work-house, and two suburbs called Waterland and Peper-Vigen; through the first runs a river, which rises in Maridalen. We have, however, no particular description of the buildings of this city, which is situated in fifty-nine degrees fifty minutes north latitude, and in ten degrees fifteen minutes east longitude.

Kongsberg is a flourishing mine town in this government, that contains no less than ten or eleven thousand souls, among whom are a congregation of Danes and another of Germans. A mint was set up in this town so early as the year 1686, and in 1689 the mine college was erected. Kongsberg is most famous for its silver mines, which are the richest in all Norway. These were dis-

discovered in 1623, upon which the town was immediately built, and peopled with German miners. In 1751, forty-one shafts and twelve veins were wrought in the four reviers of this mine, in which three thousand five hundred officers, artificers, and labourers are usually employed. The rich ore in this mine is found only in dispersed stratas and interrupted veins. Even pure silver is sometimes dug out of it; and in 1647 some gold was found among the silver, of which king Christian IV. caused the famous Brillen ducats to be coined, with this legend, *VIDE MIRA DOMINI*; See the wonderful works of the Lord. In the year 1697, a vein of gold was discovered here, of which ducats were coined, which on one side had this inscription, *CHRISTIAN V. D. G. REX DAN. NORW. V. G.* The legend on the reverse was from the book of Job: *VON MITTERNACHT KOMMT GOLD*: that is, Out of the north cometh gold. Kongsberg, December 1, 1697.

These mines are in a mountain between Kongsberg and the river Jordal: but it has been found that the silver ore is not, as was at first imagined, limited to that mountain, but extends its veins for some miles, throughout the adjacent districts; which is proved by the new mines that are from time to time undertaken in several places, and most of them carried on very prosperously. One of the most ancient and rich of all the mines, named Old God's Blessing, has sometimes within a week yielded several hundred pounds weight of rich ore. This mine never fails to fill the beholder with amazement at its astonishing depth, which is no less than an hundred and eighty perpendicular fathoms; and the circumference at the bottom forms a clear of some hundreds of fathoms. Here the sight of thirty or forty piles, burning on all sides in this gloomy cavern, and continually fed, in order to mollify the stone in the prosecution of the mines, seems, according to the common idea, an image of hell; and the swarms of miners, covered with soot, and bustling about in habits according to their several employments, may well pass for so many devils; especially when, as a signal that a mine is going to be sprung in this or that course, they roar aloud, *Berg-livet! Berg-livet! Take care of your lives!*

Frederickshall is a famous frontier town towards Sweden, situated in latitude fifty-five degrees, twenty-six minutes, at the mouth of the river Tistedal, where it discharges itself into the Spinesund. This town was formerly called Halden, and was a mean place, under the jurisdiction of the magistracy of Frederickstadt; yet it made a very gallant defence against the Swedes in 1658 and 1659, by means of a small intrenchment or rampart. It was afterwards strengthened with additional fortifications; and in 1660 sustained a third siege from the Swedes; and Charles Gustavus is by some thought to have received here the wound of which he died. Five years after, this town received a charter with the privileges of a city. In 1716 and 1718, the inhabitants again distinguished themselves by the vigorous defence they made against the attacks of the Swedes; and here, on the eleventh of December 1718, Charles XII. of Sweden was shot in the trenches. King Frederic IV. ordered a pyramid twenty feet high to be erected on the spot where that hero fell. Its sides were decorated with military trophies, the arms of Sweden, and the king's name; and the top was surmounted with a gilt crown. On four marble tables at the base, were one Latin, and two Danish inscriptions in golden letters. But king Christian VI. in compliment to Sweden, ordered this pyramid to be taken down. The town itself is of no great strength; but on a high rock opposite to it, stands the strong fortress of Frederickstein, and there are other smaller forts near it. This city has been several times destroyed by fire.

Frederickstadt was built in 1567 by Frederic II. who granted it a favourable charter, and removed the provincial court thither. It lies thirty-four miles to the south of Frederickshall, and is governed by a town magistrate, and its chief trade is in timber. Frederickstadt was regularly fortified in 1655 by Frederick III. and new works have been since added to it; so that its strength by nature and art, and its convenient situation, render it the most important fortress in Norway.

The general government of Christianland is situated in the most southern extremity of Norway, and is bounded on the north by the government of Christiana, and on the east, south, and west by the North Sea. This province is fertile in corn, and has several rivers, one of which is the Mandel, which in one place has a bridge laid over it from one rock to another, thirty-six feet above the surface of the water. At a small distance from this bridge is a cataract, where a very uncommon method of fishing is practised; the fishermen go under the cataract, which forms an arch over their heads, to catch the salmon, at the extreme hazard of their lives, in a hole in the rock. This government consists of four prefectures, five districts, and has two provincial courts.

The principal city of this government is Christianland, which is situated on the eastern coast, in the fifty-ninth degree three minutes north latitude, and is the residence of the bishop and the general governor, where is a cathedral and episcopal school. This city was built by Christian IV. between the year 1641 and 1643, and is thus called from its founder, and the great sande, or strand, on which it is built. It is of a square form, and the streets are broad, regular, and handsome. Its situation is very commodious, three sides of it being surrounded either with fresh or salt water, and on the fourth it has a communication with fine meadows and the mountains. In 1734 the church, with the greatest part of the city, was destroyed by fire.

The small town of Arndal is remarkable for its situation on a rock in the midst of the river Nid. It has a good wharf, and most of the houses stand on the acclivity of the rock, the rest being built on piles in the water. The streets are only formed of bridges of boats, by means of which the inhabitants go from house to house. The water is of sufficient depth for the largest ships to lie alongside of the bridges. As the church stands high, and almost on the summit of the rock, there is an ascent to it from the houses by a great number of steps hewn out of the rock. The inhabitants make a good use of the commodious situation of this town for trade, by employing many ships and dealing largely in timber.

The government of Bergen is from two hundred and forty to three hundred miles in length, and contains only the single prefecture of Bergenhuus, including seven districts, and the same number of provostships. This country is very populous, and is remarkable for its having seven marble quarries; but produces little corn.

The only city we shall describe in this government is that of Bergen, its capital, which has the greatest trade in all Norway. It is situated in the sixty-first degree eleven minutes north latitude, in the midst of a valley, and built in a semicircular form, on the sides of a bay called by the inhabitants Waag. It is so well fortified by nature on the land side by lofty mountains, seven of which are remarkably high, while the defiles or passes between them are quite impracticable to an enemy, and towards the sea the harbour is well defended by several fortifications. All the churches, public edifices, and most of the houses along the strand are built with stone. This city formerly contained thirty churches and convents; but it has at present only four parish churches, three of which are Danish, and one German, with a church in the large hospital of St. Jorgen, and a small chapel in St. James's church-yard. The castle of Bergen is a noble structure. The large cathedral school was founded in 1554, by bishop Petrus, who also endowed it, and, by the liberality of king Frederic II. and others, twelve scholars are maintained and educated in it. The navigation school founded here, which once flourished greatly, is now fallen to decay. The seminary Fredericianum also deserves notice, it being a noble foundation, where moral and natural philosophy, the mathematics, history, with the Latin and French languages, are taught. This city carries on a large trade in all kinds of fish, tallow, hides, and timber; and the returns are mostly made in corn and foreign commodities. The number of its inhabitants are computed at thirty thousand.

The general government of Drontheim is the most northern province in Norway, and the largest in extent. It borders on the North Sea, on Sweden, and Swedish Lapland.



A New & Accurate
MAP OF
DENMARK,
from the Sieur Roberts
ATLAS,
with Improvements.

British Statute Miles.

J. Wilson Sculp.

Longitude East 12 from London

Lapland. A range of islands extends from north-east to south-west, and between them and the continent runs a large bay called West Fiorden. Among the above islands is a remarkable kind of current, or whirlpool, called the Moskoeftrom, in the sixty-eighth degree of latitude, near the island of Moskoe, from which this whirlpool takes its name. Its violence or roarings exceed those of a cataract, being heard at a great distance, without any intermission, except for a quarter of an hour at the turn of high and low water, when its impetuosity seems at a stand, and fishermen venture in: but this motion soon returns, and let the sea be ever so calm, gradually increases with such a draught and vortex, as absorb whatever comes within their sphere of action, keeping it for some hours under water, when the fragments, shivered by the rocks, appear again. This circumstance, among others, makes several authors firmly believe, that here is an abyss penetrating the globe, and issuing in some very remote parts; and Kircher is so particular as to assign the gulph of Bothnia. But the learned bishop of Pontoppidan observes, that, after the most exact researches, this is but a conjecture without any foundation; it having no other cause than the collision of the waves rising and falling at the flux and reflux, against a ridge of rocks and shelves, which confine the water, so that it precipitates like a cataract; and thus the higher the flood rises, the deeper must be the fall, the natural result of which is a whirlpool.

Mr. Ramus is of the same opinion, and observes, that at the time of flood the stream runs up the country between the islands of Lofoden and Moskoe, with a boisterous rapidity; but the roar of its impetuous ebb to the sea is scarce equalled by the loudest and most dreadful cataracts, the noise being heard at several leagues distance. The whirlpool is then of such extent and depth, that if a ship comes within its attraction, it is inevitably absorbed, and dashed to pieces against the rocks at the bottom. But when the stream is most boisterous, and its fury heightened by a storm, it is dangerous to come within one Norway, or six English miles of it, boats,

ships, and yachts, having been carried away, by not guarding against it, before they were within its reach. It frequently happens that even whales coming too near the stream, are over-powered by its violence; and then it is impossible to describe their howlings and bellowings in their fruitless struggles to disengage themselves. A bear once attempting to swim to the island of Moskoe, in order to prey on the sheep at pasture in the island, afforded the like spectacle to the people; for the stream caught him and bore him down, while he roared terribly so as to be heard on shore. Even large firs and pine-trees, after being absorbed by the current, rise again, with their trunks broken and torn to such a degree, that they seem as if covered with bristles.

The general government of Drontheim contains three prefectures, which are those of Drontheim, Nordland, and Finmark.

The principal city in this province is that of Drontheim, which is in the prefect of the same name. It is two hundred and sixty-one miles north-east of Bergen, in the sixty-third degree sixteen minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree fifty-five minutes east longitude from London. It is situated on the river Nid, which almost surrounds it, and had formerly ten churches and five convents, but at present it has only two churches besides that at the hospital. The cathedral, which was a superb edifice built with marble, was all burnt down in 1530, except the choir, which is rather too large for the present church, and is still called the cathedral. This city is the residence of the general governor and the bishop. It has a fine cathedral school, a seminary of missionaries, an orphan house, a work-house, a house of correction, and an hospital. A considerable trade in timber, fish, tallow, and copper, is carried on in this city; which is defended by fort Christianstein, erected in 1680; it has also some fortifications on the land-side; and the castle of Munkholmen, which stands on a rock in the harbour of Drontheim, and defends both the city and harbour towards the sea.

C H A P. VII.

Of D E N M A R K.

S E C T. I.

The Islands and Country included under that Name. Their Situation, Climate, and Produce in general.

DENMARK, properly so called, consists of two pretty large, and several small islands, together with the peninsula of Jutland. It is remarkable that though all these together constitute the kingdom of Denmark, not any one of these is separately called by that name.

Denmark is situated exactly to the north of Germany, and is separated from it by the Baltic, and by the Leven and the Eider, which divide Jutland from Germany; to the west, it is washed by the North-Sea; to the north, it has the Categate; and to the east, is bounded by the Baltic. Between the continent and the islands, Funen and Zealand are the famous freights, called the Sound, which divides Denmark, or, in other words, the island of Zealand, from Sweden. The Sound is about a thousand three hundred and thirty-one fathoms broad, and is the common passage out of the North-Sea into the Baltic. This, with the other freights, called the Great-Belt and the Little-Belt, are reckoned part of the king of Denmark's dominions, and all ships that pass that way are obliged to pay a toll, according to the value of the cargoes with which they are laden.

Besides the places just mentioned as constituting the kingdom of Denmark, there are many others subject to

that state, particularly the kingdom of Norway, just described, with the islands Faroe, Iceland, and part of Greenland, half of the dutchy of Holstein, with the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst in Germany; the citadel of Christiansburg on the coast of Guinea; the islands of St. Thomas and St. John, with some of the Caribbee islands, and St. Croix in America; the town of Tranquebar, with its territory, and the islands of Nicobar on the coast of Coromandel, in the East-Indies. We are here to consider only what is properly termed Denmark.

It is difficult to determine the extent of the whole kingdom of Denmark, with any tolerable degree of exactness, because its parts are not contiguous to each other; but we shall hereafter give the extent of every part singly.

The air in North Jutland is pretty cold and piercing; but on the east side of South Jutland, and in the islands of Funen and Zealand, it is milder and more temperate: however, in the low and marshy part, and in the island of Laaland, the air is thick, moist, and unhealthy. The shifting of the winds, indeed, while it renders the weather somewhat variable, at the same time purges the air of fogs and vapours. The west wind, which frequently blows in these parts, is the most violent.

Denmark lies mostly low and on a level, and, except the tract of land about the middle of Jutland, is very fertile; so that the country maintains the inhabitants in plenty, and yields every thing necessary for the support of human life: but the inhabitants can better dis-

pense with their horned cattle and horses for exportation, than with their corn. The sea coasts, lakes, ponds, rivers, and brooks of this country yield abundance of fish. Denmark produces no wine, no metals, and very little salt. Most of the provinces have wood sufficient for their necessary occasions; but as this is not the case with them all, the Danes are obliged to burn a great deal of turf.

We shall give a more particular account of the produce of this kingdom in treating of its several parts, and shall now proceed to the inhabitants, their manners, customs, and government.

SECT. II.

The Persons, Dress, Manners, and Customs of the Danes.

THE Danes are generally tall and strong limbed; they have good features, and an agreeable complexion; their hair is fair, and for the most part yellow or red; and, as few of them wear wigs, they take a great deal of pains in combing and curling their locks. As red hair is natural to the country, they have not the folly to be ashamed of it, and therefore do not endeavour to conceal or change the colour. Both the gentlemen and ladies in summer dress very splendidly after the French mode; but in winter, like the rest of the northern people, they wrap themselves up in furs or wool. The winter dress of the ladies, which is Danish, is very convenient and becoming. The burghers, the servants, and even the peasants, are neat in their linen, which they often change, and all who can afford it are fond of making a splendid appearance.

The lord Molesworth says, that he never knew a country where the minds of the people are more upon a level; and that as there are none of extraordinary qualifications to be found, who excel in particular arts or sciences, so there are seen no enthusiasts, madmen, natural fools, or whimsical people; but a certain equality of understanding reigning among them, every one plods on in the ordinary beaten track of common sense, without deviating to the right or left. The people in general, however, read and write, and their clergy usually talk Latin. We cannot say how far this nobleman was prejudiced in the account he has given of these people; but the encouragement given to learning, and the modern improvements that have been made in Denmark, by the introduction of the arts and sciences, has rendered his picture extremely unlike the original.

We are informed by that nobleman, that the vices which the gentry are most addicted to are gluttony and drunkenness. When they sit down to eat and drink, says he, they never know when to rise; but the debauch sometimes continues whole days and nights. The first thing a friend is presented with at his entering the house, is a dram of brandy; and they no sooner sit down to dinner, but all the men and women have a glass set by their plates; and, on proposing a health, all take off their glasses together, and by that means make quick dispatch: the women indeed, he says, retire soon after dinner; but the men sit till they have lost that little sense which falls to their share. But after all, there is nothing more unjust than these national reflections, which have frequently no other foundation than that circle of acquaintance which a stranger happens to fall into while he resides in a country; and indeed where they are just at one time they are far from being so in another; for customs like these differ greatly within the compass of an age.

The liquor drank by people of rank are chiefly rhenish wine, cherry brandy, and all sorts of French wine; while the common people drink beer and malt spirits. The tables of the great are covered with a variety of dishes. They have no fallow deer, woodcocks, pheasants, or rabbits; and red deer being the king's game, are not to be purchased: their beef and veal are excellent, as are also their bacon and hares. The common people, whether in town or country, generally live upon coarse rye bread, lean salt meat, stock-fish, roots, and bad cheese, seldom tasting of flesh-meat, except on some ex-

traordinary festivals, as on St. Martin's eve, when each family in Denmark never fails to make merry, and to have a roasted goose for supper. As to the peasants, they chiefly live on roots, greens, white meats, and rye bread. Sea fish is scarce, and not very good; but the river fish make amends, here being most excellent perch, carp, and craw-fish. One cannot expect very extraordinary fruit so far to the north; yet the gentry do not want such as are very tolerable; and some of the nobility have grapes, melons, peaches, and all sorts of fallads very early, and in great perfection.

It is said to be difficult for strangers to find the conveniences of lodging and boarding in Denmark; for even in Copenhagen there are few lodgings to be let in private houses, and in the taverns people must be content to eat and drink in a public room, into which any other company may enter.

With respect to their marriages, they are sometimes contracted three, four, or more years before the ceremony is performed. The gentry give portions with their daughters; but the burghers and peasants only give cloaths, household goods, and a great wedding dinner, which are all they part with till their death.

Magnificent burials and monuments are usual with the nobility, and sometimes the body of a person of quality is kept in a vault, or the chancel of a church, for several years together, till they have an opportunity of celebrating the funeral with sufficient splendor. The poorer sort are buried in great thick chests, and in the towns there are about a dozen common mourners belonging to each parish, who are obliged to carry and attend the people to their graves.

SECT. III.

Of the Language of the Danes; their Skill in the Arts and Sciences; the Manufactures carried on in the Country; their Commerce and trading Companies; with their Coins, Weights, and Measures.

THE Danish language is only a dialect of the Swedish and Norwegian; whence the inhabitants of these three nations in general understand each other, except in a few words and phrases. The modern Danish is a mixture of the antient Gothic, Frisian, and German languages; and, with respect to the pronunciation, has some affinity with the English, with which it has many words in common.

The number of learned men in Denmark is said to be now as considerable as in any other country in Europe of its extent, for there is scarce any branch of literature in which the men of genius of this kingdom have not acquitted themselves with honour. Besides the university at Copenhagen, which consists of four colleges, the academy at Soroe, and the seminary at Odense, there are several schools well endowed in country towns, where the masters are not only liberally provided for, but the scholars are instructed and partly maintained gratis. In 1742 a royal academy of sciences was instituted at Copenhagen, with a royal society for the improvement of the northern history and languages. Societies for the improvement of the useful arts and manufactures, and of the several branches of natural philosophy, have been instituted; and in 1736 the Theatrum Antomico-Chirurgicum and several libraries were erected. At Copenhagen is also an academy for painting, sculpture, and architecture; and there the polite arts are in high esteem.

Scarce any manufactures were carried on in Denmark in the last century; for they were first introduced by Frederick IV. and Christian VI. There are at present artists of extraordinary skill at Copenhagen, and every branch of the mechanic arts is well executed in Denmark. Silks, stuffs, and velvets; cloth, cottons, and woollen stuffs; gold and silver lace, tapestry, stockings, and hats; with different sorts of hardware, are also made in this kingdom: as are likewise porcelain and fire-arms. Here are besides paper and copper mills, one silk and two cotton printing-houses; with manufactories of soap, starch, steel, glue, sugar, tobacco, and lacquer. The lace of Tondern, and the gloves of Odense and Randers, are allowed to be excellent in their kind. Indeed no manufactures

factures are now permitted to be imported into Denmark; and, since the year 1736, the wearing of jewels, gold and silver stuffs, and foreign lace, has been also prohibited. In 1738 a general warehouse, or magazine, was opened at the exchange, in Copenhagen, to which manufacturers bring all the wares they cannot dispose of in other towns, and are paid ready money for them; and from this warehouse the goods are delivered out to the retail traders on credit.

Indeed as Denmark enjoys the most commodious situation for navigation and commerce, it might be made the center of the important trade of the North, and particularly that carried on in the Baltic.

All the commerce of this kingdom was formerly carried on by the Hanse-towns; but they were afterwards supplanted by the English and Dutch, but chiefly by the latter. The Danes first began to carry on their own trade in the reign of Christian III. it was encouraged by Christian IV. and in the reign of Christian V. was carried on in their own bottoms; but Frederick IV. may be called the real founder of the Danish commerce, which was supported by Christian VI. and Frederick V, by his munificence, endeavoured to carry it to its highest pitch. The strict application of the Danes to navigation and commerce partly appears from the several opulent companies established at Copenhagen.

The principal of these is the royal Asiatic company, first erected in 1616, and confirmed by a royal charter in 1698, which was renewed with proper regulations in 1732 and 1744. This company trades to Tranquebar on the coast of Coromandel, where they have a governor, and to Canton in China. They carry on this commerce almost entirely with current specie, or bullion; and in return bring chintz, cottons of all sorts, muslins, pepper, tea, salt petre, &c. For these commodities they receive considerable sums of money from foreigners, who take them off their hands, and by this means refund the specie carried out of Denmark. They also supply their own country with all these merchandizes. This company sends two ships annually to Canton, which return richly laden, and two or three more to Tranquebar.

The West India and Guinea company, which was formerly established by charter, was dissolved in 1754, and the trade to America laid open to the natives of Denmark, Norway, and Sleswic; but in 1755 the king established an African company, with a capital of five hundred actions, every action consisting of five hundred rixdollars, which are divided between thirteen adventurers.

There is also established by a royal charter a general trading company, instituted in order to carry on such branches of trade as no private adventurers are able to undertake; and at the same time to serve as a kind of academy for young merchants. This company was incorporated in 1747, and enjoys considerable privileges. Its actions are one thousand, each of which consists of five hundred rixdollars, but only three hundred are paid down; so that their fund amounts to no more than three hundred thousand rixdollars: but the remaining two hundred of every action may be demanded on any emergency. This company carries on a trade to France, Spain, the Mediterranean, the Baltic, and likewise to Greenland, by sending ships to the whale fishery.

The Iceland and Finmark company, who obtained their last charter in 1746, have monopolized the trade to Iceland and Finmark; but that charter is to expire in 1771.

Besides, other Danish adventurers, trade to different ports of Europe; but the imports in Denmark always exceed the exports: however, it is quite the reverse in the kingdom of Norway.

The Assignment-Exchange, or Loan-Bank, was erected at Copenhagen in 1736. The bank-notes are drawn for a hundred, fifty, or ten rixdollars, and pass through all the king's dominions, and the public offices, as current specie. Great and small sums, not under a hundred rixdollars, are lent out of this bank at four per cent. on depositing a sufficient pledge. The capital stock is no more than five hundred thousand rixdollars, and though their circulating notes amount to much more, they are in very good credit.

There is also an office of insurance for ships at sea, established by charter. The number of ships that annually enter the port of Copenhagen is very considerable; for it appears that above three thousand ships and smaller vessels, laden with all sorts of merchandize, especially timber, materials for building, and provisions, were entered at the custom-house in the year 1752.

The current coins in Denmark are, a rose-noble, which is eighteen shillings sterling; a ducat, nine shillings; a rixdollar, four shillings and sixpence; a slet-dollar, three shillings; a rix-mark, about eleven-pence; a slet-mark, about nine-pence; and a stiver, a penny; besides these there are several copper coins of small value.

The weights are the great and small hundred, the first a hundred and twenty pounds, and the other a hundred and twelve pounds; they have also their lispound, which is as much as our stone of fourteen pounds; and their shippound, which is twenty lispounds. A Danish ell is about one-third less than the English; and a Danish mile almost six English miles.

S E C T. IV.

Of the Religion and ecclesiastical Jurisdiction of Denmark.

THE Danes, in antient times, paid religious worship chiefly to the gods Fryer, Thor, Thyr, Odin, and Freya, and in the Danish language four days in the week still retain the names of the four last imaginary deities; of which Odin was the chief. Several attempts were made at different times, in the middle ages, to convert the Danes to Christianity, and in 882, Ebbo, bishop of Rheims, preached the gospel in Denmark. King Harald Klag, who fled for refuge to the emperor Lewis, consenting to be baptized, was attended back to his kingdom by several monks, who founded churches in many places in Denmark, particularly at Haddebye, in the dutchy of Sleswic, where the first Danish church was erected. But the succeeding kings were the inveterate enemies of the Christians, and cruelly persecuted the new converts; however, after various vicissitudes of fortune, they at length obtained a free and uninterrupted toleration from king Sweno, about the year 1000.

At length, when Luther began to restore the doctrines of the gospel to their genuine purity, they were favourably received in Denmark by Christian II. The reformation gained still more ground under Frederic I. and at the diet held at Copenhagen in 1537, was made the established religion; when John Bugenhagen drew up a new body of ecclesiastical laws, and made several other good regulations.

Though the Lutheran religion is established in this country, other religious sects, as the Calvinists, the Jews, and the Papists, enjoy the free exercise of their religion in Copenhagen, Fredericia, and Fredericstادت. The Arminians, Mennonites, and Quakers, are also tolerated at Fredericstادت; and on the island of Nordstrand, the Roman-catholics enjoy the public exercise of their religion. By the laudable endeavours of the kings of Denmark, the light of the gospel also shines in Finmark, Greenland, and among the inhabitants of Malabar, on the coast of India; and in 1714, a society for the propagation of the gospel was instituted for that purpose.

The chief ecclesiastical jurisdiction is under the bishops, of which there are six in Denmark, four in Norway, and two in Iceland. Of these the bishop of Zealand and Christiana have the precedence. The former is also third professor of divinity in the university of Copenhagen, and consequently is obliged to reside in that city. The title of archbishop is abolished in Denmark; and both Sleswic and Holstein are under a general superintendent.

The power of the bishops was formerly very considerable in Denmark; for, with the other principal prelates, they formed the third state of the kingdom; but at present they enjoy no other power, but what the general superintendants in Germany are invested with. They are always appointed by the king, and are obliged, every three years, to visit the churches and schools in their res-

respective dioceses; to examine and ordain new preachers; and, together with their provosts, to hold, at stated times, provincial synods, where they preside in conjunction with the governor of the province. Their revenue arises from lands, tythes, and what is called the cathedralicum, or a small sum which they receive from every church in the diocese. In every cathedral is a small college, which consists of four or five canons, who meet twice a year in the chapter-house, in order to sit as judges in matrimonial and other causes, which were formerly decided by the canon law. There was formerly a divinity lecturer, who read public lectures weekly in every cathedral; but these have been laid aside.

Next to the bishops are the provosts, of which there are a hundred and sixty in the whole kingdom, who annually visit the preachers and schoolmasters within their jurisdiction; decide disputes between the preachers and the vestries, or parishes, when they are cognizable by the ecclesiastical law; and twice a year appear at the provincial synod. The provosts have annually a rixdollar, or four shillings and sixpence sterling, from every church in their jurisdiction, and in their visitations are entertained gratis.

Next to these are the preachers, whose assistants are called chaplains. The revenues of the Danish clergy, which arise partly from tythes and partly from the liberality of their respective flocks, are very considerable. Confession money is indeed abolished; but instead of it, the preachers enjoy the offerings made by their congregations at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide. A preacher's widow in Denmark receives half the benefit of the first year, and the eighth part of the income every year after, from the successor of her deceased husband. In the principal town of every diocese is also a widow's box, in which every preacher puts a certain sum, and if his widow survives him, she enjoys an annuity in proportion to what he has contributed.

SECT. V.

A particular Account of the Manner in which the Danes made a voluntary Surrender of their Liberties; with the Privileges enjoyed at present by the Nobility, the Burghers, and the Peasants.

IT will be proper here to give an account of an event which will always be esteemed one of the most extraordinary that has ever been mentioned in history. Till about the middle of the last century, Denmark was governed by a king chosen by the people of all ranks, who in their choice, paid a due regard to the family of the preceding prince, and if they found one of his line properly qualified to enjoy that high honour, they thought it just to prefer him before any other, and were pleased when they had reason to choose the eldest son of their former sovereign: but if those of the royal family were either deficient in abilities, or had rendered themselves unworthy by their vices, they chose some other person, and sometimes raised a private man to that high dignity.

One of the most fundamental parts of the constitution was the frequent meetings of the states, in order to regulate every thing relating to the government. In these meetings new laws were enacted, and all affairs relating to peace and war, the disposal of great offices, and contracts of marriage for the royal family, were debated. The imposing of taxes was merely accidental, no money being levied on the people, except to maintain what was esteemed a necessary war, with the advice and consent of the nation, or now and then by way of free-gift, to add to a daughter's portion. The king's ordinary revenue consisted only in the rents of lands and demesnes, in his herds of cattle, his forests, services of tenants in cultivating his ground, &c. for customs of merchandize were not then known in that part of the world: so that he lived like one of our modern noblemen, upon the revenues of his estate. It was his business to see justice impartially administered; to watch over the welfare of his people, to command their armies in person; to encourage industry, arts, and learning; and it was equally his duty and interest to keep fair with the nobility and

gentry, and to be careful of the plenty and prosperity of the commons.

But in 1660, the three states, that is, the nobility, clergy, and commonalty being assembled, in order to pay and disband the troops which had been employed against the Swedes, the nobility endeavoured to lay the whole burden on the commons; while the latter, who had defended their country, their prince, and the nobility themselves with the utmost bravery, insisted that the nobles, who enjoyed all the lands, should at least pay their share of the taxes, since they had suffered less in the common calamity, and done less to prevent its progress.

At this the nobility were enraged, and many bitter replies passed on both sides. At length the principal senator standing up, told the president of the city, that the commons neither understood the privileges of the nobility, nor considered that they themselves were no better than slaves. The word slaves was followed by a loud murmur from the clergy and burghers: when Nanson, the president of the city of Copenhagen, and speaker of the house of commons, observing the general indignation it occasioned, instantly arose, and swearing that the commons were no slaves, which the nobility should find to their cost, walked out, and was followed by the clergy and burghers, who proceeding to the brewers-hall, debated there on the most effectual means of humbling the insupportable pride of the nobility.

The commons and clergy the next morning marched in great order to the council-house, where the nobles were assembled; and there the president Nanson, in a short speech, observed, that they had considered the state of the nation, and found that the only way to remedy the disorders of the state was to add to the power of the king, and render his crown hereditary; in which, if the nobles thought fit to concur, they were ready to accompany them to his majesty, whom they had informed of their resolution, and who expected them in the hall of his palace.

The nobles, filled with a general consternation at the suddenness of this proposal, and at the resolution with which it was made, now endeavoured to sooth the commons by fair speeches; and urged, that so important an affair should be managed with due solemnity, and regulated in such a manner as not to have the appearance of a tumult.

To this the president replied, that they only wanted to gain time, in order to frustrate the intentions of the commons; who came not thither to consult, but to act. After farther debate, the commons growing impatient, the clergy, with the bishops at their head, and the burghers headed by their president, proceeded, without the nobles, to the palace; and were met by the prime minister, who conducted them to the hall of audience, whither the king soon came to them.

The bishop now made a long speech in praise of his majesty, and concluded with offering him an hereditary and absolute dominion. The king returned them thanks; but observed, that the concurrence of the nobles was necessary: he assured them of his protection, and promised to ease their grievances.

The nobles were all this while in the greatest distraction; they could come to no resolution, and broke up in order to attend the funeral of a principal senator: but while they were at a magnificent dinner, which was usually provided on such occasions, they were told that the city gates were shut by the king's orders, and the keys carried to court. They were now filled with the apprehensions of being all massacred, and the dread of losing their lives took away all thoughts of their liberty: they therefore immediately dispatched messengers both to the court and to the commons, to give notice of their compliance. But the king, being resolved to pursue the affair to the utmost, would not suffer the gates to be opened till the whole ceremony of the inauguration was concluded. Three days were employed in preparing for the fatal hour, in which they were to make a formal surrender of their liberty. Scaffolds covered with tapestry were erected in the square before the castle, and orders were given for the burghers and the soldiers to appear in arms, under their respective officers. In short, on the

seventh of October, in the morning, the king, queen, and royal family being mounted on the theatre erected for that purpose, and seated in chairs of state under velvet canopies, received publicly the homage of all the senators, nobility, clergy, and commons, which were performed on their knees, each taking an oath to promote his majesty's interest in all things, and to serve him faithfully as became hereditary subjects. One Gersdorf, a principal senator, was the only person who had the courage to open his lips in behalf of their expiring liberties, and said, that he hoped and trusted that his majesty designed nothing but the good of his people, and not to govern them after the Turkish manner; but wished his successors would follow the example his majesty would undoubtedly set them, and make use of this unlimited power for the good, and not for the prejudice of his subjects. None of the rest spoke a word, or seemed in the least to murmur at what was done. Those who had payed their homage retired to the council-house, where the nobility being called over by name, and ordered to subscribe the oath they had taken, they instantly obeyed.

Thus in four days time the kingdom of Denmark was changed from a state but little different from that of an aristocracy, to that of an unlimited monarchy. We here see a house of commons stimulated by resentment, and filled with indignation at the insolence of the nobility, betraying their constituents, and instead of a noble effort to oblige those nobles to allow them the privileges they had a right to demand, voluntarily giving up for themselves, their constituents, and their posterity, what they ought to have struggled to preserve at the hazard of their lives, and of whatever else might have been esteemed valuable; while the only comfort the people had left, was to see their former oppressors almost as much humbled as themselves. The clergy indeed reaped many advantages from this change; but the citizens of Copenhagen obtained little more in exchange for their liberty, than the insignificant privilege of wearing swords.

The nobles of Denmark are distinguished by the appellation of the higher and lower nobility. There never were any dukes in Denmark, besides the king's sons, except one nobleman named Knut Pors, who was created duke of Halland by Christopher II. so that the rank of higher nobles includes only counts and barons. The counts enjoy certain privileges, and their younger sons and daughters are not only stiled barons and baronesses, but enjoy the privileges annexed to that rank. In their counties they have the right of patronage, and of appointing a judge and secretary, from whose sentence there lies no appeal, but only to the supreme court of judicature. They are allowed three hundred acres of land free from all impositions: they bear a coronet over their coat of arms; and all suits carried on against them must commence in the supreme court of judicature.

The rights and privileges of the barons is much the same with those of the counts. The principal difference is, that the barons enjoy only one hundred acres of land free from tythes and contributions, and are something inferior to the counts in rank and title.

The privileges of the lower nobility, like those of the former, consist in their being cited only before the king's supreme court, in all affairs that affect their life and honour, except they have a post in the militia by land or by sea, in which case this privilege extends only to the superior officers. No inferior judge can execute a sentence passed upon them, for that must be done only by the judge or his commissary.

A lord of a manor who, besides the produce of his manor, together with the mills and tythes, has two hundred acres of land in farm estate lying within two miles of his manor, is free from contribution. Lords of a manor have also the privilege of appointing a judge and secretary; that of hunting and fishing; the right of trover, if the proprietor of the goods found does not make his claim within a year and six weeks; and the right of patronage or presentation to their own churches. These are the principal privileges enjoyed by the nobility since the kings of Denmark became absolute; but before that period their power rose to the highest pitch.

The burghers enjoy greater or less privileges according to the cities of which they are members. Hence those of Copenhagen enjoy the pre-eminence, and have advantages enjoyed by none of the rest. The Danish peasants are of different classes. Some are possessed of a spot of land, which may be considered as their own property, since they only make the lord of the manor some inconsiderable acknowledgment. Others have only a farm, for which they pay a certain rent in money, cattle, or corn, to the proprietors of their farms, and do inferior services at the manor of their lord; but slavery, or a state of vassalage, was entirely abolished in Denmark by Frederic IV. in the year 1702, and is only continued in some part of the dutchy of Sleswic.

SECT. VI.

Of the Prerogative, Court, Titles, and Arms of the Kings of Denmark; the Orders of Knighthood; the public Offices and Revenues; with a concise Account of the military and naval Force of the Kingdom; the civil Government of the Provinces, and the different Courts of Judicature.

THE king of Denmark, as hath been already observed, is an absolute prince, and consequently his prerogative is unbounded. He is pleased, however, to act by the laws framed by his ancestors, or by himself and council; though he has the power of repealing and altering them as he thinks fit. He is the guardian of all the noble orphans, and none can sell or alienate their lands, without leave of the crown, the king being entitled to a third part of the purchase money upon every sale.

He has, however, few ensigns of majesty, except such as are military, as horse and foot guards, yeomen, and the sound of drums and trumpets; for the badges of peace, as heralds, maces, the chancellor's purse, and the sword of state are here unknown. The officers of the household are the marshal, who regulates the affairs of the family, and gives notice when dinner or supper is ready; the comptroller of the kitchen, who places the dishes of meat on the table; and the master of the horse, who looks after the king's stables and studs of mares. The king sits down to dinner with his queen, children, relations, and general officers of the army, till the round table be filled; the court-marshal inviting sometimes one and sometimes another to eat with his majesty, till all have had their turns in that honour. A page in livery says grace before and after meat; for no chaplain appears here but in the pulpit. The attendants are one or two gentlemen, and the rest livery servants. The kettle-drums and trumpets, which are ranged before the palace, proclaim aloud the very minute when his majesty sits down to table; but the ceremony of the knee is not used to the king.

Every winter, the snow is no sooner firm enough to bear, than the Danes take great delight in going in sledges, the king and court first giving the example, and making several tours about the capital in great pomp, attended by kettle-drums and trumpets; their sledges are drawn by horses adorned with rich trappings, and the harness full of small bells. After the court has thus opened the way, the burghers and others ride about the streets all night, wrapped up in their fur gowns, with each his female in the sledge with him.

His Danish majesty's titles at full length are, Frederic V. by the grace of God, king of Denmark and Norway, and of the Goths and Vandals; duke of Sleswic, Holstein, Storman, and Ditmarsch; count of Oldenburg, and Delmenhorst.

The royal arms are parted by the Daneborg cross into four principal quarters. In the first or, three lions passant guardant azure, surrounded with nine hearts gules, for Denmark. In the second gules, a lion rampant crowned or, holding a Danish battle-ax argent, for Norway. In the third azure, three crowns or, the first and second for Sweden. In the fourth or, a lion leopardized azure, with nine hearts gules, for ancient Gothland. The inescutcheon quarterly, in the first or,

two lions passant azure, for the Dutchy of Sleswic. In the second gules, three nettle-leaves argent, pierced with three nails of the cross; these leaves are charged with a small eschutcheon argent, for the dutchy of Holstein. In the third gules, a cygnet argent, gorged with a crown or, for Storman. In the fourth gules, a cavalier armed argent, holding a sword pommel or, for Ditmarsch. Upon all an inescutcheon in the center party per pale or, two bars gules, for Delmenhorst; and azure, a cross pattee or, for Jutland. The supporters are two savages armed with clubs.

The principal order of knighthood in Denmark is that of the elephant, or the blue ribbon, which some authors suppose to be founded in the twelfth century, by Canute VI. while others say, that it was instituted about three hundred years ago by Christian I. at his son's wedding. Its ensign, or badge, is a white enamelled elephant with a castle on its back, appendant to a blue ribbon, worn over the left shoulder to the right side. These knights wear on the left breast a silver star of eight rays, with the Daneborg cross in the middle of it.

The second order of knighthood in this kingdom, is called the Daneborg order, or the white ribbon, which was instituted by Waldemar II. The badge is a gold cross enamelled, and set with eleven diamonds. This hangs at a watered white ribbon with a red border, which is worn over the right shoulder to the left side. These knights wear on the right breast a silver star of eight rays, in which a cross is to be seen, with the word restitutor thus divided, RE-STI-TV-TOR, and the name of CHRISTIAN V. in the middle. Both these orders were revived by Christian V. and have their particular statutes, collars, and mottos.

We shall now give an account of the offices by which the government is administered:

I. The privy council, or, as it is called, the supreme college, was first instituted on its present footing in the year 1679: this college at present consists of four members, and the king, who is president. Under this college are the two following chanceries:

1. The Danish chancery, which was placed on its present footing in 1660, and consists of a prothonotary, a master of requests, several secretaries, two chancery solicitors, notaries, registers, &c. To this chancery all petitions for places in the courts of judicature in Denmark and Norway, as also for civil and ecclesiastical employments, are presented. The prothonotary, with the principal secretaries, and two other persons, as assistants, constitute a chancery.

2. The German chancery, which was instituted in 1688, and consists of a prothonotary, a solicitor, and several secretaries. All petitions relating to the affairs of Sleswic, Holstein, and Oldenburg are given into this court. It also carries on a correspondence with foreign courts and ambassadors; and all treaties and alliances concluded with foreign powers, are dispatched by this college. The members of the weekly chancery-session are the prothonotary, some other secretaries, and two foreigners, as assistants.

II. The military chancery for the land service, which consists of a prothonotary, a recorder, or keeper of the archives, a solicitor, clerks, cursitors, and notaries. This college has the care of military promotions, and in general, the direction of every thing belonging to the army and to war. But the peculiar military œconomy is committed to the general commission for the land service. These commissaries pay, maintain, and recruit the army, fill the magazines, keep the fortifications in repair, and have the care of the artillery. To this college are subject all general commissaries of war; all officers that have the care of provisions, arsenals, and materials for building. The magistrates, and other civil officers, are under their jurisdiction, as far as they have any concern in the marching and quartering of the army. The money expended by this college, which is immediately under the king's command, is issued by the deputies of the finances.

III. The military chancery for the sea service, consists of a prothonotary and solicitor. They order and direct whatever relates to naval promotions, the marine and harbours; but the peculiar management of naval affairs

is under the general marine commission, which has been united to the college of admiralty, ever since the year 1746. The admiralty college was instituted in 1660, and has not only the command of the fleet, but is a superior court of judicature; for all the sentences passed by the inferior court of admiralty come before them. The inferior court of admiralty has power over all civil and military subaltern officers in the navy.

IV. The treasury and the college of the finances, are better regulated than formerly. The first was instituted by Frederic IV. who abolished the college of treasurers, and appointed in their room, a single treasurer and vice-treasurer. He also introduced the college for the finances, which consists of the deputies for the finances, and commissioners of the college of the finances. The deputies, in concert with the commissioners, direct all affairs relating to the finances; but the deputies alone have the management of the public money, make disbursements, and subscribe all contracts. The commissioners are intrusted with the care of every thing else that relates to the revenues, and the imposts in money and corn; they farm the public revenues; have the inspection of every thing that may tend to their improvement and augmentation; and subscribe all representations made by the chamber to the king. The chamber of finances has two chanceries: these are the Danish, or northern, which has a secretary and two agents; and the German chancery, which consists of a secretary and one agent. The chamber court of judicature has a justiciary and an agent, who manage the judicial proceedings of the chamber. The correspondence of the chamber college is carried on, and the accompts of the collectors inspected and adjusted, by seventeen clerks of the revenues. These clerks have their respective departments and offices, of which there are seven, and as many clerks, for Denmark; five for Norway; and five for the German dominions.

V. The general college for the improvement of manufactures and commerce, was instituted in 1735, and consists of deputies and commissioners for the domestic and commercial departments, and of a Danish and German secretary. This college has the direction of every thing that may promote the increase of domestic trade, manufactures, fisheries, and all new foundations or establishments. By virtue of a royal ordinance, issued in 1753, every deputy has his particular department, but is under the controul or check of the general college.

The general ecclesiastical college of inspection was instituted in 1737 by Christian VI. and usually consists of six members, three divines, and as many laymen, who are all called general ecclesiastical inspectors. The third lay-inspector is also secretary of the college, and has one or two secretaries under him. This college has the general direction of all ecclesiastical affairs in Denmark and Norway, and its members inspect into the behaviour of the clergy, and the state of the universities and schools in their jurisdiction: they likewise pass their censure on all theological treatises on religious controversies. This college is also under the king's immediate jurisdiction.

The last college is that of the general post-office, which has the direction of the posts in the two kingdoms, audits the accounts of the post-masters, and inspects into their conduct. This office has its directors, treasuries, and revision chamber. In all towns the couriers for letters go out and come in twice a week. The roads are measured all over the kingdom, and at every quarter of a Danish mile the ground is a little raised, and a stone erected upon it.

We now come to the revenues of Denmark, which arise from the customs, particularly those of the Sound, Coldingen, and Norway. A toll in passing from the northern ocean into the Baltic, and from the last into the northern ocean, is paid in the freights, at Elsinore, Nyburg, and Fredericia, but the principal custom-house is at Elsinore. In some years, above six thousand ships pass through these freights, and consequently the toll is very considerable. This toll is not on an equal footing with respect to all nations; for the Hamburgers are obliged to pay more than others for passing through the Sound. The English, Dutch, Swedish, and French ships

ships are not searched, when they are provided, according to treaties with passes: they also pay down only one per cent. for such goods as are specified in the tariff, while all other nations are not only searched, but are obliged to pay one and a quarter per cent. With respect to the Hanse-towns that lie on the Baltic, there is a great variety in the toll they pay; for almost every one of those towns is treated with in particular. The tolls are, in general, either farmed out or collected by officers appointed for that purpose, and there are comptrollers appointed by the king over the farmers and officers.

The other revenues arise from the excise and consumption.

From the taxes paid by the farming peasants for freeholds and contributions of provisions in Norway; from duties on oxen, corn, and bacon in Denmark; and from redeemed estates.

From the poll-tax, which, however, is never imposed, but upon extraordinary occasions.

From fines, dispensations, stamp paper, and the post-office. The revenues arising from the latter are appropriated for pensions, and for carrying on the foreign missions.

And lastly, from the royal tythes, which formerly belonged to the bishops; but after the reformation were annexed to the crown.

The military forces in the kingdom of Denmark, and the places subject to it, consist of the horse life guards, one regiment of cuirassier guards, and one regiment of dragoon guards; nine other regiments of cuirassiers, two regiments of foot life-guards, one of which consists entirely of grenadiers; the king's own regiment, the queen's regiment, and the prince-royal's regiment; besides nine regiments of infantry enlisted, seven national regiments of infantry, and a regiment for garrisons. In Norway there are five national regiments of cavalry, two enlisted, and thirteen national regiments of infantry, and the light troops, consisting of five or six hundred men. An enlisted regiment of cavalry consists of eight, and an enlisted regiment of infantry of twelve companies; but the national regiments are more compleat than the enlisted. The king of Denmark's whole military force amounts to fifty-nine thousand two hundred and eighty-nine men.

The Danes were antiently very powerful and successful at sea, and in later times, Christian V. and Frederic IV. have performed great exploits with the Danish fleet. It at present consists of thirty-four ships of the line, sixteen frigates, and a number of galleys, which usually amount to fifty. Since the year 1755, the seamen in constant pay consist of four divisions, each division containing ten companies, with a company of artillery, amounting in all to four thousand four hundred men: but the number of registered seamen, with which the fleet may be manned upon any emergency, is about twenty-four thousand, which in Denmark are distributed in six districts, and in as many in Norway, they being under the direction of certain officers appointed for that purpose. There is also in Denmark a company of sea cadets instituted by Frederic IV. in the year 1701.

The fleet is laid up at Copenhagen, and the naval stores, with the materials for ship building, are in great plenty, and kept in very regular order. Floating block-houses are used upon occasion with great success in the Baltic.

Justice is no where obtained with more expedition than in Denmark. The whole body of their laws is contained in one moderate quarto volume, written in their own language in so plain and intelligible a manner, that it scarce needs a comment. This excellent work is intitled *Codex Christianeus*; it was published in 1683 by Christian V. and is the only law observed in Denmark.

Every general government has its general governor, who is always a person of distinction, and usually a knight of one of the orders. His power is very great, and extends both to spiritual, temporal, and judicial affairs. He has likewise authority over the revenues, towns, and country within his jurisdiction. Under the governor are the prefects, who are also noblemen, or at least persons of distinction; but they have no power in the towns within their jurisdiction, which extends only to the open country. The civil government in the cities and great

towns is lodged in a burgomaster and council; but in smaller towns in a kind of headborough. Many towns have also a royal president, and several of them have the privilege of holding courts of justice.

Besides the town courts of judicature, and those held by the nobility in their own manors, there are three other courts, the ting-court, land-court, and the supreme tribunal. In the ting-court causes are generally first brought, both in the towns and in the country; every small district consisting of forty or fifty villages, or hamlets, which have their headborough, a judge, and a secretary; to which are added eight peasants. These courts are held weekly. From this inferior court an appeal lies to the provincial court, or assizes, which commonly consists of two judges and a secretary, and is held once a month in several of the principal towns. The other court, from which there lies no appeal, is the supreme tribunal at Copenhagen, which is held almost all the year round, and is opened by the king in person every year, about the beginning of March. This court, where the law is silent or doubtful, has a power of determining the affair; and, it is said, that through all these courts a suit is carried in the space of thirteen months, and the whole expence, notwithstanding the appeals from one court to another, amounts to no more than ten or twelve pounds sterling. They have indeed no inns of court, or public societies of lawyers; but every one who pleases may take up the profession; yet the fees are so low, that there are few advocates: and there is the less occasion for them, as every man is at liberty to manage his own suit, and plead his cause himself. The greatest expence arises from the stamp paper, upon which the proceedings are written; and, to prevent this being excessive, the clerks, or registers, are obliged to bring the whole matter into a certain number of sheets, as well the allegations and proofs, as the sentence itself, which are all reduced to writing. In the inferior courts the reasons on which every sentence is founded are expressed, but not in the supreme court. The judges of the inferior courts, whose salaries are very inconsiderable, are not only punished for misdemeanors committed in the execution of their office, but are obliged to make satisfaction to the party injured by an unjust sentence.

Our merchants who have had occasion to prosecute suits in this country, admire the equitableness of their laws, and the ease with which justice is obtained.

The crimes of high treason, robbery, and house-breaking are seldom heard of in Sweden; and seditious discourses, and practices are still more uncommon. The punishment for capital crimes is beheading, which is usually done by one stroke with a sword.

In the city of Copenhagen is an officer called the polity-master, who takes care that good orders are kept, composes differences among the merchants, and sees that their merchandize is good and saleable. He causes the streets, bridges, and canals to be cleansed, kept in good repair, and free from nuisances or obstructions. He takes care that the city be supplied with corn fit for bread at a moderate price; seizes prohibited goods, and assists at the extinguishing of fires; for the mob is not suffered to rush in on these occasions; but have companies like our firemen, whose proper business it is, who are provided with instruments for the purpose; and no other persons must approach within a certain distance of the place. The polity-master also causes people to be apprehended who walk the streets by night, no person being allowed to be abroad after beating the tattoo. He likewise suppresses riots and tumults in the streets. The polity-master is also the general game-keeper, and has the power of seizing guns, nets, and venison unlawfully taken.

We shall conclude this account of the government and administration of the laws, with observing, that the Danes seem to be very apprehensive of the abuses of apothecaries in selling and applying their drugs; for they permit no person to exercise that profession who is not appointed by the college of physicians, and confirmed by the king himself. Not long ago there were but two of them allowed in the city of Copenhagen, and one in every other great town, which would doubtless be much too few did not some of their physicians prepare their own medicines. The apothecaries shops are visited by
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the magistrates and physicians two or three times a year, and the bad or decayed drugs taken and destroyed. The prices of all drugs are fixed, from which they durst not vary. They keep exact books of what they sell, and to whom, that where an ill accident happens it may be known who has occasioned it; and for the same reason they are obliged to file all the prescriptions that are brought them.

We shall now describe the Danish islands, and, beginning with the east, give a particular account of what is most worthy of notice.

SECT. VII.

Of the general Government of Zealand, with a Description of that Island, and of the Islands Amac, Mona, Bornholm, and other smaller Islands; with the principal Places in each, particularly of the City of Copenhagen, the King's Palaces, and the most remarkable Cities in that Government.

THE kingdom of Denmark is divided into seven governments, the most easterly of which is that of Zealand, which contains sixteen prefectures, in which are included all the above islands, and the most considerable places belonging to this kingdom.

The island of Zealand, in the Danish language called Saland, or Sialland, is seated at the entrance of the Baltic, and is encompassed by the Categate on the north; the freight called the Sound on the east; the Baltic sea on the south, and the freight called the Great Belt on the west. This is the largest of all the Danish islands, it being about seventy miles in length, and sixty-five in its greatest breadth.

The soil of this island is tolerably fertile, and produces fine barley, of which malt is made, and a great quantity of the latter is exported from this island; it likewise yields plentiful crops of fine oats, but the rye is not more than sufficient for home consumption. It has fertile meadows of a beautiful verdure, and some woods of oak and beach; but in the country lying near Copenhagen, and some other parts, no woods are to be seen, and the inhabitants are obliged to use chiefly turf for their fuel. There are several lakes in this island, some of which are pretty large, and well stocked with fish; and the rivers, which are in every part of Zealand, also abound in fish. The most convenient harbour in the island is that of Copenhagen, and next to that the port of Kallundborg. Within the prefecture of Copenhagen is the city of that name, of which we shall now give a particular description.

Copenhagen, the capital of the kingdom of Denmark, and the place where the court resides, is situated on the Baltic, in the fifty-fifth degree forty minutes fifty-nine seconds north latitude, and in the twelfth degree fifty minutes east longitude, about thirty miles from the Sound, and has a beautiful and commodious harbour. It is in a low and marshy situation; but on the land side are several fine lakes, which furnish the inhabitants with plenty of fresh water. The adjacent country is very pleasant, and opposite to the city lies the fertile island of Amac, which forms the harbour, and which we shall describe in its proper place. The city at a distance makes a magnificent appearance, and from the west gate to the Norway gate in the citadel, extends four thousand one hundred and forty Zealand ells in length, and from the north gate to the Amac gate it is three thousand one hundred and twenty ells in breadth; so that its circuit must be twelve thousand six hundred ells, or six miles six hundred ells. The Gother-street, which runs in a straight line across the whole city, dividing the Old from the New Town, is above four thousand two hundred feet in length. This metropolis contains four royal castles, ten parish and nine other churches, a considerable number of public and private palaces, above four thousand burghers houses, several of which are inhabited by ten or more families, eleven markets and public squares, a hundred and eighty-six streets, and a hundred thousand inhabitants.

This city is divided into three principal parts, Old Copenhagen, New Copenhagen, and Christians-hafen. As the two last are more modern than the first, they are laid out in broad streets that run in a straight line. Most of the streets in Old Copenhagen since the last great fire have been made of a sufficient breadth; but the old windings could not be entirely avoided. The houses in the principal streets and squares are almost entirely built with brick; but in the lanes most of the buildings are of timber. However, in general they make a handsome appearance. The city is at the annual expence of ten or twelve thousand rixdollars in keeping the streets clean, and in the night it is illuminated with lanterns. In some parts of the city are deep canals into which large ships may enter, and, to the great convenience of the merchants, may lade and unlade close to the warehouses.

Besides the above three general divisions, the city is divided into twelve quarters, and the burghers into as many companies, which have all their particular colours.

The Old Town consists of the following quarters. First, the north quarter, which has the following places of note: the German church, dedicated to St. Peter, which was the principal parish church at the time of the reformation; it was afterwards converted into a foundery, but in 1585 was given to the Germans, and in 1618 was again made a parish church.

The Walkendorf college in St. Peter's street was formerly a Carmelite monastery; but the lord steward, Christopher Walkendorf, converted it into a college for sixteen students, each of whom has a yearly pension of thirty rixdollars.

The second is the west quarter, in which are the great Wartow hospital, which is an antient foundation; but the edifice is new and spacious, and the endowment so considerable, that it contains at present above three hundred beds for the sick and poor, each of whom hath his lodging gratis, and a weekly allowance of half a rixdollar. Close to the hospital stands a small commodious and neat church, which is so contrived, that the sick and bed-ridden may hear divine service and sermons in their beds.

The city prison, which has also its particular church.

The orphan-house, which takes up one entire side of the new market, and is a considerable ornament to that square. The present building was finished in 1734, and contains a hundred poor children, that is sixty boys and forty girls, who are maintained and educated; but at present the number is increased to a hundred and eight: it has a particular church, a dispensary, a printing-house, and a library belonging to the foundation.

The council-house is a new structure, and, being detached from the other buildings, separates the Old from the New Market. In the Old Market is a fine fountain, and in the New is a place walled in for the execution of malefactors.

The other places in the west quarter worthy of notice are the west gate, and the royal palace, situated near the citadel of Christiansburg, which in 1743 and 1744 was new fronted in a very elegant manner.

The third is the clothiers quarter, in which are the following places worthy of notice. The collegiate church of St. Mary, in which the bishops of Denmark and Norway are usually consecrated. The tower, which is esteemed the noblest in Copenhagen, stands on the highest spot in the whole city; it is three hundred and eighty feet in length, and has a fine ring of bells. The university, which includes the royal community, or the cloyster, in which a hundred poor students had formerly two meals a day; but at present they receive a pension instead of provisions; and in this edifice they hold their daily disputations. It likewise contains the consistory, the auditories, or halls, the rector's house, and other buildings. To the university also belong four spacious colleges, well endowed for the maintenance of the young students gratis. The Walkendorf college has been already mentioned. The other three are the royal college founded by Christian IV. for a hundred and twenty students, though no more than a hundred now reside in it. The Collegium Elerianum, founded by George Elers, for sixteen students.

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The Borrichian College, or the Collegium Medicum, is the most elegant and best endowed of all the private foundations. The learned Olaus Borrichius erected this college in 1689, for sixteen Danish and Norwegian students. Every student has apartments gratis for five years, with an annual pension of sixty rixdollars. The library and cabinet of curiosities which joined to this college were burnt down in 1728, but have since been in some measure restored.

The last place we shall mention in this quarter is the north gate, which is the most elegant structure of the kind belonging to this city, and was erected in 1671.

The fourth division is the freemen's quarter, in which are two churches, and the church of the Holy Ghost, or rather of the Holy Guests, it deriving its name from a large hospital or guest house that formerly stood near it, and was converted by Christian IV. into a house of correction. This church was rebuilt after the fire of 1728.

The fifth is named Snarren's quarter.

The sixth is called Strand quarter, and contains the following places worthy of notice. The magnificent royal palace of Christiansburg, which was enlarged and embellished by Christian III. Christian IV. and Frederick IV. but being very irregularly built, Christian VI. caused the whole building, with the adjoining houses, which had been purchased of the burghers, to be pulled down in 1731, and the following year laid the foundation of the present spacious and magnificent structure, which was finished in 1740. The first floor is called the ladies story, because most of the ladies and gentlemen in waiting have their apartments there. The royal treasury and cash-office are also kept here, and the king's court of justice and the burghers court are held in other apartments. The office of the general superintendants of the buildings is likewise in this story. In the second or royal story the apartments are adorned with the utmost magnificence and elegance. The supreme court of judicature is likewise held in this story. The prince royal's story is thus named from his highness and the princesses royal having their apartments in it, which are extremely elegant and well contrived. The inside of the royal chapel is also very beautiful and magnificent. The chancery is joined to the palace by a corridore, or covered gallery, and is a superb structure. In the lowest story, which is vaulted, are kept the archives of the kingdom. In the second is the privy-council-chamber, and also the chanceries of Denmark, Norway, and of the German dominions, the military colleges, and the college of the finances. In the third story are the offices belonging to the treasury, and the rent-chamber.

In this quarter is also an edifice in the first story of which is the arsenal, and in the second the king's library, which is above two hundred feet long, and contains about sixty or seventy thousand volumes. In the third story are the royal cabinet of curiosities, the picture-gallery, and the cabinet of medals; and in the fourth story is the cabinet of models.

In the royal cabinet of curiosities, just mentioned, are several large pieces of silver ore dug out of the mines of Norway in 1666, one of which weighs five hundred and sixty pounds, and is valued at five thousand crowns: another piece is valued at above three thousand, both being supposed to contain at least three parts silver. They are composed of a whitish stone, the cavities of which seem filled with pure virgin silver, which in some places lies in broad flat plates, and in others like pieces of fine silver lace; but what are most admired are the threads and branches of silver, which shoot out an inch or two beyond the stone, in form of small shrubs or bushes. Here are likewise several large pieces of amber, some weighing forty or fifty ounces. Upon opening the ditches about Copenhagen these were found sticking, like the gum on the plumb trees in our gardens, to the sides of the old trees that were buried there. Among the artificial curiosities is a piece of ivory, on which is the history of our Saviour's passion beautifully expressed in relieve. There is likewise a small man of war in ivory, with silver guns, which is much admired; as is also a watch made of ivory, and a skeleton made of the same substance two feet six inches high, and so nicely formed, that it is scarcely to be distinguished from a natural one.

There are besides many other curiosities in ivory, ebony, box, amber, and other materials kept for the sake of the elegance or minuteness of the workmanship; and, it is said, there is a common cherry-stone on the surface of which are engraven two hundred and twenty heads, but their smallness makes them appear imperfect and confused.

In this quarter is likewise the magazine for provisions, the post-office, and the exchange, which is a grand structure in the Gothic taste, four hundred and six feet in length, and sixty-six in breadth, the greatest part of which was built in 1624 by Christian IV. The lowest story is laid out in warehouses, which are very commodious for the merchants; for on both sides of this structure are canals where the ships may lie close to the warehouses, and goods be conveniently landed or shipped from them. In the second story in the north side is the place where the merchants usually meet. In the middle and down the whole length on both sides is a range of shops; in one wing of the south side is the royal bank, and in the other the royal magazine, where most of the cloths, silks, and stuffs made in the city are deposited, and from thence sold to merchants and dealers.

The seventh is the Rosenberg quarter, in which is a Calvinist church, a small neat edifice, where the ministers preach in French and high Dutch; and the Trinity church, generally called the Round church from its round tower: its arched roof, which is pretty high, is supported by two rows of very slender octangular pillars, which give it the air of a very light building. This edifice suffered less than the other churches in the great fire in 1728, and was soon repaired. The greatest loss was the noble collection of books belonging to the university, kept in a large room over the arched roof of the church. However, a new library has been since collected, in which are several valuable manuscripts relating to the Northern history. The tower of this church is esteemed a master-piece of its kind, and was designed by the celebrated Christian Longomontanus, the astronomer. It is round, a hundred and fifteen feet high, and fifty-four feet in thickness; flat on the top, and surrounded by an iron balustrade. The ascent is spiral, and so spacious and easy, that a coach and horses may go up and down again with ease; which experiment was tried by Peter the Great in 1716. This tower was designed for an observatory, but the curious astronomical and mathematical instruments, invented by Tycho Brahe, Olaus Romer, and others, which were kept here, were all consumed by the great fire in 1728; but afterwards Christian VI. procured the most curious and valuable mathematical and astronomical instruments, to supply the place of those that were burnt.

The eighth is the manufacturers quarter.

The ninth is the east quarter, in which are the following places of note: the church of St. Nicholas, which, next to St. Mary's, is the largest in the city, and the best ornamented both within and without; the roof is covered with copper, and it has several curious monumental inscriptions.

The Bremer Holms church, also called the admiralty church, it being first allotted for the use of persons belonging to the navy; but afterwards a large congregation of burghers were added.

The general commission-office is a large structure erected by Frederic IV. in the year 1704. Here the united colleges of the admiralty and general commission meet. Besides this structure, the following edifices belong to the naval department: the Old or Bremer Holm, and the New Holm, where the naval stores are distributed: Christiansholm, where is the naval arsenal, which far exceeds that of Venice, and where the royal fleet usually lies.

The New Town consists of two quarters: the first is St. Ann's east quarter, in which are Charlottenburg, a pretty large and regular structure, begun in 1672, and completed in the succeeding years. It derives its name from queen Charlotte Amelia, consort of Christian V. The situation of this castle or palace is very agreeable, its principal front facing the square called the King's New Market, which is embellished with an equestrian statue of Christian V. of lead gilt, placed on an elegant pedestal. On the sides of this fine square are also the

great guard-house, the foundery, and the Danish play-house.

There are also in this quarter the naval hospital, the church belonging to the garrison: the Frederickstadt, which is now adorned with several elegant new palaces: Frederick's church, built in imitation of St. Peter's at Rome: the general hospital: the tolbooth, or custom-house; and the grand academy of the royal cadets. This last structure was built by Frederick IV. for an opera-house; but in 1720 he assigned it for the land cadets; and, five or six years after, removed the company of sea cadets to this edifice. Each company has its separate apartments and exercising-rooms, and is under the inspection of its proper officer, who likewise lives in the academy. These young men are not only supplied with lodging, cloathing, fire and candles, and a monthly pension sufficient to find them in diet; but are also instructed at the king's expence in all the sciences by able masters appointed for that purpose. These two companies are a kind of nursery for the army and navy.

In St. Anne's west quarter is the royal palace called Rosenburg, a small edifice built by Christian IV. in 1604, in the semi-gothic taste; but is a grand structure, adorned with one large and two small towers. It is surrounded with a ditch and a kind of fortification, and has its own commanding officer; but the guard is daily relieved from the garrison of Copenhagen. The adjoining gardens are very extensive, and embellished with a great number of ornaments. These, in summer, serve the inhabitants for a public walk, and the royal family sometimes reside a few days in this palace. The third story of the palace is said to be the most remarkable from its containing a treasure of inestimable value. In the great hall, which is in this story, and takes up the whole extent of the building, are five pieces of painting by the Danish artist Krogk; twelve valuable pieces of tapestry, representing the achievements of Christian V. and three silver lions as large as the life, which at the king's inauguration are placed round the throne. In two cabinets adjoining to the hall are kept the old and new regalia, with other valuable jewels, and a whole service of gold. Another cabinet has a collection of curious and valuable drinking glasses, and other glass vessels. The royal throne used at the inauguration stands in another apartment.

Christianshafen consists only of one quarter; it is situated on the island of Amac, and had formerly its own magistrates; but is at present under the jurisdiction of those of Copenhagen. The most remarkable places in this suburb are St. Saviour's church, which is esteemed the most magnificent and elegant church at Copenhagen; and has a beautiful steeple, that has a spiral ascent on the outside, by which one may go up to the top. The German, or Frederick's church; the orphan-house for the education of two hundred poor boys; the East India company's house; the fine dock-yard, where ships of war are refitted; and the gate of Christianshafen.

Between Copenhagen and this suburb is a high pillar erected in the midst of the water, on which is a statue of a naked woman, with a swan on her left side that extends its long neck behind her back, and, bringing its head over her right shoulder, puts its bill into her mouth. This pillar and statue are considered as a symbolical representation of the city of Copenhagen: they were, however, found near Calmar, in Sweden, during the war in 1611, and from thence conveyed to this city.

In this city the Calvinists have a church to themselves; those of the Romish religion frequent the chapels of foreign ministers of that profession, and the Jews have their synagogues.

The magistracy of this city is appointed by the king, and consists of a president, three burgomasters, with vice-burgomasters, and common-council men.

Besides the supreme and other colleges, academies of painting and drawing, the Theatrum Anatomico-Chirurgicum, trading companies, the bank, and the office of insurance already mentioned in treating of this kingdom in general, they have an insurance-office for cash, fire and water-offices, and different manufactures, in which silk and woollen stuffs, cloths, fine gold linen, and silver lace, porcelain, &c. are made.

This city has been frequently visited by the plague, which swept away great numbers of the inhabitants. It has often been besieged, and in 1658, and 1659, held out against the Swedes almost two years; and in 1700 was bombarded by the combined fleets of Sweden, England, and Holland. On the twentieth of October, 1728, a fire broke out in the evening in a mean house near the west gate, which spread with such fury, that in forty-eight hours the most elegant and greatest part of the city was reduced to ashes. Twenty-four streets and squares, a thousand six hundred and fifty dwelling-houses, five churches, the university, with the four colleges belonging to it, the council-house, and several other public buildings, were burnt to the ground. The anniversary of this dreadful accident is observed in a religious manner on the twenty-third of October. The city has, however, been since rebuilt with greater elegance and beauty.

As the suburb of Christianshafen is seated on the island of Amac, it is necessary to take some notice of that island, which is joined to the city, and consequently to Zealand, by two bridges. That island is about nine miles in length, and three in breadth: it is entirely level, and has no woods, except a few thickets. The soil is uncommonly rich and fertile, and is therefore called the garden of Copenhagen. A part of it was given in 1516 to several families, who were invited thither from North Holland by Christian II. at the desire of Elizabeth his queen, who was a native of the Netherlands, to make butter and cheese for the court; and their descendants still retain the habit, language, and customs of their predecessors, together with their cleanliness and industry; for they will not mix with the Danes, but intermarry with each other. This island, through the industry of these laborious people, plentifully supplies the markets of Copenhagen with all sorts of roots and herbs, besides butter, milk, great quantities of corn, and some hay. The whole island is divided into two parishes, and is peopled by about eight hundred families, many of whom are Danes.

In the neighbourhood of Copenhagen, is a magnificent royal palace, situated on a hill. It derives its name from Frederick IV. who was its founder, and has been since greatly enlarged by Christian VI. This edifice is very spacious; on every side it makes a most magnificent appearance, and has a fine prospect. The garden, which lies below the hill, is very extensive, and contains a great number of pleasant walks, several groves, a labyrinth, a theatre, many statues, fountains, and summer-houses; and, in particular, a very fine cascade just fronts the palace. From this edifice is a descent into the garden by two flights of broad stone steps. The menagery in the garden is stocked with lions, tigers, and other wild beasts. From this palace a pleasant avenue, planted with a double row of trees, extends above half way to Copenhagen.

Jagersburg is a royal hunting-seat, rebuilt by the present king; here the officers of the chace reside. From hence a straight avenue leads to the noble park of Charlottenlund, so called from the king's pleasure-house, which stands in it.

At about the distance of a mile from this park lies that of Jagersburg, which affords a great deal of game. About the middle of it stands a new edifice called the Hermitage, which is thirty ells in length, twenty in breadth, and elegantly adorned both within and without. In the lowest story is a curious machine, by means of which the victuals, &c. are conveyed to and from the king's table in the second story, when his majesty dines there.

At the distance of about five miles is the castle of Hirschholm, a royal palace, which was antiently a place of considerable strength: but nothing now remains of the old castle, besides the name; for it is not only demolished, but the very situation of the place has been entirely altered by art. Christian VI. who took possession of it as prince royal, caused the foundation of a new edifice to be laid on the spot where the old castle stood, and his queen, after his accession to the throne, continued the building, the king having made her a present of it. In 1739 it was thought to be finished; though every year since, new improvements and embellishments have been continually

continually added. The outside has a very magnificent appearance, nor is it less elegant within. The great hall takes up the height of two stories, and has a noble fountain that throws up a column of water above twenty feet high, which falls down again into a copper basin. The chapel is elegant and well adorned, and the garden very beautiful. At the extremity of it, directly opposite to the palace, is a noble summer-house; and on one side of the garden is an eminence covered with trees, on which stands the Norway-house, which is so called from its being built in the Norwegian taste.

At the distance of about twenty miles from Copenhagen, is the famous castle of Fredericksburg, which is esteemed the most beautiful of any belonging to the king, and is frequently called the Versailles of Denmark. Christian IV. caused the old building to be demolished, and the present magnificent structure to be built by the ablest and most celebrated architects in Europe. It stands in the midst of a lake of fresh water, and consists of three principal parts, each surrounded with water, but joined together by bridges. The first division, to which you arrive by passing over a bridge, resembles a horn-work, the front of which is quite round, and faced with stone. On both sides are several buildings, which serve either as dwelling houses for the officers of the castle, or stables for horses. From hence you pass over a stone bridge to a noble high tower, which stands over the gate that leads into the second court. On each side of this court to the right and left, stands a magnificent building, in one of which are the governor's house, several apartments for the noblemen belonging to the court, and the king's kitchen; and on the other the chief magistrate of the prefecture of Seroe resides. From this second court a fine stone bridge, built over a deep canal, leads to the grand portico of the chief entrance of the castle, which is built with free-stone, and adorned with sculpture and gilding. The principal building consists of a corps-de-logis, and two wings, four stories high, all covered with copper, and adorned with several towers, of which the church tower is the highest. Both the wings are joined to the front by a low building of one story. Upon the first entrance into the inner court, the magnificence of the structure, the beauty of the marble, the elegance of the sculpture, and the richness of the gilding, fill the beholder with astonishment; but what principally strikes the eye is a noble imitation of the ancient architecture, consisting of two grand arcades, one over the other, in the front of the building. These consist of seven arches below, and as many above, built with free-stone, and embellished with statues that stand either in niches or detached from the wall, with many other ornaments. Near one of the wings is a beautiful fountain; and which way soever you turn your eyes, curious sculpture, and a variety of other embellishments, present themselves to view.

The gallery that leads to the hall of audience, is adorned with a fine collection of paintings, most of them brought from Italy; and the hall is hung with the pictures of several of the Danish kings, and of the present royal family as large as the life. The exploits of some of these monarchs are also beautifully painted in different parts of the palace, and the great actions of Christian IV. are represented in rich tapestry. In the church belonging to the castle, the eye is in a manner dazzled by the glittering of the gold, silver, and curious marble, with which it is embellished. The altar is of black marble, the front of the table is of silver and ebony, and the pulpit is of the same materials. From the gallery you have a view of the large pictures with which the pilasters between the windows are decorated. In the windows, and on the walls of this church, are the escutcheons of the knights of the Danebrog order. The gallery leads to a spacious place behind the altar, where the royal throne is erected; and on the walls, which are hung with crimson velvet, are seen the arms of all the knights of the order of the elephant. The grand organ in this apartment, is curiously embellished with sculpture and gilding. Formerly a fine organ of silver and ebony likewise stood here. The kings of Denmark are always anointed in this church. In the tower is a fine ring of bells. In short, all the apartments of the castle are very magnificent,

especially the knights ball-room, which is over the church in the third story, and has also a noble organ. There is a fine garden behind the palace, and the neighbouring park is interspersed with canals and fish-ponds, and agreeably diversified with a mixture of grass-plats, and little hills and valleys, well stocked with fallow-deer from England.

At the distance of about eighteen miles from Copenhagen, is Elsinore, or Elfsineur, a town situated on the Sound, directly opposite to Elfsingburg in Sweden, in the fifty-sixth degree eight minutes north latitude, and in the thirteenth degree twenty-three minutes east longitude. This is the richest and most elegant town in Zealand, next to Copenhagen. It has two churches, in one of which, named St. Peter's, the ministers preach in the German language. There is here also a grammar school, in which thirty-three poor scholars are educated and maintained gratis, a good hospital, and the king's custom-house, which is a fine edifice newly built. Elsinore has a considerable trade, and is famous, both on account of its being the place by which the Swedes and Norwegians usually pass into Denmark, and for the toll paid here by every ship that sails through the Sound. On the north side of the city stands the famous and important castle of Cronenburg, which is built with large blocks of hewn stone, in the most durable manner, and is adorned with several turrets and a variety of sculpture. The fortifications of this castle are in excellent order.

Friedensburg is a royal palace, pleasantly situated about nine miles from Cronenburg, in latitude fifty-five degrees thirty-six minutes. Frederic IV. was invited to build this palace by its delightful situation, and as the edifice was completed in 1720, when the treaty of peace was concluded with Sweden, the king gave it this name, the word *frieden* signifying peace. This prince, being extremely fond of this place, often resides here, and therefore, to render it as agreeable as possible, endeavours to supply by art whatever beauties were denied it by nature. The inner court is a regular octagon, formed by seven wings, one story high, and the main building, which is opposite the principal entrance. In the midst of the court is a fountain adorned with a marble statue of peace, made at Florence. The main building is in the form of a parallelogram, and covered with copper, and in the middle has a spacious, light, and elegant square hall. The other apartments in both stories are nobly furnished. The garden is not very extensive, but is well laid out, and embellished with statues, vases, and other ornaments. It is surrounded with a large wood, that affords plenty of game, and in which several vistas are cut. From the palace is a delightful prospect, the eye commanding almost all the vistas at once, and at the end of them is an extensive lake, in which is a beautiful yacht. Near the palace is also a fine orangery, and an elegant church. In the wood which joins the garden, is a manegery stocked with a variety of beautiful tame and wild fowl.

Roschild, or Roeskild, is an ancient city about a mile from the extremity of a bay called Isefiord, and derives its name from Roe, the eleventh king of Denmark, who was its founder, and the word *kilde*, which signifies a spring; there being several excellent springs on the spot where it stands. This city is situated in the fifty-fifth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree fifteen minutes east longitude, and once contained twenty-seven large churches and convents within its walls, and its streets extended to the sea-shore. The kings of Denmark were formerly elected and crowned here, and also made it the place of their residence. But frequent fires, the tyranny of the bishops, and the flourishing state of Copenhagen, have so far reduced this city, that it at present consists of only an inconsiderable number of houses, which are for the most part meanly built. The inhabitants support themselves by trade and industry, but their chief employment is agriculture and the planting of tobacco. The cathedral is a standing monument of the ancient grandeur of this city, though it has been three times consumed by fire; it being adorned with many monuments of the kings and queens of Denmark. A small royal palace was built here in the year 1733 that has a

communication with the church, by means of a covered passage.

In the cathedral school, six masters and forty scholars are maintained and educated. Here is also an hospital for six poor widows; and in 1699 a convent was founded in this town for twenty-one ladies of quality, and a prioress. Each of these ladies has an annual pension of eighty rixdollars, besides lodging and board. Christian V. also endowed this protestant convent with five hundred rix-dollars a year. At the other end of the town is a church dedicated to the Virgin Mary, in which, money was formerly coined, and a multitude of relics was preserved.

The city of Calinburg, or Kallundborg, in the prefecture of the same name, is one of the most flourishing towns in Zealand, and has the best harbour in the island, except Copenhagen. St. Mary's church, which has four lofty spires, makes a good appearance. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade, and a great quantity of malt is annually exported from hence. The passage to Barhuus in Jutland is usually performed in twelve hours; and a certain number of smacks sail twice a week from one town to the other.

The island of Samso, in Latin Samsoa, lies about thirty-eight miles to the north-west of Kalinburg, and nineteen from Arhuse in Jutland, in the fifty-sixth degree north latitude. It is about fourteen miles long and five broad. It has several hills and eminences, and the soil is for the most part fertile, and in particular yields plenty of peas, whence most of the inhabitants are in good circumstances, and carry on a considerable trade with their small craft. It consists of five parishes, and is surrounded with several very small islands and sandy shoals.

Sora is a little noted town, in a pleasant country, in the prefecture of the same name. It is situated ten miles to the south of Roschild; where it is surrounded by three lakes of fresh water, and these are again almost encompassed with fine woods. This town is remarkable for the royal academy situated at the south end of it, to which belong a grand master, an inspector, professors in all the sciences that relate to civil or political employments, a French master, a riding master, with proper masters for fencing, dancing, and drawing. There is also a printing-press set up in this academy. The students have their apartments in a large and commodious stone building.

The island of Mona, Moen, or Moon, as it is usually called in our maps, lies near the coast of the south point of Zealand, in the straits called the Wolfsund; it is situated in fifty-five degrees twenty-one minutes north latitude, and is nineteen miles in length from east to west, and about nine in breadth. The high chalky cliffs towards the Baltic may be seen at a great distance at sea, one of which has some resemblance to a throne, and is therefore commonly called the king's chair. Stones of an uncommon figure are in great plenty on this coast. The soil of the whole island is fertile, and yields great plenty of peas. It consists of one prefecture, and contains seven rural parishes, and the little town of Stege, situated in the middle of the island.

The island of Bornholm, in Latin Bornholmia, or Boringia, is situated in the Baltic, in the fifty-fifth degree fifteen minutes north latitude, and in the fifteenth degree ten minutes east longitude, about seventy-six miles from the extreme point of Zealand, and extends about thirty-three miles in length from north-west to south-east, and is nineteen in breadth. The soil is fertile, and produces all kinds of grain, particularly oats. Here is also good pasturage, and a great quantity of butter is exported from hence; it has also quarries of marble and lime-stone, and abounds with pit-coal. The coast, from its dangerous rocks and shoals, is inaccessible almost on every side; but where there might be any danger of an enemy's landing great guns are planted. At the peace of Roschild in 1658, it was ceded to the Swedes; but the inhabitants being treated with great severity by their new masters, they took up arms the same year, and, under the conduct of Jens Koefod, recovered their liberty, after which they delivered up the island to the king of Denmark, who, pleased with this proceeding, sent them a letter of thanks, and in a second letter promised to take

them under his immediate protection; an engagement which the succeeding kings have confirmed from time to time, and Bornholm has been ever since an hereditary country, belonging to the kings of Denmark. In 1678, five thousand Swedish troops were stranded on this island, in their passage from Pomerania to Sweden, when, notwithstanding their being provided with Danish passes, those that escaped the fury of the waves were made prisoners of war. The inhabitants defend the island with their own militia, without any expence to his Danish majesty, and have a governor, deputy-governor, prefect, and other officers. The island consists of one prefecture, which contains about a hundred villages, and sixteen rural churches.

S E C T. VIII.

Of the general Government of Funen, including a Description of that Island; and of the Islands of Langeland, Falster, and Laaland, with the principal Towns in each.

THIS government is the second in order, and includes Funen, Langeland, Falster, Laaland, and other smaller islands. It has two governors, under one of whom are Funen and Langeland, and under the other are Falster and Laaland.

The island of Funen, called in Latin Fionia, and by the Danes Fyen, lies between the Great and Little Belt. It is about fifty miles in length, and forty-five in breadth. It received its name from its being a fine country, the whole island being fertile and very pleasant; whence most of the noble families of the kingdom reside there. Indeed, it is not easy to find in any other place of such small extent, so many noblemen's seats as there are in this island. The soil yields such plentiful crops of grain, that the inhabitants may annually export above a hundred thousand barrels of rye, barley, oats, and peas, to Norway and Sweden, exclusive of their home consumption. It also produces a vast quantity of buck-wheat, which is chiefly cultivated by the inhabitants. They employ a great deal of care in breeding bees, and make a considerable quantity of fine mead, which is exported to all parts of the kingdom. The apples that grow in this island are also much admired, and it likewise produces plenty of hops and esculent herbs; but the scarcity of wood obliges the inhabitants chiefly to use turf for fuel. There are in this island two mountains of considerable height, several fresh water lakes, and rivers that abound with fish; but none of them are navigable. In the bays, and all along the coasts, are taken a great quantity of sea-fish, particularly turbot, cod, herrings, and eels.

The whole island is divided into five prefectures, the principal places in which are,

Nyborg, or Niburg, in Latin Neoburgum, a strong town on the Great Belt, and though not very large, has a commodious situation, and is well built. The parish church and the council house are the best in the island. The harbour is large, but neither sufficiently deep, nor sheltered from some winds. The town is seated in the fifty-fifth degree twenty-seven minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree fifteen minutes east longitude. The inhabitants subsist partly by accommodating the passengers who daily cross over from hence to Zealand, or return hither from thence, and partly by commerce. The ships that pass through the Great Belt are obliged to pay toll here, for which purpose a man of war is always stationed in the Belt. This city was first built in 1175. All that remains of the royal ancient palace, where Christian II. was born in 1481, and when an infant carried up to the top of it by a monkey, and brought down again without receiving any hurt, is only a large wing, with a flat tower, a little higher than the roof, and at present serves for a magazine and an arsenal.

Odensee, in Latin Othinia, is a city of great antiquity, and the capital of the general government; it is pretty large and populous, but the greatest part of the city is old and decayed; some of it is, however, new and well built. It is said to have been erected before the Christian era, and to derive its name from the idol Odin, and not as some have imagined from the emperor Otho I. who never

was

was there. It is situated in a fine plain, in the fifty-fifth degree twenty-five minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree thirty minutes east longitude, on a river that yields a variety of fish, and about a mile below the town runs into the gulph of Stegestrand. The city is about a mile and a half long, and half as broad. It has four churches, among which the cathedral is the most remarkable: the inside has been lately repaired and beautified; but the architecture is old and mean. In the Grey Friars, or Franciscan church, are interred king John, and Christina his queen, with their son Francis, and king Christian II. The table of the altar, which was the gift of the above-mentioned queen, is extremely beautiful. Near this church is a handsome hospital, built in the year 1540. The king's palace is neither large, commodious, nor elegant; it being only erected as a lodging for Frederick IV. in his occasional progress through Funen; but there that excellent prince died in 1730. In this city is a college, erected and liberally endowed by Christian IV. and also a large cathedral school, consisting of six classes, where all the scholars, besides their education, receive a small pension, and thirty-six of the poorer sort are boarded and provided with all necessaries. The provincial court is held every month in the great hall of the city. The bay lies a little above a mile from the city; the inhabitants brew the best beer in Denmark, and carry on so considerable a trade, as to employ thirty-four large ships, besides above a hundred smaller vessels.

The island of Langeland, which is situated in the fifty-fifth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree fifty-four minutes east longitude, is thirty-three miles in length, but scarce five in breadth. It is very fertile, and under the same general governor as Funen; it contains only the royal prefecture of Tranekiar, which includes the north and south districts, each consisting of seven churches or parishes.

The island of Falster lies at the distance of two leagues from Zealand, in fifty-five degrees north latitude, and is about twenty-eight miles in length, but its breadth towards the north end does not exceed fourteen, and towards the southern extremity is but about four miles broad. It is very fertile, and may be called the orchard of Denmark, from its yielding abundance of fruit: all sorts of game are likewise here in great plenty. This island is commonly the dowry of the queens of Denmark, and consists of one single prefecture, which contains two districts, in one of which are thirteen rural churches, and in the other fifteen.

The principal town in this island is Nicopping, in Latin Nicopia, or Neapolis Danica, situated on the streights called Guldborgfund, in the forty-ninth degree fifty-six minutes north latitude, and is a pretty large, well built town, one of the most ancient in the kingdom; but is not in so flourishing a condition as formerly, when the queen dowager, and other royal personages, constantly resided here. On the land side it is fortified by a wall and ditch. It has a free grammar school, and a well endowed hospital. The royal palace is a great ornament to the town, and is situated very agreeably: the garden is pretty large, and kept in good order. This town carries on a considerable trade.

The island of Laland or Lolland, called by the Danes Laaland, is separated from Falster on the east, by the streights called Guldborgfund, and on every other side is encompassed by the Great Belt and the Baltic. It is nineteen miles distant from the island of Femeren; is thirty-three miles in length, and about fourteen in breadth, and the most fertile spot in the Danish dominions. This island produces plenty of grain, particularly very fine wheat, and excellent peas: it is likewise famous for a kind of red fruit called manna, which in its taste resembles sweet almonds, and grows on a slender stem; it also abounds with apples. It has some woods, but these are more frequent on the east than on the west side of the island. As agriculture turns out greatly to the advantage of the inhabitants, they make little account of grazing. Yet, after all, the country lies low, the soil is damp, and the air very unhealthy. The nobility are here, however, very numerous, and have considerable estates, and very fine seats. This island, like Fal-

ster, has a particular governor; but in spiritual affairs, both are under the bishop of Funen. It contains three prefectures.

The capital of the island is Naskow, in Latin Nascovia, which was anciently well fortified; but is now only encompassed with a wall. It is of a middling size, and handsomely built. The inhabitants are wealthy, and trade in the produce of the country, it having a pretty good harbour. The Jews are allowed the public exercise of their religion, and have a synagogue here: the town has also a grammar school, and an hospital.

S E C T. IX.

Of Jutland in general; with a particular Account of North Jutland, its several Governments, and the principal Places contained in each.

WE now come to the peninsula of Jutland, called by the Danes Judland or Jylland, in Latin Jutia, the ancient Cimbrica Chersonesus. This large peninsula is bounded by the Baltic on the east; by the North-Sea on the north and west; and on the south is separated from Holstein by the Eider and the Lewen. It is computed to extend, from the river Eider to its northern extremity at Cape Skau, two hundred and forty-seven miles in length; and from Bouberg to Nasset, a hundred and fourteen miles in breadth. It is divided into North and South Jutland, the latter of which is called the dutchy of Sleswic, of which we shall give an account in a separate section.

North-Jutland, which is commonly called by the general name of Jutland, is bounded on three sides by the North-Sea and the Baltic; but on the south is divided from South Jutland, or Sleswic, by the rivers Kolding and Skotburg. It extends a hundred and eighty miles in length, and from seventy-one to ninety-five in breadth, and, of all the territories in Denmark, is the largest, and yields the greatest revenue. Indeed the middle part is mostly composed of heaths and moors, which, however, afford good pasture for oxen, sheep, and goats; but the other parts, which are of greater extent, are extremely fertile, as appears from the great quantity of all sorts of grain annually exported to Sweden, Norway, and Holland, and from the great sums received by the inhabitants for their horses, oxen, and hogs. Hence Jutland has been frequently called the Land of Bacon and Rye-Bread. Here is also great plenty of sea and fresh water fish of all kinds; but the largest lakes, in which the most fish are found, are near the palace of Scanderburg. The chief bays and gulfs are on the east side of the peninsula, the principal of which is the gulf Lymfurd, which runs from the Categate, ninety-five miles within land, and gradually widening, forms several islands: it is navigable, and abounds with fish; but though it is of such large extent, it is separated from the sea only by a narrow tract of land. Here are also several other gulfs, which form good harbours. There are a great number of small streams, but the largest river is that of Guden, from which Jutland is said to derive its name; it rising in the government of Arhuse, and after receiving above forty smaller streams; becomes navigable near Randers, and having run a course of about a hundred and nineteen miles, falls into the Categate.

Jutland is every where interspersed with hills, and on the east side has fine woods of oak, fir, beach, birch, and other trees; but the west side being less woody, the inhabitants are obliged to use turf and heath for fuel. Here is also great plenty of all kinds of game. The air is somewhat keen and piercing, especially towards the North-Sea.

The Jutlanders are of a robust constitution and resolute temper, seeming to have raised themselves to a state of freedom superior to that of the other inhabitants of Denmark. Many of the peasants have freeholds, for which they only pay a small acknowledgment to the lord of the manor.

The Danish language is spoke with less purity and elegance here than in the other provinces, and besides, the Jutlanders have a particular accent. Fredericia is

the only place where any religion, besides that of Lutheranism, is tolerated.

North Jutland was formerly divided into nine large districts; but this ancient division is now abolished by the royal courts of judicature, and it is at present composed of four dioceses, or general governments. Each of these has its bishop and general-governor. They derive their names from four chief cities. We shall begin with those that lie most to the north.

The general government of Alburg, or Aalborg, comprehends the most northern part of Jutland, it being divided from the other provinces by the gulf of Lymfurt, and would be an island were it not for the narrow isthmus between the North-Sea and the gulf of Lymfurt. It extends in length something above eighty-five miles, and its greatest breadth is nearly as much. Nature has divided this province into four parts, which are subdivided into a certain number of prefectures.

Albourg, in Latin Alburgum, the capital of this government, is a large, populous, ancient city, and, next to Copenhagen, the most wealthy in the whole kingdom. It stands in latitude fifty-six degrees thirty-five minutes, in a very low situation, and is watered by two rivers called the East and West River, which run through it. It has two parish churches, an hospital with a chapel, a cathedral school, and two alms-houses. An episcopal palace was built here by Christian V. and a royal palace stands near the water-side, where the general governor resides. Here is also an exchange for merchants, and a deep and safe harbour, but its mouth is somewhat difficult. A great quantity of herrings and grain is exported from hence, as also muskets, pistols, saddles, and gloves, for which the city is famous.

The next general government is that of Wibourg, which is bounded on the north by the gulf of Lymfurt; on the east by the Categate; on the south by the governments of Arhuse and Ripen; and on the west by the government of Ripen alone. It is about forty-seven miles in breadth, and fifty-seven in length, and is esteemed the least of the four governments into which North Jutland is divided, it containing only two prefectures, in which are forty-seven manors.

The most considerable place in this government is Wibourg, in Latin Viburgum, the capital of all North Jutland. It stands in the fifty-sixth degree eighteen minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree twenty minutes east longitude, almost in the center of the country, and is seated on the lake of Asmild, which abounds with fish. This is one of the most ancient cities in the whole kingdom: before the Reformation it contained twelve churches and six convents. It is at present near two miles and a half round, and includes three parish churches, three market-places, six gates, and twenty-eight streets and lanes. The governor-general of the province resides here, and it is a bishop's see. The cathedral was burnt down in the year 1726; but proper measures were immediately taken for rebuilding it. The episcopal, or cathedral school, has six masters, with handsome salaries, and a royal foundation for poor scholars. Here is also a stately edifice, in which the provincial court for all North Jutland is held monthly. In the year 1606, this city was entirely destroyed by fire, and in 1726 the largest and best part of it was a second time burnt; but the damages it then sustained were soon repaired.

The general government of Arhuse, called by the Danes Aarhus, borders on the gulf of Wibourg, and extends about seventy-one miles in length, and from forty to forty-three miles in breadth. This government is, in some respects, preferable to any other in Jutland, and the extraordinary fertility of the soil enables the inhabitants to export annually very large quantities of grain. It is diversified with many woods, several lakes abounding with fish, and commodious bays; and is watered by several rivers and brooks. This government is divided into eight prefectures, the principal places in which are,

Arhuse, Arhusen, in the Danish tongue Aarhus, the capital of the diocese, is situated in the fifty-sixth degree ten minutes north latitude, and lies low in a fine plain between the sea and a lake, and from the latter a stream runs in a pretty wide channel through the city, dividing

it in two unequal parts. It is a large, populous, and much-frequented town, that has six gates, two churches, a chapel of ease, an episcopal palace, a cathedral school, and a well-endowed hospital. The cathedral is a large structure, a hundred and fifty paces long, ninety-six broad, and near forty-five Dutch ells in height. Before the Reformation, here were two monasteries, and one convent of nuns. The provosts of the diocese hold an assembly twice a year in the chapter-house. The harbour, which is at the mouth of the abovementioned channel, is safe and convenient, but is not very large, and sometimes has not a proper depth of water; however, the city carries on a considerable trade.

Scanderbourg is a very ancient palace, situated in a pleasant country, and surrounded on every side with woods and water. The kings of Denmark have, ever since the Christian religion was introduced into the kingdom, resided more or less in this place. In the reign of Frederic IV. the apartments were rendered more commodious; they were embellished with new ornaments, and near this structure a garden was laid out. On one side of this palace is the little town of the same name, the inhabitants of which are chiefly employed in agriculture; and in 1751, some works were set up for refining brown, red, and yellow oker, all which species of earth are very common in Jutland.

The general government of Ripen is bounded on the north by the gulf of Lymfurt, and by the dioceses of Wibourg and Arhuse, with the Little Belt on the east; on the south it joins to the dutchy of Sleswic, a part of which belongs to it; and on the west is washed by the North-Sea. It is a hundred and forty-two miles in length, and fifty-seven in breadth. This is the most extensive, but neither the most fertile nor populous, of the four general governments, into which North Jutland is divided; for it is interspersed with large barren wastes: the soil is, however, very fertile in several parts of the government. The see of Ripen was founded in 946, by the emperor Otho I. who, after a successful war with Harold king of Denmark, prevailed on him to embrace the Christian religion. This province contains four prefectures, the most considerable places in which are,

Fredericia, or Frederica, in the prefecture of Kolding, the most fertile part of the country. This is the only fortified place in all North Jutland. It is a modern town situated on the Little Belt, but though it takes up a large compass, it is far from being full of buildings and inhabitants. It first began to be built in 1651, by Frederic III. but scarce were the fortifications finished, and the town properly inhabited, when the Swedes, in 1657, took it by storm, and burnt a great part of it to the ground. Both the fortifications and the town were repaired at the conclusion of the war, and in 1682, Christian V. granted a charter which rendered Fredericia an asylum for all bankrupts, whether natives or foreigners, and allowed all the Calvinists, Papists, and Jews, who settled here, the free exercise of their religion. The fortifications of this town are in good condition, but are so large in extent, that they would require a numerous garrison to defend them. Here are two Lutheran churches, in one of which the service is alternately performed in the Danish and German languages; a Calvinist church, a popish church, a synagogue, a grammar school, and a good arsenal. A considerable quantity of tobacco is planted both within and without the walls. Here all vessels passing through the streight called the Little Belt, pay a toll.

Kolding, in Latin Coldinga, a small town on the river Trueth, or Kolding, which here discharges itself into a bay that runs about five miles from the Little Belt within land, as far as this town. It lies low between two hills, and is one of the oldest towns in the country. It has one parish church, a rich hospital, with a church belonging to it, and a grammar school: but the harbour being choaked up, is a great disadvantage to its trade. On an eminence to the north-west stands a castle, built in the year 1248, but it was greatly improved by Christian III. Christian IV. and Frederic IV. One of its greatest singularities is the giant's tower, erected by Christian IV. which is flat on the top, with a stone balustrade, and has at each of the four corners, a statue of stone,

stone, seven feet high. This castle has its particular church or chapel. But Kolding is chiefly remarkable for the royal custom-house, which stands over the water on the bridge, in order to receive toll for all foreign commodities that pass through it in carriages, and likewise for the horses and oxen that go into the dutchy of Sleswic. The number of oxen passing this way one year with another is computed at twenty thousand, and two rixdollars are paid for every head.

The city of Ripen, in Latin *Ripæ Cimbricæ*, the capital of the diocese, is situated in the fifty-fifth degree thirty-six minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree ten minutes east longitude, on the banks of the river Nibs-Aa, and, next to Wibourg, is reckoned the most antient town in North Jutland. It was formerly one of the most celebrated and flourishing cities in the North, it having four parish churches and five chapels, besides the cathedral, four convents with their churches, and between six and seven hundred free burghers. A considerable number of ships then traded from this port to Norway, England, Holland, and France, and the city had the privilege of coining money; but an end was put to this opulence, partly by several dreadful conflagrations, and partly by inundations and the ravages of war. The city and suburb are separated by the river Nibs-Aa, which entirely surrounds the former, and sometimes lays it under water. Here are two churches, besides the cathedral, which is dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and stands on an eminence. It is a large structure, and contains the monuments of king Erick III. and Christopher I. On one side of the choir is the chapter-house, in which the consistory is held: here are also the effigies of all the bishops of Ripen since the Reformation, the first excepted. St. Catharine's church is also a large edifice, said to have been built in the thirteenth century by the Dominican monks, whose convent was contiguous to it. The grammar-school, which is said to have been founded in the year 1298, is the most antient of any in Denmark: it consists of six classes, has seven masters, and a library erected in 1720. The Dominican convent is converted into a commodious hospital, and the old exchange belonging to the merchants into a town-house. Here is still a small trade carried on in grain, horned cattle, and horses; but the shallowness of the river will admit of only small vessels coming up to the city, and these only at high water.

S E C T. X.

Of South Jutland, or the Dutchy of Sleswic: its Situation, Extent, Rivers, Produce, and Inhabitants: with a Description of the principal Towns in that Dutchy, and of the Islands on its Coast.

THE dutchy of Sleswic derives its name from its capital, but is frequently termed in history South Jutland, particularly by antient writers. Some have erroneously annexed it to Holstein, and described it as a part of Germany; but Sleswic is in reality a part of Denmark, and is divided from the dutchy of Holstein, which bounds it on the south, and consequently from the German empire, by the Eider and the Lewen; on the east it is bounded by the Baltic and the rivers Kolding and Skotburg, which separate it from North Jutland; while to the west it is washed by the North Sea. Thus it extends in length from Rendsburg to Koldingen, about eighty-five miles, but its breadth is unequal, it being in some places no more than forty, though in its broadest part it is about sixty-six miles, including the two small islands of Arroë and Helgeland.

There are no high mountains in Sleswic, but only some eminences. The highest hills are near the towns of Sleswic and Apenrade. The chief rivers in this dutchy, most of which flow from east to west, are the Eider already mentioned, as dividing Denmark from Germany; the Treen, which falls into the Eider near Frederickstadt; and the Nips-Aa, which runs close by Ripen, with several smaller streams.

Providence has plentifully supplied this country with corn, cattle, and fish; and some parts of the west side

of Sleswic, lying between the continent and the islands, which are overflowed by the tides, afford a great many oysters.

The inhabitants are a mixture of Danes or Juts, Lower Saxons, and Friesians; besides which there are Hollanders settled in Frederickstadt, and Flemings in Nordstrand: whence in some places the Friesian is the common language, in others the Danish, and in others the German.

Lutheranism is the prevailing religion in this dutchy, except at Frederickstadt, where papists and Jews, besides several sects, are tolerated; and on the island of Nordstrand the Romans have a popish church and a chapel: the Calvinists are also indulged in the exercise of their religion in this dutchy, by an edict issued in 1734; but they are not very numerous.

The nobility of Sleswic have the same privileges with those of Holstein, but are not subject to the same governor; for they acknowledge the king only for their sovereign, and are under the jurisdiction of the royal provincial court at Gottorp.

The whole dutchy is divided into cities, prefectures, districts, parishes, manors, and other smaller divisions. The cities have their particular magistrates, who are entirely independant of the prefects. A governor is president or chief judge in all the towns of the dutchy.

The taxes in the country are sometimes levied by the stewards or clerks of the prefects, and sometimes by the magistrates of the districts, and by them paid to the king's receiver at Rendsburg. In every prefect there is also a steward or administrator, who takes care of the royal revenues, the repairs of the roads, the preservation of the woods, and the like.

The principal places in the dutchy of Sleswic are,

Apenrade, or Abenrade, in the prefecture of the same name, which is one of the best and most flourishing towns in the country, and is continually improving in beauty and extent. It is situated in the fifty-fourth degree fifty-two minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree seven minutes east longitude, at the bottom of a deep open bay, which runs from the Baltic a good way into the land, and is surrounded on three sides with high mountains. It has a safe and commodious harbour, but not deep enough for ships of burthen to come up close to the bridge. Most of the inhabitants, who are famed for ship-building, are in good circumstances; and though the town has frequently suffered by fire, they, by their industry, have repaired all the damage it has sustained.

In the prefecture of Tundern is the island of Sylt, which is nineteen miles in length, but very unequal in its breadth. The soil is not fertile, nor does it produce either wood or turf, on which account the inhabitants are obliged to supply themselves with fuel from the continent. They subsist chiefly by navigation, agriculture, grazing, and knitting; and are such expert seamen, that the trading towns are glad to employ them on board their ships; but as they are very sensible of their abilities, few will serve as common sailors, but expect the pay as masters or mates. Both sexes are very tenacious of their antient dress. The island contains four parishes, and had formerly an harbour at the north angle, but it is at present quite choaked up with sand.

The islands of Alsen and Arroë contain the prefectures of Sonderburg and Norburg.

The island of Alsen is situated in the Baltic near the continent, and is separated from it by a narrow strait called Alsenfund. This island is about nineteen miles in length, and is about four miles in breadth. It lies under the fifty-fifth degree of north latitude. The soil, which is every where very fertile, yields all kinds of grain except wheat, and plenty of fruit. It has also several fine woods that abound with game, and lakes of fresh water, which afford a variety of fish. In the prefecture of Sonderburg, in the south part of the island, is the town of the same name, which is of a middling size, and stands on the acclivity of a very rugged hill that renders the streets very uneven. This town is lately much improved in its buildings, yet it has but one church, which stands on an eminence almost without the town; and adjoining to it is an alms-house, built out of the ruins of an old convent. The harbour is esteemed one

of the best in Denmark, and most of the inhabitants are mariners. The king's palace, which stands at the entrance of the harbour, is both strong and spacious; it is a quadrangular structure, fortified after the antient manner with round bastions. On the east side of this castle is a round tower, in the lower part of which king Christian II. was imprisoned for twelve years. This castle is the residence of the king's prefect, and has a beautiful chapel.

The island of Aroe, which is at the distance of about three miles from Funen, and about twelve miles to the north-east of Alsén, is about fourteen miles in length, and about three miles in breadth. It was formerly very woody; but has been entirely cleared, in order to render it fit for tillage. It has no deer, but abounds in hares and wild fowl. It has two good harbours, that in the large bay, at the entrance of which two castles formerly stood, one on each side; and that of the little town of Arroes-Kiopping, which is sheltered by the little island of Deyeroe, that lies opposite to the harbour. Here is great plenty of all kinds of vegetables, especially Danish cummin, cabbages, and onions. The inhabitants are a mixture of peasants and sea-faring people. With respect to spiritual affairs, this island is in the diocese of Funen; but, with regard to civil affairs, is included in the duchy of Sleswic; and, by virtue of an edict published in 1750, is under a particular court of judicature.

Flensburg is in the prefecture of the same name on the continent, and is a pretty large well-built town. It has a low situation, and is surrounded on three sides by mountains, and on the fourth lies the famous gulph called Flensburgerwieck, which runs ninety-five miles from the Baltic into the land. The hills on both sides of the gulph form a secure harbour, with a depth of water sufficient for the largest ships, which are at present unloaded at the quay; but this was formerly done close to the warehouses. At that time the trade of this town was very considerable, but it is at present greatly decayed, for the commerce of the Flensburghers to Norway has been clogged with great difficulties, and that to Copenhagen and other parts of Denmark entirely lost, they being prohibited from exporting thither any silk, cloths, woollen stuffs, wines, and brandy. Flensburg is a long narrow town, extending above four miles in length from the north gate to St. John's gate: it has twelve lanes, besides the high street, and six gates; and is divided into twenty-two quarters. Most of the houses are spacious and strongly built. Here are three German parish churches, one Danish church, an orphan-house, and a good school; also an alms-house, with a chapel, that was formerly a convent of Grey Friars, and in which fifty poor persons are comfortably maintained. By the water-side is a warehouse for merchants. The north and south market-places are both spacious, and the latter adorned with a fountain. With St. John's gate is a pleasant suburb facing the harbour called St. Jurgen, the greatest part of which belongs to the alms-houses.

The castle of Gottorp, or Gottorf, stands in the midst of a small lake, and is built in the form of an oblong square. Some derive its name from Gotteldorf, or God's village, it originally belonging to the bishops of Sleswic, and was appropriated to a pious use. A rampart encompasses the first court, and the gate of the castle is of a fine blue stone as hard as marble. On the north side of this structure is a bridge over the lake two hundred paces in length, at the end of which a pleasant walk, between rows of trees, leads to a fine garden, adorned with cascades, fountains, and other water-works; particularly in a large basin is a statue of Hercules combating the hydra, whose seven heads spout water. On the north is a parterre in the form of a crescent, divided into compartments, and embellished with the busts of several kings and princes. Before the house is a level piece of ground, about a hundred and fifty paces long, divided into three parts; those on the sides being two fine parterres, and that in the middle having a large basin in the center, with fine water-works. From thence you ascend to different terraces, one above another, set round with statues, busts, and other ornaments. The highest terrace exhibits a most delightful prospect of the castle, the surrounding lake, and a fine country; and, on the other

hand, of a noble orangery, and the neighbouring park, which is four or five miles in circuit, and well stocked with deer.

Sleswic, or Schleswig, in Latin Slesvicum, is the capital of the duchy, and is supposed to derive its name from the Wiecke, or gulph of Schley. It is situated in a most delightful country, in the fifty-fourth degree fifty-one minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree fifty minutes east longitude. Its form is very irregular, but has some resemblance to a crescent, and is about half a Danish mile in length. The city is divided into three parts, Old Sleswic, Lollfuss, which is a long street leading from the town to the castle of Gottorp just described, and Fredericburg, formerly called Kratzenberg, which lies at the south extremity of the town. In the Old Town is only one church, which is the cathedral, dedicated to St. Peter. This is a grand structure, that makes a good appearance both within and without. It has however no steeple, though a very noble foundation of hewn stone has been laid for one. Not far from the cathedral is the orphan-house, which was founded in the year 1714; and in the great market-place stand the town house and the Grey Friars convent. On the north side of the city on St. Michael's hill stands a church called by the name of that saint; and in Fredericburg is Trinity church. On the east side of the city, on the other side of the Fish-bridge, lies the Holm, as it is called, where stands the famous convent of St. John, which was founded for ladies of noble families, and ten nuns, including the abbess, now reside in it. This city has been several times pillaged, burnt, and razed to the ground; and in 1447 was entirely destroyed by fire. It was, however, a flourishing town after all these misfortunes, till the year 1713, when the ducal court being removed from Sleswic, it fell to decay; and though the governor and the state officers still reside there, these advantages are not an equivalent for the above loss; nor is it capable of carrying on any great foreign trade. The mouth of the Sley being choaked up, at present many houses in the city are uninhabited.

Fredericstادت is not a large, though it is a regular and well-built town, of a square form, situated between the rivers Eider and Treen. Its streets are kept very clean, and in some of them are planted fine rows of lime trees. Some Dutch Arminians, who quitted Holland immediately after the synod of Dort, founded this town, and called their settlement by the name of Frederick IV. who was then duke of Sleswic. Half of the magistracy is of the Arminian, and the other half of the Lutheran persuasion: the Calvinists also assemble in the Arminian church; but the most substantial traders and merchants in this town are Mennonites. Here are also some Quakers and Jews, who have a synagogue in the town. The inhabitants subsist by silk and woollen manufactures, navigation, and commerce. Instead of a wall Fredericstادت is encompassed by a moat, with large trees growing on its banks.

The island of Femeren, Femern, or Femarn, in Latin Imbria, Fimbria, or Cimbria-parva, lies in the Baltic, near the coast of Germany, in the fifty-fourth degree fifty-six minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree twelve minutes east longitude, and is separated from Holstein by the narrow freights called Femern-sound. It is generally computed to be about fifteen miles in length, its breadth is something above six miles, and its circumference about forty-eight. The soil is in general very fertile, and yields plentiful crops of wheat, barley, and peas; but affords no other game besides hares. The greatest inconvenience this island labours under is the scarcity of springs and rivulets; for in dry summers the inhabitants are extremely distressed for want of fresh water. There are about forty villages in this island, of which Denschendorf is of the largest extent; but Lemkendorf is the best peopled. This island has suffered extremely by the devastations of war, particularly in 1419, when it was ravaged with the most inhuman barbarity by king Erick, of Pomerania, and most of the inhabitants put to the sword. Femern at present belongs to the king of Denmark; but whether it be comprehended in the duchy of Sleswic, or has been always a distinct territory, is disputed.

The

The island of Helgeland, also called Heiligland, is situated in the North Sea, in the fifty-fourth degree twenty-eight minutes latitude, about thirty-six miles from the mouth of the Elbe, and at the same distance from that of the Eider. This island has been several times greatly damaged by being overflowed by the sea, and even a considerable part of it has been long swallowed up by the waves; but the last inundation, which happened in 1649, left only a small part of the island remaining; the basis of which is a solid rock that appears round it, the soil being there washed away by the sea. This little spot has, however, two districts, the high land and the downs, and each of them its sub-divisions. The whole circuit of the high land is about nine hundred and forty rods, and the downs are nearly of the same circumference. The soil in the high land is red, and rather clayey than sandy, and from two and a half to four feet in depth; yet its fertility is greater than one would imagine, for it produces barley and oats, though not a sufficient quantity for the subsistence of the inhabitants. Here are very few trees, except some cherry trees and raspberry bushes; nor are there many vegetables, for the inhabitants cannot spare time to cultivate them, they being very cheaply supplied with all kinds of vegetables and fruit from Hamburg and other places. The high lands have pasture sufficient for no more than about sixty cows, and as many sheep on the highest part. The Hamburgers have erected a light-house, which is supplied at their expence with pit-coal; the descent is very steep, but is made so easy by about a hundred and eighty steps, that a bullock may be driven up and down. The low land is secured by a mole, to prevent its being

entirely destroyed by the sea. Since the year 1727 the downs have been separated by a channel, which is three quarters of a mile in breadth, and of a sufficient depth for pretty large vessels. The Helgelanders are descended from the ancient Friesians, and have their particular laws and manners, still retaining their Friesian names and customs, and never removing to settle in any other country. Their chief food is fish, and a kind of gruel thickened with oatmeal; and their constant employment at sea renders them exceeding hardy and intrepid in all weathers. Their number amounts to about two thousand; while the men are employed at sea, the women are no less diligent and industrious on shore: for as there is neither plough, carriage, nor horse on the whole island, the women dig the land, and sow, harrow, reap, thresh the corn, and grind it with hand-mills; and, besides these laborious employments, are indefatigable in performing all other domestic business. The species of fish caught by the inhabitants about this island, and disposed of at Hamburg, Bremen, and other places, are cod, haddock, ling, several kinds of flat fish, mackerel, thorn-back, whittings, lobsters, &c. and the inhabitants being very skilful pilots, are hired to conduct ships bound to the Elbe, Weser, and Eider, for which they are generally well rewarded; but one-tenth of their profit and some other duties are payable to the king: this island was annexed to the crown of Denmark in the year 1714.

We shall now return to the south of Europe, and visit the countries to the west of Poland, and beginning with Hungary and Transylvania, &c. shall proceed to the German empire.

C H A P. VIII.

OF HUNGARY, including HUNGARY PROPER, TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, and DALMATIA.

S E C T. I.

Its Names, Boundaries, and Extent. Its Climate, Mountains, Plains, Lakes, Rivers, Minerals, and Fossils; Plants, and Animals.

HUNGARY, the ancient Pannonia, received its present name from the Hungarians, a race of the Huns, a Scythian or Tartar nation, who in the ninth century took possession of the country; but the Hungarians themselves call it Magyar Orszag: the Slavonians give it the name of Wergierska; by the Germans it is called Ungern, and Hungerland; and by the Italians Ungharia.

The name of Hungary is used both in a limited and extensive sense. In the former, this country is bounded on the south by Servia and the river Drave, which separates it from Slavonia; on the east by Walachia and Transylvania; on the north by the Carpathian mountains, which separate it from Poland; and on the west by Moravia, Austria, and Stiria. But in its more extensive sense it comprehends Slavonia, Dalmatia, Bosnia, Servia, and Transylvania, lying between the forty-fourth degree forty minutes and the forty-ninth degree north latitude, and between the sixteenth and twenty-fifth degree fifty minutes east longitude from London.

The air of Hungary is very unhealthy, especially to foreigners; which is generally thought to proceed in a great measure from the sudden alteration of the weather; the days being excessive hot in summer, and the nights intolerably cold; whence it has been called the Church-yard of the Germans, from the great mortality which usually happens among the German forces when they take the field. The noxious vapours which arise from the many swamps and morasses, are also considered as

another great cause of this unhealthfulness; but these noxious exhalations are less common in the mountainous and more barren parts than in the south.

The chief mountains of Hungary are the Crapac, or the Carpathian: these at the foot are overgrown with common trees, higher up with very large ones, and at a greater interval, which forms as it were a third region, with brush wood: the summit is a chaos of frightful crags and precipices, continually covered with snow, and lakes of very transparent water lying between them.

However, the inner part of the country is far from being mountainous; for the land along the Danube, from Presburg to Belgrade, is almost one continued plain, of near three hundred miles in length: there are besides many other large and fruitful plains in Hungary, very little of it being taken up with mountains and woods.

Though this country lies at a distance from the sea, it is well watered by lakes and rivers. The most considerable of the former are the lake Balaton, or Plattenfee, which is about forty miles in length, and lies on the west side of Hungary, between the Drave and the Danube; and the New Siedlersee, or Lacus Peisonius, which is about twenty-eight miles in length.

The principal rivers of Hungary are, first, the Danube, which rising in Swabia, runs eastward through Germany, Hungary, and Turkey, after receiving sixty navigable rivers, and above a hundred and twenty in the whole, discharges itself by several mouths with such violence into the Black Sea, that both the stream and water are perceptible in it for several miles distance.

The Drave, which issues out of Stiria, separates Hungary and Slavonia, and at last falls into the Danube, near the tower of Darda.

The Teys, or Tibiscus, which rises in the Carpathian mountains, and, while among them, has a rapid and clear

clear stream; but afterwards becomes flow and turbid. It receives several smaller rivers, and falls into the Danube at a considerable distance above Belgrade. No river in Europe equals this in plenty of fish.

The Araba, or Raab, which rising in Stiria, enters the west side of Hungary, and falls into the Danube near Raab.

The Gran, or Granus, which rises in the Carpathian mountains, and running to the southward, falls into the Danube near the city of Gran.

The Wag, which also rises in the north of Hungary, and discharges itself into the Danube a little above Comorra.

Most of these rivers are well stocked with fish, which in some parts of Hungary are so plentiful that they feed their hogs with them, and in other places it is said that a thousand carps have been bought for the value of a crown.

This country abounds also with many salutary hot baths, and several springs that have very uncommon qualities; among which is a spring of vitriol-water, near Shmolnitz, which in a short time gives the appearance of copper to plates of iron; and there are others of so poisonous a nature, that an animal's drinking of them is followed by immediate death.

With respect to the minerals of this country, it is observable that pure gold ore is never found in the mines, though they yield gold ore with a mixture of silver or lead; and on the other hand, no silver is dug up here that does not contain some gold. A quintal of the richest ore, according to Mr. Keyser, yields thirty-five ounces of silver; but some is refined, especially at Cremnitz, that does not yield above two ounces out of a hundred weight, but the ore that yields the least silver generally produces the most gold. There are also mines of copper, vitriol, iron, lead, quicksilver, antimony, cinabar, yellow orpiment, sulphur, marcasite, rock-salt, salt-petre, magnets, asbestos, and gems, though the latter are very different from the oriental; with alabaster, and quarries of marble.

The southern part of this country is so delightful, that a traveller has said of it, "Out of Hungary there is no living, or if there be living it is not life."

The level country produces esculent plants, tobacco, saffron, asparagus, melons, hops, corn, pulse, millet, delicious wine, and a great variety of fruits.

The animals of Hungary are chiefly fine horses, mostly mouse-coloured, and of which incredible numbers are exported; mules, asses, buffaloes, cows, sheep, goats, swine, and many species of wild beasts, deer, chamois-goats, wild boars, bears, wolves, and lynxes.

Besides the sheep common in most countries, Hungary affords a particular species, that have large twisted horns, generally about two feet in length. These are kept in separate flocks, and great numbers of them are annually sent to Vienna.

Among the birds are pheasants, partridges, woodcocks, &c. The number of the wild fowl is, indeed, incredible; and it is not uncommon, in such flocks, for some of them to live to a good old age.

S E C T. II.

Of the different Origin of the Inhabitants: their Languages, Persons, Dress, and Manner of Travelling: their Exports, Imports, and Coin.

THE inhabitants are of different origin. The true Hungarians, as we have already intimated, are the descendants of that fierce people called by the same name, who, by force of arms, seated themselves here in the year 888; and these, though more civil than their ancestors, still shew some traces of their Scythian extraction. Another part of the inhabitants are of the Slavonian race, and this includes the Bohemians, Croats, Servians, Rascians, and Vandals, who inhabit the east and northern parts of Hungary. These, indeed, are found all over the country, and seem to have been settled here from the remotest antiquity. The German nations are the Austrians, Stirians, Bavarians, Franks, Swa-

bians, and Saxons, who seem to have entered Hungary much about the time when the Saxons seated themselves in Transylvania; but war, commerce, and the fruitfulness of the country, have drawn hither other Germans, who have considerably increased since Hungary became subject to the house of Austria. The Walachians, who inhabit the country next to Transylvania and Walachia, seem to be the descendants of the Romans that settled in Dacia. Among the foreigners are the Greeks, who removed hither for the sake of a more advantageous commerce; the Jews, who were formerly much more numerous than they are at present; the Turks and Zingari, who are a wandering people of very uncertain origin; many of these are smiths and musicians. Thus the inhabitants must have been anciently of different dispositions, though, by frequent intercourse, they now resemble each other. They are, for the most part, of a sanguine choleric temper; the nobility are numerous, and both in their dress and tables are fond of pomp and magnificence, yet apply themselves to learning and rural improvements, but more to war, hunting, and martial exercises.

There are four common languages in Hungary; the Hungarian, which is of Scythian origin, without the least affinity to any of the European tongues, and one unvaried dialect. The Hungarians, in writing, use the Roman characters; but the German has its different dialects according to the different nations of Germans settled here. The Slavonian, which derives its origin from the Sarmatian, is divided into the Bohemian, Croatian, Vandalian, Rascian, and Russian dialects. The Walachian tongue is allied to the Italian, and formed by a mixture of Latin and Slavonic. The Latin is not only spoken by the literati and gentry, but also by the commonalty. The Zingarians have a speech composed of a corruption of the Hungarian, Slavonic, Walachian, and other languages.

The Hungarians are well proportioned, of a good stature, and have tolerable complexions. On their heads they wear fur caps, and they have close-bodied coats girt about them with a sash, over which they wear a kind of cloak or mantle, that comes no lower than the hips, and is so contrived as to buckle under one arm, that the right hand may be always at liberty. The colours they most affect in their cloaths are red, green, and blue, the latter of which is most common. The men shave their beards, but leave whiskers on the upper lip; and besides a broad sword, the usual arms of an Hungarian are, an iron mace with a round head, and a kind of hatchet. The young gentlemen have frequently feathers in their caps.

The Hungarian ladies are much handsomer than those of Austria; and the beauties of Vienna chiefly come from this country. They are generally very fair and well shaped, and their dress extremely becoming. The lady Wortley Montague describes one of these ladies, as in a gown of scarlet velvet, lined and faced with sables, and made exact to her shape, the skirt falling to her feet. The sleeves are straight to their arms, and the stays buttoned before with two rows of little buttons of gold, pearl, or diamonds. On their heads they wear a tassel of gold, that hangs low on one side, lined with sables, or some other fine fur; and their behaviour is extremely polite and agreeable.

The women's dress in the mine-towns is not unbecoming; they wear knots of ribbons on their shift sleeves, and others hanging down their backs, but the peasants and lower sort of people dress very meanly. Among the latter, the men are very fond of wearing a furred mantle, and their dress is generally no more than a plain sheep's skin, with a cap and boots of the same. Most of the women have boots, and many of them a long furred gown: they have a kind of shifts of very coarse linen next their skin, with a girdle round it at the waist; and their head-dress is a piece of white linen with two lappets hanging down behind.

In the towns of Hungary the entertainment travellers meet with is not to be found fault with; but in the country it is frequently so bad, that besides the want of good provisions, there is scarce straw to lie upon; and where beds are to be had, they are so short, that one would

think

think the Hungarians slept in the posture in which they ride. They generally keep hogs, of which they make bacon, which is the common food of the Hungarian peasants. The hogs, geese, and fowls, live in the same apartment with their owners.

As Hungary is plentifully watered with fine rivers, the usual way of travelling in summer is by water; and where they have not this convenience, an open chariot drawn by two, three, or four horses a-breast, carries the traveller with great expedition over this flat country. As the air is extremely cold in winter, notwithstanding its southern situation, travellers in that season have a coach fixed upon a sledge, which is drawn by horses with great expedition over the ice and snow. They have a very fleet breed of horses for riding, and never dock the tails, which are considered as a great ornament. Where the roads lie through the woods, travellers are in danger from the wild beasts, and especially the wolves, which in some places are very numerous.

The most common distempers in Hungary are the gout, in its several species, and the fever; the last of which is even called the Hungarian sickness. The first symptoms of this disease in Hungary are nodes or tubercles on the hands and arms, which if rubbed in time with vinegar, salt, and garlic, till they disappear, an end is put to the progress of the disease. The plague also comes from Turkey, and here spreads its contagion.

The burghers follow arts, manufactures, and trade, but the last is almost entirely engrossed by the Greeks. From Hungary is exported excellent wine, and particularly tokay, saffron, oil, metals, minerals, cattle, leather, wool, tallow, and wax; and its imports are spices, tin, silk, velvets, cloths, and other foreign goods.

The pieces of coin current in Hungary, are, a heller, which in Upper Hungary goes for the sixth part of a grosch, and in Lower Hungary for the fifth; a groschel, the fourth part of a grosch; a kreutzer (a German coin) the third part of a grosch, and the sixtieth of a Spanish gulden; the pulgrotz, half a grosch, and the fortieth of a gulden; the siebner, worth seven kreutzers; a siebentehner, worth seventeen kreutzers; a half gulden, worth two shillings and four-pence, English; an ungrisch gulden, worth seventeen groschen and a half; a Rhenish gulden, worth twenty groschen, which, in Upper Hungary, are worth a hundred and twenty, and in Lower Hungary, a hundred ungrisch; a thaler is equal to two Rhenish guildens; the ducats are of two sorts, the Cremnitz ducat is worth four guilders four groschen, but a Transylvanian goes only for three guilders, each guilder worth two shillings and four-pence, English.

S E C T. III.

Of the Religion and Learning of the Hungarians.

THE Christian religion was first established in Hungary in the tenth century, when, in the year 969, or 975, Geyza, prince of the country, was baptized; and this religion made great progress under his son and successor Stephen, whose zeal gained him the title of apostle and saint.

In 1523, the Reformation began by Martin Cyriacus first preaching the doctrine of the gospel in this country; but it had before made its way into Transylvania. From that time great numbers of Hungarians went to study in Germany, and at their return were considered as the disciples of Luther. Soon after the opinions of Zuinglius, in relation to the sacrament, were made known in Hungary, and a little after the sentiments of Calvin were embraced by great numbers. But from the time Hungary became subject to the house of Austria, and the Jesuits got footing in that kingdom, the protestants underwent many severe trials; especially in the beginning of the seventeenth century. Under Ferdinand III. the protestants were deprived of several churches, and of more under the emperor Leopold, in whose time it was enacted at the diet of Sopron, or Oldenburg, that the reformed should not possess more than two churches in each palatinate. Nor could their enemies rest here till they had driven them out of all the churches that had not been

expressly mentioned in the twenty-sixth article of the diet of Sopron, and accordingly above three hundred were actually taken from them. The Vandals too had six churches, and now are without so much as one place where divine worship is performed in their own language.

Mr. Keyssler observes, that six or seven thousand of the inhabitants of Schemnitz, which constitute two-thirds of the city, profess Lutheranism, and yet the magistrates are always Romans; but at Cremnitz the magistracy is shared between the two religions, though no protestant is capable of employment in the imperial mines. In Upper Hungary he says the Lutherans are very numerous, especially in the country, and yet in some places they are forcibly driven into the Romish churches like so many sheep; but at Pilsen, which is not far from Schemnitz, the popish clergy and the protestant inhabitants are so conformable, that the priests read mass in the churches belonging to the protestants, and these in their turn sing Lutheran hymns in the Romish churches.

It is worthy of remark, that the protestants have generally more churches allowed them in those countries that remain under the dominion of the Turks, than where they are subject to the emperor; for on paying the tribute imposed on them, every one enjoys his own religion without molestation. Though the Romans scarcely constitute one-fourth of the inhabitants of Hungary in general, and do not pay above one-sixth part of the taxes, they are incessantly contriving to impose new grievances on the rest of their countrymen. The protestants are not possessed of a single printing-press, either in Hungary or Transylvania; besides, the importation of Bibles, and all books relating to the doctrinal points of their religion, are strictly prohibited; and before an Hungarian student is permitted to go to a foreign university, he must obtain a licence, or passport, from the Imperial governor of the country. Their schools are confined to the syntax, and no teachers of the sciences allowed among them; except their being indulged since the year 1751 with a college at Oedenburg, and a seminary at Eperes.

At the head of the Romish church are two archbishops and nine bishops, nominated by the queen, and confirmed by the pope. In Dalmatia, Croatia, and Slavonia, none but the papists are qualified to hold lands. The Rascians, Russians, and Walachians, profess the Greek church, which has been tolerated since the year 1690, by the emperor Leopold and other kings. The Baptists and Mennonists are chiefly settled in the neighbourhood of Presburgh; but the Jews are dispersed in most of the considerable towns, though under the burthen of paying double taxes of all kinds.

Learning among the Romans is principally cultivated by the Jesuits, who in the universities of Tirnau, Buda, Raab, and Caschau, are the professors of divinity, philosophy, mathematics, rhetoric, and other sciences, which they also teach in several colleges: but the *patres piarum scholarum* only teach polite literature. The Benedictines, Paulines, and other orders of monks apply themselves after their manner to learning in their several convents. The Lutherans and Calvinists, after having laid the foundation of the sciences in their schools, go, if they can obtain a licence for that purpose, to the universities in Germany, Holland, and Switzerland: but very narrow bounds have been lately prescribed to their studies. The Christians of the Greek church also begin to shew a greater inclination to learning than formerly. The law was antiently taught only in private; but at present there is a public professor appointed for it in the university of Tirnau, and even a particular college erected for that purpose at Erlau.

S E C T. IV.

The History of the Hungarians; the Manner in which their Kings were crowned; the Arms of Hungary; the States of the Kingdom; the public Offices, Forces, and Courts of Justice.

WE shall here give a concise view of the history of this country. It appears that its antient western inhabitants were called Pannonians, and the northern Jazygians.

Jazygians: but the Romans, having reduced Pannonia, kept it almost four hundred years, till in the fourth century the Vandals drove them out of it, and held it forty years; but in 395, when they advanced towards Gaul, the Goths took possession of their settlement; but these were also, in their turn, obliged to resign their new possessions to the Huns, who had likewise driven them from their antient habitations.

In the year 888, the Huns, under the name of Hungarians, made a second irruption into Pannonia, as auxiliaries to Arnulph emperor of the West, and Leo emperor of the East, against the Bulgarians and Sclavonians, whom they reduced. They had seven commanders, and both Germany and Italy afterwards felt the terrible effects of their ferocity; but by degrees their manners became more civilized, especially towards the latter end of the tenth century, when Geyza, their prince, embraced the Christian religion, and his son Stephen, in 997, became the first king of Hungary, and, as hath been already observed, completed the establishment of that religion, annexed Transylvania as a province to Hungary, and after his death was canonized. After him followed a succession of twenty kings, natives of the country, the last of whom was Andrew III. who died in the year 1301. On this followed a succession of twelve foreign kings, the last of whom, who was Lewis II. fell in an unsuccessful battle against the Turks. The kingdom next devolved to the house of Austria, under whom arose a most bloody intestine war, which lasted for a long time, in which the country was equally ravaged by the Turks and Austrians. In 1687 Hungary became an hereditary kingdom to the archducal house of Austria; and it was agreed at the diet in 1722, that in case of failure of male heirs, the princesses should also succeed. Accordingly the emperor Charles VI. dying in the year 1740, his eldest daughter Maria Theresa ascended the throne, and was crowned in 1741. Her majesty is conformed to the present emperor Francis Stephen, whom the states of the kingdom, in 1741, also invested with the joint sovereignty.

A late author observes, that the Hungarians have contended with their princes about their rights and privileges, till the Imperial eagle has decided the controversy by devouring both, and left them only the shadow of their antient constitution; and that their states or diet assemble like the parliament of France, for form sake, or rather to record the arbitrary decrees of the emperor, and by signing their consent to them, take off the odium of every destructive scheme from the court, and place it on themselves: by which means their chains are probably now so firmly riveted, that their slavery will be everlasting, unless another family should be elected to the Imperial crown.

At the coronation of the Hungarian kings, the people antiently assembled in a plain called Rackes, near Pest, where the bishops, the nobility, and the representatives of the several counties and cities, having unanimously approved of the person proposed for their king, who was usually the next in succession; he was conducted to Stuhlweissenburg, or Alba Regalis, where he was presented to the people by the palatine, who demanded three times whether they approved of the new elected king? and they having expressed their consent, he put a drawn sword into the hand of the new king, who brandished it towards the east, west, north, and south. He was then attended to the great church, where the archbishop of Gran holding the royal robes in his hand, asked the people if they were satisfied with the king elect, and were willing to become his subjects; and receiving an answer in the affirmative, he proceeded to perform the usual rites observed at the coronation of their kings; after which the prelates and nobility carried the arms and other relics of king Stephen I. before the new king in a splendid procession to the palace. The crown of Stephen is still preserved at Presburg with great veneration, and no prince is allowed to be duly crowned with any other: the Hungarians in general believing that the fate of their nation depends on their carefully preserving it, and therefore in all their calamities they have taken care to convey it to a place of safety; nor have the Turks been less solli-

citous to make themselves masters of it, from the opinion that the Hungarians would make no scruple of paying their allegiance to the grand seignior, could he but once cause king Stephen's crown to be placed on his head.

The kings of Hungary are by the laws styled catholic and apostolic, on account of the zeal which Stephen I. shewed in the conversion of the Hungarians. The regalia, which consist of the golden crown, made in the eleventh century, the sceptre, king Stephen's sword and mantle, gloves and shoes, with the silver cross, the mark of his apostolic function, are kept in the castle of Presburg; and in that city is still performed the coronation of the king by the archbishop of Gran.

The arms of the kingdom are, a shield longitudinally divided; the right field gules, divided by four bars argent. The left quarter is also gules, with an archiepiscopal cross argent, standing on a triple hill vert.

The states of Hungary are divided into four classes.

To the first belong the prelates, who direct all religious matters, and precede all other persons, except the governor of the kingdom, who gives place only to the archbishop of Gran. These are the archbishops of Gran and Kolocza; the former is primate of Hungary, chief secretary and chancellor legate of the papal see, and prince of the holy Roman empire. He alone crowns the king or queen, is perpetual count of the Gespanchaft, or county of Gran, creates even noblemen, and never takes an oath himself, but his official swears in his stead. Under him are the six bishops of Erlau, Nitra, Raab, Vatz, Funfkirchen, and Veszprim; to whom may also be added the Greek bishops of Buda and Muncatz, who are united to the Roman church. Next to him is the archbishop of Kolocza, with the following suffragans: the bishop of Bats, which is however annexed to the archbishopric of Great Waradin, Csanad, Zagrab, Sirmia, Bosnia, Transylvania, and Bakow in Walachia. These bishops have a double character, and all of them, except the bishop of Bats, are perpetual counts of the counties in which they reside, and have also a seat in the diet. Besides these are the abbots, who are ten in number, and nine probsts.

To the second class belongs the magnates, or barons, the principal of whom are the great barons of the kingdom, who also hold the chief offices: these are the palatine, who is the principal, and in many cases acts as sovereign; the court judge; the ban or viceroy of Dalmatia, Croatia, and Slavonia; the governor of Transylvania; the treasurer; the great cup-bearer; the steward of the household; the master of the horse; the lord-chamberlain; the captain of the yeomen of the guards; and the grand marshal of the court. To these may be added, the inferior ban, or counts, and barons.

To the third class belong the gentry, some of whom have noble manors, and others only the privileges of nobles.

To the fourth class belong the royal free cities, which are summoned to the diet, and are not subject to the counts, but hold immediately of the king, and have a council of their own, in which a city judge and burgo-master usually preside.

The diet is summoned by writ from the sovereign every three years, to meet whenever his majesty's service or the public welfare require it. Accordingly on the day appointed the lords spiritual and temporal personally appear in the chamber of the magistrates; but the towns and gentry send two deputies, who meet in the states-chamber. The states lay their representations before the king or queen, who also refers to them such articles of public concern as require their assent.

The public offices by which the government is administered are the following:

The Hungary office, which is at Vienna, and has a secretary of state at its head. This office expedites the royal edicts in municipal, religious, and judicial affairs for Hungary, and the incorporated kingdoms of Croatia, Dalmatia, and Slavonia. To this office belong all matters relating to the king, and wholly dependent on his pleasure. All who stand in need of a personal audience

dience of the queen, must first acquaint this office with it. In other respects it has very little connection with the kingdom, its principal business being to execute the sovereign's pleasure.

The stadtholder's or governors council resides at Presburg, and, besides the governor, who is president, consists of twenty-two counsellors, whom the king chooses at pleasure from among the prelates, nobility, and gentry. In Hungary and the incorporated countries it superintends the civil concerns of the towns as regulated by the laws of the land. It is subject to no other office; but when it has any thing to lay before the king applies immediately to his majesty.

The royal exchequer is divided into the Hungarian and mine-chambers, and takes care of the royal estates, incomes, and dues. This exchequer is held at Presburg, and has a president and eighteen counsellors. Under it is the office at Caschau, besides eight provincial commissaries for collecting the contributions. The mine-chamber is held at Cremnitz, and manages all affairs belonging to mines and coinage. It receives orders from the treasury at Vienna; and under it are the mine-chambers of Schemnitz, Neusohl in the *gespanschaft* of Zip, and at Konigsberg.

The public revenues consist of contributions, customs, mines, salt-works belonging to the crown royal domains, and escheats, which abundantly answer the expences of the court and defence of the frontiers.

The kingdom of Hungary can easily raise an army of a hundred thousand men, keeping fifty thousand in pay, and the provinces furnishing the same number. Their horse are denominated hussars; these are extremely expert horsemen. They use very short stirrups, and sitting with their knees high, rise up when they make a stroke with their scimitars, to give the greater force to their blows. Their horses are fleet and well managed, but too small; and in a regular engagement are far inferior to the English horse, whose weight alone will bear them down.

Their foot are denominated heyducs, or foot hussars; these brandishing their naked swords, put themselves into a hundred terrible postures, advancing, retreating, turning, and winding about with great activity, singing all the while.

Justice is administered in civil affairs in the name of the sovereign, after the manner prescribed by the laws and customs of the kingdom. Suits are carried from the courts of the smaller towns, either to the court of the *gespanschaft*, or county, when it is a free town, or to the lord of the manor when it belongs to any particular lordship. In the royal free cities the first hearing is before the judge of the town, the second before the council, from which there is an appeal to the treasurer. The mine-court in the free mine towns is distinct from the town court, and takes cognizance of only such affairs as relate to the mines: the mine judge presides, but an appeal lies from him to the commission-court of the mine towns.

Inferior noble courts are held by the lord of the manor in each county for determining causes relating to the commonalty, and where noblemen are concerned, by the court judges or judge of the nobles, and the vice-*gespan*; but a cause may be carried from these to the county court, and afterwards to the *Tabula regia* and *septemviralis*. The middle noble court meets at Tirnau, Guntz, Eperies, and Depretzen, and has the trial of all causes in which two or more counties are concerned, and may from thence be removed to the *Tabula regia* and *septemviralis*. The upper noble court, which resides at Pest, is divided into the *Tabula regia* and the *Tabula septemviralis*, and not only decides causes brought hither by appeal, but also other important suits relating to the nobility. In the first presides the king's representative; in the second the count palatine, or, in his absence, either the court judge or the treasurer. The *Tabula septemviralis* is thus called from its formerly consisting of seven persons; but Charles VI. made an addition of eight more. It takes cognizance only of such causes as are referred to it from the *Tabula regia* examining them, and making the necessary amendments.

S E C T. V.

Of the Divisions of Hungary, with a particular Account of Upper Hungary, a Description of a remarkable Cavern, and of the principal Towns of that Division.

HUNGARY Proper is divided into Upper and Lower Hungary; here some give the name of Upper Hungary to that part which lies between the Danube and Poland, and call that which lies below the Danube Lower Hungary; while others drawing a line from the county of Lip, to the junction of the Banat of Tameswaer, and the county of Sirmi, call that part which lies to the east of the line Upper Hungary, and that towards the west Lower Hungary. With respect to its government by the great juridical courts, it is divided into four large circles, and fifty-two *gespanschafts*, or counties, called by the Hungarians *varmegye*. These counties are small provinces under counts, viscounts, and assessors, who in the name of the sovereign hold provincial assemblies or diets.

We shall begin with Upper Hungary, which forms the east part of the kingdom, and borders on Poland, Transylvania, and Walachia; consisting of two circles, that on this side the Teisse, and that on the farther side of that river. The former of these circles contains eleven counties, and is inhabited by Hungarians, Bohemians, Slavonians, Germans, and Russians.

The county of Sips is almost every where woody and mountainous, but is interspersed, especially towards the middle, with delightful plains, fruitful fields, pastures, and rivers that abound in fish. The Carpathian mountains are here at their greatest height: here are also several other remarkable mountains, among which are the Ochsenberg and the Konigsberg, or King's mountain, so called from king Matthias Corvinus, who in 1474 dined on its summit.

From these mountains issue the following rivers: the Popper, which runs from the lake of the same name in the western part of the Carpathian mountains, and runs into the Dunavetz. This last river rises in the northern summits of the Carpathian mountains, and at last discharges itself into the Vistula. The Kundert, or Hernat, springs at the foot of Konigsberg, and runs into the Teisse. The Golnitz, which has its source in the mountain named Ochsenberg, and also falls into the former. Besides these there are several rivers of less note.

The air is here cold, but very healthy; and though no wine be produced in this country, it abounds with corn, particularly wheat, barley, and peas; and the inhabitants raise flax.

The wild beasts here are lynxes, bears, wild boars, wolves, foxes, stags, hares, chamois, and marmottes.

The inhabitants are not fond of mining, agriculture turning out more to their advantage.

One of the greatest phenomena in this circle is a wonderful cavern in a mountain in the neighbourhood of a village named Szelitze. The neighbouring country is hilly, and abounds with woods; and the air is sharp and cold. The entrance of the above cavern, which fronts the south, is eighteen fathoms high and eight broad, and consequently wide enough to receive the south wind, which here generally blows with great violence; but the subterranean passages, which consist entirely of solid rock, winding round stretch away farther to the south than has been yet discovered. As far as people have gone, the height is found to be fifty fathoms, and the breadth twenty-six; but the most unaccountable singularity is, that in the midst of winter the air is warm in the inside; and when the heat of the sun without is scarce supportable, the cold within is not only very piercing, but so intense, that the top is covered with icicles of the size of a large cask, which spreading into ramifications form very odd figures. When the snow melts in spring, the inside of the cave, where its surface is exposed to the south sun, emits a pellucid water, which immediately congeals as it drops, and thus forms the above icicles; and the very water that drops from them on the ground, which is sandy, freezes in an instant. It is even observed,

that the greater the heat is without, the more intense is the cold within; so that in the dog-days all parts of this cavern are covered with ice, which the inhabitants use for cooling their liquors. In autumn, when the nights grow cold, and the heat of the day begins to abate, the ice in the cave begins to dissolve, so that by winter no more ice is seen; the cavern then becomes perfectly dry, and has a mild warmth. At this time it is surprising to see the swarms of flies and gnats, bats and owls, and even of foxes and hares, that choose this for their winter retreat, till the beginning of spring, when the cold obliges them to quit their dwelling. Above the cavern the hill rises to a very great height, and on the southern side produces plenty of grass.

Among the principal towns of this circle are,

Kasmark, or Kesmark, a royal free town in the county of Sips, not far from the river Popper. It is defended by a wall and towers, and is one of the most antient places in Hungary. It has three churches, and at a small distance from the town is a protestant oratory. It has been frequently taken during the civil wars, and has been several times burnt to the ground.

Leutschau, Lotse, or Lewotse, is a royal free town, and the capital of the county of Sitz. It stands on a hill, and its walls, which are remarkably thick, are strengthened by twelve towers. The church, which is dedicated to St. James, is a fine building. Here is a Jesuits college, and a seminary for noblemen. The inhabitants are mostly Germans: it has been several times sacked, and frequently consumed by fire.

Tokay, a pretty considerable town pleasantly situated near the conflux of the Theis and Bodrug, in the county of Zemplin, and in forty-eight degrees sixteen minutes north latitude. It had formerly a strong castle and a seminary; but is most remarkable for its excellent wine, which in flavour and strength exceeds all other wine produced in Hungary. The spot of land which yields this noble liquor is about seven miles in circumference; and, was all of it to be well cultivated, no part of Europe would be without the rich wine of Tokay.

Munkats is an almost impregnable castle, seated on a high and steep rock which rises in a spacious plain, its natural strength being increased by art and labour. It is the capital of a lordship, which formerly bore the title of a duchy. Beneath it, on the river Latortza, is a town which is the residence of a Greek bishop united to the Roman church, and has a convent of the order of St. Basil. This famous castle surrendered to the Imperialists in 1688, after a blockade of three years. Count Tekely's lady, who had made this long defence, was carried to Vienna, and great sums of money were found in the place.

Great Waradin is a metropolitan city in the county of Bihar, situated on the river Kows, in the forty-sixth degree fifty-three minutes north latitude, and is surrounded with good fortifications. This place was formerly much celebrated for the relics of the canonized king Ladislaus, and is now the residence of a bishop and chapter; and has also a college of Jesuits. The adjoining fortress is a regular pentagon, well fortified and defended by a deep and broad moat. The town itself is not large, but has three suburbs of very considerable extent. It was taken by the Turks in 1660, but the Imperialists re-took it in 1692.

Temeswaer is an important and strong town, the capital of a county of the same name, seated in the forty-fifth degree fifty-four minutes north latitude, and in the twenty-second degree fifteen minutes east longitude. It was formerly esteemed impregnable, it being seated in a morass, which renders it inaccessible, unless it be dried up for want of rain. In 1551 the Turks made themselves masters of it; however, it was taken from them the very same year: but in 1552 it was again invested by the Turks, when the Imperial commandant, dreading their cruelty, set fire to the place, and then abandoned it; but the Turks, extinguishing the flames, took possession of the fort, which they kept till the year 1595, when it was taken from them by the Transylvanians, who afterwards siding with the Turks, the Imperialists made themselves masters of it in 1603; but in 1614 it was

lost again: however it was taken in 1716 by prince Eugene in a dry season, who threw several thousand bombs into the place.

SECT. VI.

Of Lower Hungary, with an Account of the principal Places it contains.

LOWER Hungary consists of the two following circles, that beyond the Danube, which stretches through the upper region towards the western parts, and from the Danube to the Carpathian mountains; and the circle below the Danube. The former contains fourteen counties, inhabited by Hungarians, Bohemians, Slavonians, Germans, and in one part by Servians.

In this circle is the county of Presburg, which lies on the borders of Austria, between the Danube and Moravia. It is about sixty-five miles in length, and forty-three in breadth. Its mountains begin the Carpathian chain. The country about Tirnau is the best and most fruitful; but the soil does not want fertility, though scarce a year passes in which the grain is not damaged by mildew.

The large rivers in this country are the Danube, Morau, and Wag. The air is healthy, particularly on the mountains, but unwholesome among the morasses near the Danube. The inhabitants are Hungarians, Germans, Bohemians, Slavonians, Croats, and a great number of Jews. The dignity of palatine was made hereditary in the year 1599, in the house of Palfi. The whole province is divided into five districts, called by the Hungarians *Processus*, and each has a noble judge.

The principal places of Lower Hungary are,

Presburg, a royal free city, and the capital of the kingdom, seated on the Danube at the foot of a mountain, on which stands the castle; it is pleasantly situated, and enjoys a better air than most of the other towns in Hungary. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Martin, is the place where (from the time of Ferdinand I.) the kings of Hungary have been crowned. Here the diets are held, and the treasury office for Hungary kept. Here are also a chapter of fourteen regular canons, a Jesuits college, with a seminary and church, besides three other convents and churches, a Lutheran church, and a Protestant school. This city is of great antiquity, but is ill built, and the houses of the town, properly so called, do not much exceed two hundred, which are encompassed by a double wall and moat; but the suburbs, which are large and handsome, contain four convents, with their churches, and two hospitals. The suburb on the south side of the city makes a fine appearance, and is famous for the King's hill, on which every new elected king, being seated on horseback, brandishes St. Stephen's sword towards the four cardinal points, to shew that he will defend the country against all its enemies. It is situated in the forty-eighth degree eight minutes, north latitude, and in the seventeenth degree thirty-six minutes, east longitude. Besides its frequent sieges, it has often suffered by fire. Presburg castle stands on a pleasant eminence, two hundred paces to the west of the city: it is of a quadrangular form, with four towers exactly alike at the corners. As the sovereign, when here, resides in this castle, there are in some of the apartments the history of Ferdinand II. with instances of his virtues, painted by eminent hands. In every one of these pieces, which are all on religious subjects, is seen an exact resemblance of the emperor's face. The crown, and other regalia of Hungary, are kept in the above towers, but are never shewn. In the armoury are several ancient arms, both offensive and defensive, with some old machines used in assaults. The prospect from the castle is extremely delightful, especially over the vast plain, towards Lower Hungary and Belgrade. Below the castle is a small town, called by the Hungarians *Varalja*, and by the Germans *Schlossberg*, in which are a great many Jews.

The county of Lipto is about thirty-eight miles in length, and about eight broad; it is every where full of moun-

mountains, which are not only said to be higher than the Alps, but also to surpass them in curiosities and subjects of admiration. Its rocks are indeed astonishing, particularly those of Derminfalo, one of which, called Benikova, is perpendicular, and three thousand paces in height. In these rocks are several vast natural caverns, with multitudes of strange figures formed by the petrified water: bones of an uncommon size are also found here, differently shaped, and even larger than those of horned cattle or horses.

The chief rivers are the Wag and the Biela. There are a multitude of fresh springs in this district, some of which are mineral and medicinal; and there are other waters of different kinds that are very remarkable. The exhalations from those of Szentivan and Stamkowan suffocate birds in their flight over them. The nature of the country admits of very little tillage, and grazing is also inconsiderable, though its cheeses are very famous. This country abounds greatly in metals, particularly the Botfa mountains, which contain mines of gold and silver, some of iron, antimony, nitre, and other minerals; but it has no towns worthy of notice.

In the county of Altsohl, which abounds in valuable ores and minerals, is Herrengrund, which has the appearance of a town lying among the tops of mountains; and all its inhabitants are miners. It is famous for its vast copper works and its vitriol, by which iron is apparently turned into copper, and several hundred weight of iron are thus changed every year. The vitriol indeed does not properly transform the iron into copper, but insinuates into it the copper particles with which it is saturated; and this seeming transmutation requires only a fortnight or three weeks; but if the iron be suffered to lie too long in this vitriolic liquor, it becomes at last reduced to powder.

In this district is Neufohl, a royal free town, and the best of the mine towns. It is situated on the river Gran, and built pretty much in the Saxon manner. It has six churches, a Jesuits college and school, and has a weekly market. It is famous for the copper ore in the adjacent mountains; but though provisions here are good and cheap, the smelting works give the air an unhealthy taint. Upon a hill on the north side of the town is the castle, which is a strong place, and has two churches.

In this county is also the village of Ribar, celebrated for the warm baths on a hill in its neighbourhood. About six hundred paces from it, towards the south, in a fine meadow which makes part of a most delightful valley, is an aperture long noted for its noxious effluvia, which seem to be sulphureous, and kill both beasts and birds. The stream gushes out with great impetuosity, and yet immediately after is absorbed in the aperture. These effluvia are however not poisonous; for the water may be drank, and the dead beasts and fowls killed by it, safely eaten. Not far from this stream is a mineral spring.

The county of Bars is about thirty-eight miles long, and about twelve broad. Its chief rivers are the Gran, the Nitra, and the Sitva, or Zitawa. Here are the most famous hot baths in all Hungary, and rich mines. The country affords good wine, and the level parts grain. Few cattle are bred in the mountains except sheep. The inhabitants consist of Hungarians, Bohemians, Slavonians, and Germans.

In this county is Cremnitz, the principal mine town, which is situated in the forty-eighth degree fifty-two minutes north latitude, and in the 19th degree twenty-one minutes east longitude from London; lying in a deep valley between high mountains, so that it cannot be seen till one is just upon it. The town of itself is an inconsiderable place, though it has two churches, a Franciscan convent, and a castle; for it has not above thirty houses; but the suburbs, which are much larger, consist of nine streets, with a church and an alms-house. In this town the king has a revenue office, with a director, receiver, book-keeper, and other officers. Here is a mint, to which all the other mine towns bring their gold and silver. It is computed to coin every year about an hundred thousand ducats. The mine country in its neighbourhood is divided into the After and Fore Mint; the former containing seven mines, and the latter two;

but all the nine belong to the king. There are also mines which belong to the town in general; and to private persons; but at present they are all so exhausted, that the gold obtained from them scarce answers the expence. On a hill near the town is a castle with a church. The unwholsomeness of the air and water occasions a great deal of illness among the common people. In the year 1751, the emperor Francis I. went down a very deep shaft, in the garb of a miner, and is the only instance of a prince taking such pains to gratify his curiosity.

In the county of Hont is Schemnitz, a pretty large and populous town, in a long valley, the houses of which stand scattered a considerable way up the acclivity on both sides. The protestant inhabitants, who amount to about two-thirds of the town, are between six and seven thousand in number. In the largeness and number of its mine-works, this town surpasses all the others in Hungary. It has two castles, two churches, two chapels, and a college of Jesuits, with a royal mine-office; and is the residence of a chief commissioner. The gold and silver mines here still produce a considerable quantity of ore, which contains more and better gold than that of Cremnitz. Mr. Keyfler observes, that he went down an hundred and fifty fathoms in a shaft without the least danger, being buckled up in a kind of leather chair, after which he descended about fifteen fathoms deeper, by means of a ladder. He adds, that it would require three or four days to walk through all the passages of this mine; that the number of labourers employed in it amount to five or six thousand men, and those without, together with the carpenters, &c. are computed at two thousand, exclusive of those employed about the carriages. The profits are, however, said to be not near so considerable as formerly.

In the above mines are also found crystals, amethysts, and vitriol naturally crystalized. At a small distance is a rock, in which is found a red substance, called cinabar of silver, of which is made a fine vermilion; and near the town is also a high perpendicular rock, part of which is of a shining blue, with green and yellow spots.

The county of Pilis is incorporated with that of Pest. Amidst its mountains and woods is a large plain, which lies between the Danube and Theis, but is for the most part sandy and barren. The principal river is the Danube, and the smaller are the Galga, Tapjo, Kakos, Vajas, Theis, and Zagyva. In the mountainous parts the winters are cold, and the summers temperate; but in the large plains, the winters are severe, and the summers intolerably hot: the warm days are then succeeded by very cold nights: good water is extremely scarce; and the gnats are very troublesome both to man and beast. In the mountainous parts is produced an excellent kind of red and white wine; but no corn can be raised in the sandy soil. The desert plains, however, afford good pasturage for cattle, where they wander at large. The whole province is divided into four districts, the principal towns in which are the following:

Pest, a royal free town in a plain on the Danube, over against Buda, to which is a passage in summer by a bridge of boats. In this city is the supreme court of appeal, also a large military hospital, built with stone, two hundred paces square, and three stories high; six convents, and several churches. In the years 1526, and 1541, it was taken by the Turks, who held it till 1602, when it was recovered by the Hungarians; but the following year, being abandoned through fear, it once more fell into the hands of the Turks, who in 1684, set it on fire, and then marched to Buda; upon this the Imperialists took possession of the town, but abandoned it again, and did not return till two years after, when the inhabitants were reduced to great distress.

Vaitz is a populous episcopal city, pleasantly situated on the Danube. Besides the houses belonging to the bishop, here are three convents, and a seminary. The city chiefly owes its prosperity to its great annual fair, and beast market. It has been frequently destroyed by fire, and several times taken by the Turks and Imperialists.

Buda is the name both of an old and new city, situated in the forty-seventh degree forty minutes north latitude,

latitude, and in the nineteenth degree twenty minutes east longitude. Old Buda is situated in a plain which extends from the suburbs of New Buda to the Pilis mountains and the Danube, and at present is a mean place; in which are seen the desolate ruins of the old city, with several Roman monuments. New Buda was built by Bela IV. and is a royal free town, seated on a mountain by the Danube. It was formerly the capital of the kingdom, the residence of the king, and the largest and finest of all the Hungarian towns; but has been much reduced by its being frequently besieged, taken, and destroyed. The principal church is that of the Virgin Mary, near which the Jesuits have an academical college and seminary. The Carmelite nuns of St. Clare have convents here, and the Franciscans have several churches. The city is surrounded with walls and moats, and is well fortified; near it stands a strong castle. The palace of the Hungarian kings was reckoned a most beautiful building, but it is entirely destroyed. It has three suburbs; in that called Neustift is only one church, together with a pillar fifty-two feet high, which in 1690 was dedicated to the Holy Trinity, to commemorate a deliverance from a pestilence, which ceased in 1715. In the suburb called the Wasserstadt, or Water-Town, which lies on the Danube, are two churches and one convent; and on the hill is Reichenstadt, in which is a Russian Greek church. Lady Wortly Montague, who was there in the year 1717, says, that without the walls lie a vast number of little houses, or rather huts, called the Rascian Town, from its being entirely inhabited by that people. The houses stand in rows, and appear at a distance like old-fashioned thatched tents, each consisting of one hovel above, and another under-ground. These are their summer and winter apartments.

In the suburbs of Wasserstadt and Reichenstadt are five warm baths; the principal of which, called the Emperor's, is built somewhat in the manner of the Rotunda at Rome, with a large aperture in the centre of the dome, besides several small holes or windows round the cupola for admitting more light. In a large bath in the centre of the other four, both sexes publicly bathe together, the men wearing only a kind of drawers, and the women what they term a fore-shift; but the common people, for whom one of the other baths is appointed, look upon even this slight covering as superfluous. There is also a pond of mineral water, which has this surprising property, that when the water is wholly turned off, the water-springs cease flowing, but when the pond is a little above half full, they return again. The wine produced on the neighbouring hills is red, and of a very good sort. Here are also excellent melons, which are sold for the value of a penny a piece.

Buda was first taken by Solyman the Magnificent, in 1526, and lost the following year to Ferdinand I. king of Bohemia. Solyman regained it by the treachery of the garrison, and voluntarily gave it up to king John of Hungary; after whose death, his son being an infant, Ferdinand laid siege to it, and the queen-mother was forced to call Solyman to her aid, who indeed raised the siege, but left a Turkish garrison in the town, and commanded her to remove her court from thence, to which she was forced to submit. It afterwards resisted the sieges laid to it by the marquis of Brandenburg, in the year 1542; by count Schwartzburg, in 1596; by general Rosworm, in 1602; and by the duke of Lorraine, commander of the emperor's forces, in 1684, to whom it yielded in 1686, after an obstinate defence; Apti Basha, the governor, being killed, fighting with the utmost bravery in the breach. The loss of this town was of such importance, and so much resented by the Turks, that it occasioned their deposing of their emperor Mahomet IV. the year following.

About a mile and a half below Buda is the island of Eszpeel, in the midst of the Danube, and surrounded on both sides by small islands, among which the Pheasant island is particularly remarkable, and is a thousand paces long, and covered with wood. The island of Ujvalvische is twenty-seven miles in length, and has a ruined church, said to have been built by St. Margaret.

This island is not very fruitful, but it abounds with game, and has great plenty of hares. Near the island of Eszpeel a promontory, covered with woods and vines, projects into the river; and in its neighbourhood is a pleasant and fruitful plain, about five miles in circumference, containing the seat of prince Eugene, who often resided here, and had a breed of Arabian sheep; and on this plain are scattered several farm houses.

We now come to the other circle of Lower Hungary, which is that below the Danube, containing twelve counties, and is inhabited by Hungarians, intermixed with Croats, Rascians, and some Sclavonians. The principal places in this circle are,

Edenburg, or Sopron, a royal free town in the county of the same name, and though not very large is well built, populous, and has extensive suburbs. The inhabitants apply themselves with great industry to the cultivation of vineyards, and the wine is accordingly remarkable for its goodness. Here is a Jesuits college, and a Lutheran school. Among the diets which have been held here, that in 1681 is remarkable for the free exercise of religion granted to the protestants by the emperor Leopold.

Raab, which was made a royal free city so lately as the year 1742, is an ancient and strong fortress, situated in a pleasant country at the conflux of the Danube, the Raab, and Rabsnitz, by which it is encompassed. Its houses are all built with stone, the streets are large and straight, and it has a bishop, a chapter, and an university, the professors in which are Jesuits. The fortifications of the city and castle are chiefly the work of the emperors Ferdinand I. and Maximilian II. and it has always a strong garrison well provided with military stores. In the year 1529 the garrison, for fear of the Turks, first set fire to the castle, and then abandoned the city. In 1566 it was burnt to the ground. In 1594 it was by agreement delivered up to the Turks, from whom it was afterwards recovered by stratagem, by count Adolphus of Swartzenburg. In 1749 the churches and schools of the Lutherans and reformed were suppressed.

The city of Gran, the capital of the county of the same name, is situated in a delightful country at the conflux of the river Gran with the Danube, in the forty-eighth degree twenty-one minutes north latitude, and in the eighteenth degree forty-six minutes east longitude. This city was formerly the residence of the primate of Hungary, and had also a chapter, which is removed to Tirnau; and the archbishop resides at Presburg. There is here a Jesuits college and school. The city of Gran properly consists of a royal free town, the castle, which is situated on a high rock, and in which is the cathedral; the Wasserstadt, which lies on the Danube; with the Rascian town, Thomsberg, and Jungerstadt: all which are fortified so as to be a mutual defence to each other. King Stephen was born here in the year 909, and buried in the cathedral built by himself. In 1543 the city was for the first time taken by the Turks; but in 1596 it was taken from them by the Imperialists. On this occasion Sir Thomas Arundel, of Wardour-castle, for his signal bravery in storming the water-tower, and pulling down the Turkish banner, &c. was created a count of the empire by the emperor Rodolph, and afterwards king James I. made him a baron of England, which honours are still enjoyed by his posterity. The Turks besieged it in vain in the year 1604; but the following year they obliged the city to surrender, and kept it till 1683, when, after the defeat of their army before Vienna by John Sobieski, the Imperialists once more recovered it, and afterwards defended it against the Turks, who laid siege to it in 1685, but were entirely defeated by the dukes of Lorraine and Bavaria, and it is still subject to the house of Austria.

Comorra is situated in the island of Schutt, at the conflux of the Wag and the Danube. In this town is the court-house of the county, with a Jesuits college and school; and near it is an impregnable fortification, surrounded on the west with deep moats, and on the north and south by the Danube and Wag, which meet to the southward. It was built by Ferdinand I. and it is remarkable that it never fell into the hands of the Turks.

S E C T. VII.

Of TRANSYLVANIA.

Its Names, Situation, Extent, Climate, Mountains, Rivers, Minerals, Plants, and Animals.

THE country now known by the name of Transylvania was a part of the ancient Dacia, and derived its present name from its lying behind the forests with which the Carpathian mountains are surrounded; and for the same reason the Hungarians call it Erdely, which signifies a woody mountainous country. The Germans give it the name of Siebenburgen, from seven celebrated forts, or castles, by which it is defended. Transylvania is bounded on the north by Moldavia, Poland, and Hungary; on the east by Moldavia; on the south by Walachia, and the bannat of Temeswar; and on the west by Hungary; extending from forty-five degrees thirty minutes to forty-eight degrees ten minutes north latitude, and from twenty-two to twenty-five degrees east longitude, and is about a hundred and seventy miles in length, and a hundred and twenty in breadth.

This country is on all sides environed with mountains, whence it enjoys temperate air, and springs of excellent water; and though it is both mountainous and woody, yet its fields are so rich and fertile, that it is destitute of none of the necessities, and few of the luxuries of life. The mountains of Transylvania run from north to south, branching out likewise east and west, and terminating in the center of the country in hills, clothed with vineyards and rich in mines. The former are situated in the southern parts of the country; but in some places the grapes are prevented from being thoroughly ripened by the northerly blasts. In several of the mountains metals and minerals are found, while others yield rock-salt. There are here medicinal springs, some of which are warm, others cold, and others sulphureous.

The chief rivers are the Samos, the Maros, which traverses the middle of the country, and the Aluta, which rises at the foot of the Carpathian mountains, and runs into Walachia.

The minerals of this country are gold, silver, copper, iron, quicksilver, cinnabar, solar antimony, sulphur, vitriol, rock-salt, salt-petre, red oker, and chalk, which are exported from hence to Hungary.

Transylvania produces medicinal herbs, grain, pulse, vines, and several kinds of fruit-trees, with wood fit for timber. The soil is indeed extremely fruitful. The wheat is esteemed the best in Europe, and so plentiful, that the peasants eat no other bread: but their soil is less fit for barley, and therefore they brew but little beer; this defect, however, is supplied with plenty of good wine, which is little inferior to that of Hungary.

In the meadows and pastures they feed vast herds of large oxen, which are there extremely cheap. They have also sheep, and a good breed of horses. Their forests abound with many kinds of wild beasts, particularly buffaloes, elks, deer, wild boars, hares, which are much larger, and have a more valuable fur than ours; wild horses of incredible swiftness, whose manes hang down almost to the ground; some parts of the country are infested with wolves and bears, which in winter do great mischief among the cattle: there are also wild asses, lynxes, chamois, martens, ermines, and beavers. The woods afford plenty of bees and honey, with which they make a sort of mead that is highly valued; the honey being mixed with several other pleasant ingredients.

S E C T. VIII.

Of the different Nations who inhabit Transylvania; their Religion, Learning, Government, Arms, Forces, Revenue, and Administration of Justice.

WITH respect to the various nations who inhabit Transylvania, these are Hungarians, who in their natural genius, understanding, disposition, and language, resemble the natives of the country; the Siculi, a people descended from the Scythian Huns, and formerly en-

joyed some particular privileges on account of their antiquity; but these have been gradually abolished: they speak the Hungarian language, but their pronunciation is broad, and they also retain some old Hun words: the Saxons, who are partly the remains of the Gepidi, and partly the descendants of those Saxons who in 1154 entered the country: these stiffly adhere to their natural disposition and ancient customs, which are widely different from those of the two above-mentioned nations, but resemble the modern Hungarians, and like them apply themselves to learning, war, arts, and trade. Their language agrees with that spoken in Lower Saxony. These are the principal people of this country, and the rest, who are esteemed foreigners, must unite with one of the above nations.

Those whom they thus call foreigners are the Germans, who speak the same language as the other natives of Germany, but a different one from that of the Saxons: the Walachians, the descendants of the ancient Roman colonies, who therefore stile themselves Romanians, that is, Romans. Their language consists of a great deal of Latin, corrupted with a mixture of the Sclavonian. These resemble the Romans in their dress and diet, and are fond of the Italian language; the waywodes have their physicians and secretaries from Italy, and the few who apply themselves to literature go to the university of Padua. They reside in the mountainous parts of the country, and wholly apply themselves to agriculture. From their first embracing the Christian religion, they have professed themselves of the Greek communion; but since Transylvania became subject to the house of Austria, the Jesuits have been perpetually endeavouring to unite them to the Romish church, under the ambiguous title of the *Græci ritus Uniti*. The qualifications of the Walachian clergy barely consist in their being able to read and sing; and when any of them would shine, he makes a tour to Bucharest in Walachia, where he learns to be polite, and to speak in an ornamental stile; but returns in other respects as illiterate as he went. The common people among the Walachians are said to be so ignorant, that scarce one in twenty of them can repeat the Lord's Prayer. The others are Armenians, who have a particular language, and chiefly apply themselves to trade, Rascians, Bulgarians, Greeks, and Jews.

The Hungarians, the Siculi, and a few Saxons, are of the Romish church, and have some rites and privileges in common with that church in Hungary: these are under a bishop who resides at Weissenburg, and is subordinate to the archbishop of Colotza. The reformed, who consist of the Hungarians and Siculi, have a superintendent, who by the laws of the kingdom is the second in rank. The protestant Lutheran church, which consists of Saxons and a few Hungarians, is divided into nine chapters, and governed by a bishop. This church, with respect to the number of its members, is so superior, that there are reckoned twenty-five protestants to one catholic. The Socinians, or Unitarians, were formerly the prevailing sect; but at present they are greatly dwindled, though they have still a superintendent. These four churches are established by the laws of the kingdom. The Greek religion, professed by the Walachians and Greeks, has particular privileges granted by the prince of the country, as well those who are united to the Romish church, as those who dissent from it. Over the former is a bishop, who has priests under him; but the latter is subject, in ecclesiastical affairs, to the bishops of Walachia; and under these also are the Armenians, some of whom differ, in point of public worship, from the Greeks, while others acknowledge the church of Rome.

With respect to the state of learning in this country, the catholics have a college of Jesuits at Clausenburg, and several seminaries. The different sects of protestants have likewise seminaries and schools, in which the elements of the sciences are taught; after which, such students as are of the reformed religion go to Switzerland and Holland, but the Saxons are sent to study in Germany.

The government of Transylvania is entirely different from that of Hungary, and by the joint consent of prince and people, is formed into an aristocratical government, which

which since the year 1722 has been hereditary to the princes and princesses of the house of Austria. Formerly the prince of Transylvania succeeded to the government by a free election; but since the above period, by inheritance; and though his power is connected with that of the king of Hungary and the arch-duke of Austria, yet his government and privileges differ from both.

The principality of Transylvania is governed in the name of prince and nobility, by the diet, the office of state, the royal government, the exchequer, the assembly of Hungarian counts, the tribunals of justice, and the magistrates of the Saxons and Siculi.

The diets meet at Hermanstadt, by summons from the prince, and are divided into the upper and lower table: at the upper table sits the government, with the prelates, counts, and barons: at the lower, the king's council, with the deputies of the Hungarian counts, the tribunals of the Siculi and royal Saxons; and at each sits a president, who represents the sovereign, and lays the king's intentions and proposals before the states.

The Transylvania office, which draws up and sends away the prince's orders, is held at Vienna, and, with respect to public affairs, has not the least connection either with those of Austria or Hungary.

The royal government resides at Hermanstadt, and superintends both the temporal and spiritual affairs of the principality. At its head is a governor with the counsellors of the three nations, and also of the three religions, the Romans, the Calvinists, and the Lutherans.

The exchequer is divided into the Transylvania and mine-office. The former is held at Hermanstadt, and that of the latter at Abrug-Banya.

The arms of Transylvania are divided into three parts, by two indentations diverging downwards. In the first are seven Hungarian castles in a field or; in the second, in a field gules, the eagle of the Siculi; and in the third, the Saxon sun and moon in a field gules.

Transylvania could formerly bring from eighty to ninety thousand men into the field; but at present the whole force of that principality consists of six regiments, under a commander in chief, for the defence of the country.

The revenue of Transylvania rises from contributions, customs, metals, minerals, rock-salt, royal domains, escheats, and confiscations, and are levied by the treasury.

With respect to the administration of justice, civil causes are tried in the prince's name, in the superior and inferior courts; and each of the three nations has its particular court. In the royal free towns which belong to the Saxons, the causes of the burghers are first heard before the judge of the town, and afterwards discussed by the town council, from which there lies an appeal to the meetings of the towns, when they hold the national court; and from this court an appeal lies to the *Tabula regia*. In the Hungarian counties, the causes of the gentry are first tried by their judge, and then brought before the whole body of the nobility; from whom also lies an appeal to the *Tabula regia*. In the courts of the Siculi, who have their peculiar customs and privileges, causes are first heard before the king's judge, and in dubious cases carried up to the king's lieutenant, and from him to the *Tabula regia*. This *Tabula regia*, or royal table, is the chief court of justice, and has a president with prothonotaries and assessors; yet even from this board causes may be carried up to the government, and from thence removed to the sovereign.

In affairs relating to the church, there is only one court, which is held at the residence of the bishop of Transylvania, from whom appeals lie to the metropolitan, from him to the pope's nuncio, and from thence to the court of Rome.

S E C T. IX.

A concise Description of the principal Places in Transylvania.

THE whole country of Transylvania is divided into seven Hungarian counties; the territory of the Siculi, which is subdivided into seven tribunals; and

the royal country of the Saxons, which consists of five districts. The principal places in Transylvania are,

Clausenburg, which is seated on a plain by the rivulet of Samos, near the foot of a mountain, in the forty-seventh degree fourteen minutes north latitude. This is a large populous town, that has many houses of stone, and strong walls fortified with towers. Over the Portina gate is still to be seen an inscription in honour of the emperor Trajan. The Jesuits have a college here, and the reformed a seminary; as have also the Socinians, who are very numerous. Till the year 1603, they were in possession of the cathedral, which was taken from them, and given to the Jesuits, whose church and college they had pulled down. This town has been several times besieged and taken.

Hermanstadt, by the natives called Zeben; is the capital of Transylvania, situated in that part called the royal country of the Saxons, in the forty-sixth degree fifty-one minutes north latitude, and the twenty-fifth degree one minute east longitude. It stands in a plain, and is large and well built, and is defended by a double wall and deep moat. This is the principal place of the Saxon colony; and it is governed by the royal chamber, the tribunal of appeals, and the diet; besides which, the general and royal governor of the Saxon nation reside here. The air is however unwholesome, and produces the gout; so that many of the finest buildings are uninhabited. The houses within the gates are mostly well built, and covered with slates, which in this country is reckoned an extraordinary piece of magnificence. Besides several good springs in and about the place, the river water is conveyed through every street by little canals. This city is a granary for the whole principality. Its principal trade consists in cloth and mead, made here in great quantities for exportation into the neighbouring countries. This city had formerly a considerable trade with Greece, which they lost during the wars; but it has greatly declined on account of the persecution the inhabitants have suffered, and the severity of the government.

Weissenburg, or Carlsburg, is a strong well built town, situated on a rising ground, from whence, for about two miles round, there is a most delightful prospect of a fruitful country, amidst corn-fields and eminences covered with vines. It is watered by the gentle streams of the rivers Ompay and Marisch, and is two miles in length; but was much larger formerly, as appears from its ancient boundaries within the walls, which are said to be twenty miles in compass. It was for a long time the metropolis of ancient Dacia, and was called Alba Julia, from Julia Augusta, the mother of the emperor Marcus Aurelius Antoninus; and is now generally called Carlsburg, in honour of Charles VI. by whom it was considerably improved. It had formerly a magnificent palace, which is now gone to decay, and has at present a bishop and a college of Jesuits.

The last place we shall mention in Transylvania is Cronstadt, which is next in rank to Hermanstadt, both with respect to its appearance, the number of its inhabitants, and its trade. It is seated among pleasant mountains, and is fortified with walls, towers, and moats. None reside in the town itself beside Germans, but in its three large suburbs are Hungarians, Saxons, Bulgarians, and Siculi.

S E C T. X.

Of SCLAVONIA.

The Extent, Climate, Rivers, different Inhabitants, Languages, Government, Administration of Justice, both in Slavonia and Croatia. The Divisions of Slavonia, and its principal Towns.

WE shall now treat of the country by some authors called Hungarian Illyricum, which extends from the Danube to the Adriatic Sea, between the rivers Drave, Save, and Unna, and comprehends Slavonia, Croatia, and Dalmatia.

The country which lies between the Drave and Adriatic enjoys a mild and temperate air, and a fruitful soil; but

but the maritime places are not esteemed healthy. It produces all the necessaries and conveniencies of life, particularly corn, wine, and oil; and besides the rivers already mentioned, has the Culpa, which rises in Croatia, and falls into the Save; the Kerka, which together with the small rivers of Dalmatia, discharge themselves into the Adriatic sea.

The inhabitants are of Slavonian extraction; and according to the different provinces, are divided into different people, among which are Hungarians, Germans, Venetians, and Turks. The principal nations are the Slavonians, who make as it were one people with the Servians and Rascians, which, with a mixture of Germans and Slavonians, inhabit Slavonia: the Croats, who dwell in Croatia and Slavonia, and are intermixed with colonies from Germany and Walachia: the Dalmatians, among whom are the Uscocs and the Morlachians. They have likewise Venetian, Turkish, and Albanian colonies among them.

With respect to the languages of these different people, the Croats and Rascians speak German and Hungarian; the Dalmatians, Italian and Turkish; the Walachians who have settled in these countries retain their own language.

The only religion tolerated here is the Romish, which is under the government of three archbishops and twenty bishops. These nations, however, concern themselves little about study; yet Zagrad has an academy; and among the Croats and Rascians are many persons of an excellent genius, who entertain a passion for literature, which they endeavour to promote.

The government of Slavonia and Croatia is connected with that of Hungary and Stiria, being hereditary in the archducal house of Austria. Croatian Hungary is under the jurisdiction of the ban or viceroy of Croatia, Slavonia, and Dalmatia, who governs by the laws of Hungary, and the provincial acts of Illyricum. Croatian Stiria has a governor both in Stiria, military Croatia, and on the coast of the Adriatic.

The prelates, nobility, gentry, and royal Castellans, enjoy the same privileges as the Hungarians. At the diets, which consist of the four orders of the province, all deliberations run in the name of the sovereign; and besides, the states of Illyria appear at the Hungarian diets by their representatives.

The administration of justice in Slavonia and the bannat of Croatia is the same as in Hungary; the free towns having inferior courts, from whence causes may be removed to the royal treasury. The other towns have also their inferior courts, from whence there lies an appeal to the bannat court, which is thus named from the ban, or prorex, who presides in it; and this at certain times hears causes brought from the counties, and holds consultations on other important matters; but sometimes, when the causes require a farther inspection, the litigants are dismissed to the *Tabula regalis* at Pest, from whence they may proceed to that of the *Septemviralis*.

The public revenue arises from contributions, customs, tillage, graziers, and trade. The military force of the Hungarian Illyrians perhaps never appeared to greater advantage than in the war which preceded the last, when no less than fifty thousand men were brought into the field from Croatia alone.

We shall now proceed to give a concise account of Slavonia.

Slavonia is situated between the Drave and the Save, extending eastward to the Danube, and being bounded on the westward by Carniola. It obtained the name of Slavonia in the middle ages, from the neighbouring Slavi or Slavina. The inhabitants are Servians or Rascians, Croats, and Walachians, with some German and Hungarian colonies. This country is divided into the bannat and generalship of Slavonia, the former of which is subdivided into three counties, the principal towns in which are,

Esseck, the capital of the county of Verowitz, is seated on the river Drave near the Danube, and is most remarkable for the large wooden bridge which is here erected over the Danube and the neighbouring morasses, and extends in length about five miles; it was built in 1566, by Solyman, emperor of the Turks, who con-

stantly employed twenty thousand men in this work till it was completed. In the year 1529 Esseck was taken by the Turks, and in 1664 the Imperialists burnt this bridge; but it was soon rebuilt by the Turks. The Hungarians afterwards burnt the bridge a second time, and in vain attempted to take the town; but after the battle of Mohatz, the Turks voluntarily evacuated it. This city is situated in the forty-fifth degree fifty-one minutes north latitude, and in the nineteenth degree ten minutes east longitude.

Carlowitz, a military town, the residence of the Greek bishop of Slavonia, and famous for its red wine, and for the peace concluded there with the Turks in 1699.

Peterwaradin is a town situated on the Danube, opposite Belgrade, six miles to the south-east of Carlowitz. It is strongly fortified, and is the frontier town of the Imperialists. The Turks made themselves masters of it in the year 1526; but quitted it in 1687, when the Hungarians took possession of it. But it is chiefly remarkable for the glorious victory obtained near it over the Turks in the year 1716, by prince Eugene.

SECT. XI.

Of CROATIA.

Its Situation, Extent, Inhabitants, and principal Places.

THIS country, which is called by the Hungarians Horwath Orszag, is bounded on the east by Slavonia and Bothnia, on the north and west by Stiria and Carniola, and on the south by Turkish Croatia and Dalmatia. The Croats are of a good stature, and make brave and hardy soldiers. They derive their origin from the Slavi. In the middle ages they had sovereignties of their own, who styled themselves kings of Croatia and Dalmatia; but were for some time subject to the emperors of the East. In the eleventh century Croatia and Dalmatia devolved to the kings of Hungary, to whom they have ever since continued in subjection, though not without frequent attempts to recover their independency.

The Croats, of all the Illyrian nations, have the greatest affinity in their language to that of the Poles.

Croatia, which is about eighty miles either way, is divided into two parts; that within and that beyond the Save; and is inhabited by Croats, a few Rascians, Greeks, and Walachians.

The chief towns in Austrian Croatia are,

Little Waradin, a royal free town on the river Drave, strengthened with a castle and bulwark; it stands in a large plain. Between this town and a high mountain is a warm bath, formerly called *Thermæ Constantinianæ*.

Kreutz, a royal free town, that is fortified, and has many privileges.

Iwanitz, a strong fortress on the river Koros, where the kings of Slavonia formerly resided.

Zagrab, or Agran, a royal free city, seated on the Save. It is the capital of Croatia, and has a bishop and chapter.

Besides a considerable number of other towns, of which we know little more than their names.

Turkish Croatia lies on the other side of the Unna, and as we have already given an account of it in treating of Turkey in Europe, we shall now pass on to Dalmatia.

SECT. XII.

Of the Kingdom of DALMATIA.

Its Name and History. The Climate and Face of the Country. A particular Account of the Uscocs and Morlachians; with a Description of the principal Places in Hungarian and Venetian Dalmatia; also a concise Account of the Republic of Ragusa and its Capital.

DALMATIA obtained its name from its antient capital Delmum, or Delminium, which was taken and destroyed by the Romans, who brought this country under their yoke; but Dalmatia shook it off no less than five times.

On

On the division of the provinces between Augustus and the senate, Dalmatia fell to the latter, as one of the provincial provinces; but they voluntarily ceded it to the emperor, and at the demise of Constantine the Great it was reckoned among the western parts of Illyricum. It suffered extremely by the inroads of the northern barbarians, and was reduced by the Goths in their way to Italy. Afterwards Justinian, emperor of the East, conquered not only Dalmatia, but Italy; but in the year 1548 the Sclavi entered the country, and about the end of the reign of Heraclius established themselves there. Dalmatia had then its particular kings, of which Zlodomia, or Zaromyr, dying without issue, left the kingdom to his consort, who bequeathed it to her brother St. Ladislaus, king of Hungary, and it has been ever since dependent upon that crown; but the Venetians are masters of the maritime parts. In the wars which the kings of Hungary had with the Venetians and Dalmatians, they were for some time successful; yet in the fifteenth century the Venetians reduced the whole kingdom of Dalmatia, but the Turks have since dispossessed them of a considerable part, and at present the Hungarians, Venetians, Turks, and Ragusans, share it among them.

The Dalmatians have the Sclavonian language and customs, and profess the Romish religion.

The air of Dalmatia is pure and temperate. The country is as it were strewed with fertile mountains that produce olives, vines, myrtles, and a great variety of palatable and wholesome vegetables; and have also in their bowels treasures of gold and silver ore. This country has also many fertile plains, are watered by rivers that have a short course, though they are mostly navigable; and these plains feed many herds of horned cattle, and large flocks of sheep.

Before we give a description of the several parts of Hungarian Dalmatia, which lies in the upper part of the Adriatic Sea, it is necessary to give some account of the Uscocs and Morlachians. The Uscocs are a people who, galled by oppression, escaped out of Dalmatia, whence they obtained the name of Uscocs, from the word Scoco, which signifies a deserter: they are also called springers, or leapers, from the agility with which they leap, rather than walk, along this rugged and mountainous country. Their chief settlement was at Clissa; but the Turks taking that place in 1537 they retreated to Zengh, which was granted them by the emperor Ferdinand; but in 1616 they were ordered, on account of their robberies, and other acts of violence, to remove and settle at a place appointed for them in a mountain of Carniola, four German miles in length, and two in breadth. In the center of this mountain stands Sichelberg castle, to the governor of which all the Uscocs are subject. Some of them live in scattered houses, and others in large villages. They are a rough, savage, people, large-bodied, intrepid, and given to rapine, though their only visible employment is grazing. They use the Walachian language, and in their religion come nearest to the Greek church; but some are Roman catholics. They have an archbishop, bishops, popes, or priests, and coluges, or monks; their priests are not prohibited marriage, but the wife must be of a good family, and at her decease they are not to marry again. Their children are not baptized till they are adults; and none among them go to confession under thirty years of age.

Morlachia extends from the jurisdiction of Zengh, near St. George, to the county of Zara; or, according to others, from Vinodok to Novigrad; it being fifteen German miles in length and five or six in breadth, and full of high mountains. The inhabitants are a branch of the Walachians, and are very swarthy; but are a large, strong, robust people, inured to toil and hardships from their living amidst barren mountains. Their chief employment is attending cattle, and the greatest part of them are of the Greek religion. Some of them at present are under the protection of Hungary, and others are dependent on the Venetians. There is hardly a place of any strength in Dalmatia that is not governed by these people. Hungarian Dalmatia consists of five districts, most of which are under the generalship of Carlstadt, in which the most remarkable places are the following:

Zengh, Segnia, or Senia, a royal free town, fortified both by art and nature, is seated near the sea in a bleak mountainous and barren soil. The bishop of this place is a suffragan to the archbishop of Spalatro. Here are twelve churches and two convents. The governor resides in the old palace called the royal castle, and in the upper fort, which stands on a rising ground fronting the town, lives the deputy-governor. Near this place dwell the Uscocs.

Ottoschatz, a frontier fortification in the river Gatzka, which abounds with fish: that part of the fortress where the governor and the greatest part of the garrison reside, is surrounded with a wall and some towers; while the rest of the buildings, which are but mean, are erected on piles in the water, whence one neighbour cannot visit another without a boat.

We have already given a description of Turkish Dalmatia in treating of Turkey in Europe, and shall now therefore proceed to that part of the country called Venetian Dalmatia, and the republic of Ragusa.

Venetian Dalmatia is situated to the south-east of the country last described, on the borders of the Adriatic Sea, and abounds in castles and fortified places, though but few of them are of modern structure. The principal places in this country are,

Zara, the capital of Venetian Dalmatia, is situated in the country of the same name, in the forty-fourth degree twenty-two minutes north latitude, and is surrounded on all sides by the sea; but has a communication with the continent by means of a draw-bridge, which is defended by a fort. This is esteemed one of the best fortifications in Dalmatia, and is thought to be almost impregnable. The citadel is separated from the town by a very deep ditch hewn out of the rock, and in the castle resides the governor, or proveditor of Dalmatia, whose office is only triennial. The harbour, which lies to the north, is capacious, safe, and well guarded; and the rain is carefully preserved in cisterns to supply the want of fresh water. It is the see of an archbishop, and St. Simeon is patron of the city; and in the cathedral, which is dedicated to him, they pretend to shew his body deposited in a coffin covered with a crystal lid. There are very fine paintings in the churches done by the best masters; and near the church called by the Greeks St. Helia are two handsome fluted columns of the Corinthian order, supposed to have been part of the temple of Juno. This city was formerly more considerable than it is at present, the walls being but two miles in compass, and the number of the inhabitants not exceeding six thousand.

Tenen, a fortified town on the extremities of Bosnia and Dalmatia, is seated on a hill, and, though not large, is esteemed of importance from its elevated situation. It is encompassed with two very broad and deep natural moats, formed by the rivers Kerka and Botisniza, which precipitate themselves at a small distance from the hills. This city, which, in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, was the capital of a country, is the see of a bishop. In the year 1522 it was taken by the Turks. In 1649 it was recovered by the Venetians, and for the most part demolished; but it was afterwards rebuilt by the Turks, and again taken from them by the Venetians.

Trau, or Tragurium, a town on a peninsula, but separated from the continent by a canal. It is divided into the Old and New Town, the former of which has a single, and the latter a double wall. Its three towers are also a good defence. Nothing can be pleasanter than its situation; for the north side is covered with beautiful gardens, and on the island of Bua it has fine suburbs, that have a communication with the town by means of a stone bridge, and is joined to the continent by three of wood. It is the residence of a Venetian proveditor, who bears the title of count, and also of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Spalatro. The harbour, which is formed by a bay, has depth of water sufficient for the largest ships which ride there, sheltered by two capes.

Spalatro, the capital of Venetian Dalmatia, is seated on a peninsula fortified with good bastions of free-stone, but these works are commanded by the neighbouring mountains. This city is the see of an archbishop, who is primate of all Dalmatia and Croatia. It is also the staple where

where all merchandize passing from Turkey to Italy must be transacted. Near its harbour, which is very large and deep, is erected a large lazaretto for performing quarantine. Among the Roman antiquities to be seen here are the noble remains of Dioclesian's palace, on which the city itself is built, and its walls make two-thirds of those of Spalatro. It is in the forty-third degree fifty-three minutes north latitude. This city has been possessed by the Venetians ever since the year 1420.

Castel Nuovo, the best fortification in all Dalmatia, was antiently called Neocastro, and was built by a king of Bosnia in 1373, on a high rock adjoining to the sea. It is better fortified by nature than by art, it being an irregular quadrangle, secured towards the sea by shelves and inaccessible rocks. In the upper town is the castle of Sulimanega, and the fortified town of Hastavich; but its best fortification is the capital of Cornigrad, which stands about six hundred and fifty paces north of the town. It was taken by the Venetians, and is now a place of considerable trade.

Within this province are also several islands, as, 1. Osero, or Oforo. 2. Cherso, which has a communication with the former by means of a bridge. It is a woody tract, and breeds great numbers of cattle. It has a pretty populous town of the same name, that has a convenient harbour. 3. Vegia, or Veglia, is separated from the continent by a narrow channel, and has a town of the same name, which has a harbour and castle, in which resides the Venetian count or governor. 4. Arbe, which abounds with figs and the smaller kinds of cattle, and produces most delicious wine. Its capital is an episcopal city. 5. Great Isola, which contains several towns and castles. 6. Mortara, or Mortero, which has a deep and secure harbour between two islands. It is celebrated for its wine, and its abounding also in olives and melons. The town of the same name is seated in a valley between two hills of various culture. 7. Lesina, said to be the celebrated isle of Pharos, is rocky, but produces figs; bread and wine are very cheap, and from hence all Italy and Greece are supplied with sardines. The town of the same name, though small, is well fortified. 8. Corzola-nigra, the antient Corcyra, abounds with timber of all kinds. In the city of the same name, which is the only one in the island, reside the governor and a bishop. It is fortified with strong walls and towers, has a fine harbour, and produces plenty of wine. The Turks, attempting to make a descent here, were, in the year 1507, repulsed by the women, who behaved with heroic resolution, when their dastardly husbands had, through fear, deserted the city, and fled up into the country. Besides these there are several other islands.

We now come to Ragusan Dalmatia, which lies to the south-east of the former, and is about fifty-five miles in length, and twenty in breadth. Ragusa is an aristocratical state, formed nearly after the model of that of Venice. The government is in the hands of the nobility; and the chief of the republic, who is stiled rector, is changed every month, and elected by scrutiny, or lot. During his administration he lives in the palace, wears a ducal habit, composed of a long silk robe with white sleeves, and his salary is five ducats a month; but if he be one of the *pregadi*, and assists at appeals, he receives a ducat a day. Next to him is the council of ten. In the great council all noblemen above twenty years of age are admitted, and in this council are chosen the persons who constitute the board of the *pregadi*, who superintend all civil and military affairs, dispose of all employments, and receive and send envoys. These continue a year in their office. The little council consists of thirty nobles, who take care of the polity, trade, and revenues of the

state, and decide appeals of small value. Five *proveditors* confirm, by a majority of votes, the proceedings of the administration.

Civil causes, and particularly those relating to debts, are first heard before six consuls, or senators, from whom there lies an appeal to the college of thirty, and from them again, in particular cases, to the council. In criminal causes special judges are appointed. There are likewise three commissioners for the woollen trade; a board of health, consisting of five nobles, who endeavour to preserve the city from all contagious diseases; and four patrons of eminence manage the taxes, excise, and mint.

As the Ragusans are unable to protect themselves, they make use of their wealth to procure them protectors, the chief of whom is the grand seignior. They are said to pay tribute to the Turks out of fear; to the Venetians out of hatred; to the pope, emperor, Spain, and Naples, out of respect and political views. The tribute to the Porte, with the expences of the annual embassy, amounts to about twenty thousand sequins, worth about nine shillings and two-pence each. The Turks are indeed of great service to them, by bringing thither all kinds of necessaries, especially fire-arms and military stores; and the Ragusans keep so watchful an eye over their freedom, that the gates of Ragusa, their capital, are allowed to be open only a few hours in the day.

They profess the Romish religion; but the Greeks, Armenians, and Turks are tolerated. The language chiefly in use among the Ragusans is the Sclavonian, but the greatest part of them also speak the Italian. Almost all the citizens are traders, and this place is distinguished by the fineness of its manufactures. As its territory is but small, it has but few places of note worthy of a particular description, besides its capital.

The city of Ragusa was built a considerable time before the birth of our Saviour, and was antiently called Epidaurus. It at length became a Roman colony, and in the third century was demolished by the Scythians. It stands in the peninsula of Sabioncello in the gulph of Venice, in the forty-second degree forty-eight minutes north latitude, and in the eighteenth degree forty minutes east longitude from London. Though it is not large it is well-built, and has some beautiful edifices. This city, which is the see of an archbishop, is defended by strong bulwarks, and the fortrefs of St. Nicholas secures its harbour against any hostile attempts. Its port, which is called Santa Croie, or the Holy Cross, is secured on one side by the little rocky island of Chiroma, which lies in the sea about half a mile distant, and the headland of the peninsula on the other: the latter is well fortified, and were the former so it would be impregnable. The city is surrounded with large suburbs, and has a garrison of about two hundred men; the burghers also keeping a constant guard.

The city of Gravosa is also situated on the peninsula of Sabioncello, and has the best harbour on all the coast. The entrance to it is very commodious, broad, deep, and well secured. It is ornamented with ravishing prospects of the adjacent mountains, which are covered with fine vineyards, gardens, and summer-houses, to which the Ragusans retire for the sake of pleasure.

There are also five small islands subject to the Ragusans, the principal of which is Melida, which some learned men suppose to be the island of Melita upon which St. Paul was shipwrecked; but this is not probable. It is about twenty-five miles in length, and abounds in oranges, citrons, wine, and fish. It has a small town of the same name, together with six villages and fine pastures.

C H A P. IX.

Of the GERMAN EMPIRE.

S E C T. I.

Of GERMANY in general.

Its Names, Situation, Extent, Climate, Mountains, Rivers, Woods, Fruit, Corn, and other Vegetables; Beasts, Birds, and Fishes; with the Produce of the Mineral Kingdom.

GERMANY, which is called by the French *Allemagne*, and by the natives themselves *Deutschland*, is bounded by France, the Netherlands, and the German sea on the west; by South Jutland and the Baltic on the north; by Polish Prussia, Poland, and Hungary on the east; and by the gulph of Venice, the dominions of the state of Venice and Swisserland on the south; extending from the forty-fifth degree four minutes to the fifty-fourth degree forty minutes north latitude, and from the sixth degree to the nineteenth degree forty-five minutes east longitude; and accordingly its greatest extent from north to south is six hundred and forty English miles in length, and five hundred and fifty in breadth.

Though Germany in general may be said to enjoy a temperate air, yet with respect to its purity, warmth, and healthfulness, it is very different; both from the southerly or northerly situation of the places of the country, from the proximity and distance of the sea, and from the difference of the soil. Thus the level parts enjoy a different air from the mountains, and the places where the soil is deep, moist, and marshy is different from the more elevated, dry, and sandy. Hence the produce of the trees, fields, and gardens ripen in different parts at different times.

Germany has many mountains, for Bohemia is principally environed with them; it is separated from Silesia by those called the *Riesengebirge*, and a still more considerable range of mountains parts Silesia and Moravia. In the very heart of Silesia are also many large mountains, and the countries in the circle of Austria are mostly mountainous. The Upper Palatinate has likewise many mountainous and hilly tracts, and the bishopric of *Salzburg* is also very mountainous. *Franconia*, both within the country and on its borders, has a considerable number of mountains; and in *Swabia* are large ranges of them, with many single ones. The Upper and Lower Rhine are also mountainous, and particularly the electorate of *Cologne*. In the circle of *Westphalia* are some mountainous tracts, and in Lower Saxony the *Hartz* are famous. In Upper Saxony are likewise many mountainous tracts; but the highest mountains in Germany do not exceed four thousand five hundred feet in height.

In several of the mountains are remarkable caverns and natural grottos, of which we shall give a description in their place.

The principal rivers in Germany are the *Danube*, the *Rhine*, the *Mayne*, the *Elbe*, the *Oder*, and the *Weser*.

This country was antiently very woody, and is still in general well provided with useful woods; but these are daily growing thinner, and in many parts timber is wanted for building and fuel. The German woods yield oak, beech, pine, white and red fir, limes, alder, ash, black poplar, larch, plane trees, chestnut trees, and olive trees; and for the cultivation of silk a great number of white mulberry trees are planted.

Germany is provided with all the necessaries and conveniencies of life; its soil indeed is not every where fertile, but the barrenness of one place is made up by the fruitfulness of another. Agriculture is here daily improving, and the lands are rendered more fertile, rich, and beautiful. It yields plenty of all kinds of grain, as common wheat, Turkey wheat, rye, spelt, barley, oats, peas, beans, vetches, lentils, chiches, millet, and buckwheat, of which it is able to export a vast quantity: manna

is also found there. The Germans likewise cultivate hops, anise, cummin, flax, hemp, tobacco, madder, woad, saffron, and bastard saffron, with truffles, potatoes, and a variety of excellent pot-herbs, fallads, and roots. They have likewise all sorts of common, French, and Italian fruits, as apples, pears, cherries, plumbs, chestnuts, almonds, olives, medlars, figs, peaches, apricots, oranges, lemons, citrons, grapes, nuts, filberts, walnuts, &c.

With respect to the cattle of Germany, there is a prodigious number of horses, cows, sheep, goats, and swine; the marsh lands in the dutchy of *Holstein*, *East Friesland*, and *Bremen* afford cheese and butter in the greatest plenty. The wild beasts are deer, roes, boars, hares, and rabbits; in some places are also bears, wolves, lynxes, foxes, wild cats, badgers, martens, wild goats, and chamois.

Of tame fowl they have plenty of poultry, turkies, pigeons, geese, and ducks; and of those that are wild, swans, bustards, pheasants, woodcocks, partridges, grouse, snipes, larks, fieldfares, ortolans, quails, wild-geese, wild-ducks, the spoonbill, and stork; also the falcon, heron, hawk, &c.

The numerous rivers, brooks, lakes, and ponds in Germany afford sturgeon, salmon, pike, carp, trout, lampreys, eel-pouts, eels, perch, roach, barbel, shads, and on the sea-coast are a great variety of sea-fish.

Of the mineral kingdom, here are many species of marble, some of one colour, and others variegated; alabaster, free-stone, many species of agate, cornelian, chalcedony, onyx, jasper; with various species of crystals and precious stones, as rubies, sapphires, topazes, emeralds, chrysolites, amethysts, granates, hyacinths, turquoises, and carbuncles. Here are likewise vitriol, allum, salt-petre, sal-gem, and spring salt, petroleum, coals, black amber, sulphur, quicksilver, and also virgin silver, arsenic, cobalt, antimony, bismuth, calamy, and mock-lead; and of metals, gold, silver, copper, and iron.

S E C T. II.

The Persons and Manners of the Germans in general. Their Skill in the Polite Arts, Manufactures, Commerce and Coins.

THE Germans are generally tall and well made, and it is easy to observe amongst them a remarkable difference with respect to their character, temper, and manner of life, which is an evident proof of their consisting of several distinct nations. They are, however, in general, very remarkable for their honesty and fairness in their dealings. Both the ancient and the present Germans have been long distinguished for their hospitality. *Julius Cæsar* observes, that in his time their houses were open to all men, who were welcome to such entertainment as they found provided. That they esteemed it a piece of injustice to affront a traveller, and thought it a necessary act of religion to protect those who came under their roof. The present Germans have not degenerated from their ancestors, and a stranger is sure to be every where well entertained. The courage and bravery both of the ancient and present Germans were never disputed. The Germans have also the honour of having almost all the kingdoms in Europe owe to German blood their crowned heads, particularly *Great-Britain* and *Ireland*, *Denmark*, and *Norway*, *Sweden*, *Poland*, *Hungary*, *Prussia*, *Bohemia*, and *Russia*.

With respect to learning, the Germans are not inferior to any other nations; for not only their natural fondness for imitation, but the variety of governments, their



A New Map
of the
EMPIRE
of
GERMANY
Divided into
CIRCLES
Drawn from the best
Authorities

German Miles to a Degree
5 10 15 30
British Miles to a Degree
10 20 40 60 80 100 120 140



their mutual emulation, and the freedom protestants enjoy of writing according to their own judgment, have procured the greatest improvement in the sciences. The pleasure they take in reading is so great, and general, particularly among the protestants, that it is thought unbecoming even the female sex, and persons of any rank, not to be conversant with books. Nor is there any place in the world where more books are written and printed; and though this gives rise to many mean performances, they have a great number of very excellent works; and there are at present many German authors justly esteemed for their genius and abilities.

As to the vices of the Germans, they have been censured for their drunkenness; but they do not seem to be more guilty of this vice than their northern neighbours, or indeed than the English: that there are persons of high rank there, as well as country squires among us, who will insist upon bumpers going round, and will glory in drinking deeper than their companions, cannot be disputed; but this is far from being a national vice; and both there and in Great-Britain it is less common than formerly.

Their drink is beer and wine, as with us; but they have the latter upon much easier terms; for they have not only Moselle, Rhenish, and other wines of their own growth; but those of Hungary, France, and Italy, which lie contiguous to them, where the best wines are produced.

Their ordinary food is beef, mutton, fowls, &c. as among us, which are generally more thoroughly boiled and roasted than in England. They have also one dish, which was esteemed a dainty by the ancient Romans, as it is by them, and that is snails, which are dressed in various manners, and eaten at the tables of the quality as a great rarity: they are fed for this purpose, so as to grow to an extraordinary size; and there is scarce a nobleman's garden that has not a place set apart for breeding and fattening them.

Among the other peculiarities, instead of the cheerful fire-side, which enlivens our winter evenings, they heat their rooms with stoves. And they not only sleep on a feather-bed as we do, but, instead of blankets, have a light feather-bed covering too; which is placed upon the upper sheet, and is covered with a counterpane.

Among the diversions practised by the great, is hunting the wild boar, and, in winter, riding through the streets on the snow, in sledges drawn by horses richly accoutred, and adorned with bells and feathers.

In Germany are thirty-six universities, seventeen of which belong to the protestants, and the same number to the Roman Catholics; with two other mixed ones, those of Erfurth and Heidelberg. They have also a number of academies for the sciences, and many colleges and schools. The Germans have particularly distinguished themselves by their knowledge in the civil law, natural history, and the various branches of philosophy.

The French had formerly the reputation of excelling all other nations in the polite arts; but at present they are nearly equalled by the Germans.

In the polite arts, they excel in music, and boast the works of Telemann, Handel, Graun, Bach, and Haffé. Some of their poets have excelled most of the European nations in the sublimity of their thoughts, and the mingled strength and sweetness of their language. With respect to painting, they claim the first place after the Italians, and justly boast their Peter Paul Rubens, John Calker, and several others. The first copper plates appeared in Germany; Albert Durer also etched in copper before the Italians; and metzotinto was discovered by Von Sichen, an Hessian lieutenant, in 1648, but others say by prince Rupert: wooden cuts were also the invention of a German. The first discovery of the art of printing cannot with justice be refused the Germans; and Berthold Schwartz, in the thirteenth century, discovered at Cologne how gunpowder might be made serviceable in the art of war.

With respect to mechanics and manufactures, the Germans at present make velvets, beautiful silks, rich stuffs, and half silks, with a variety of woollen stuffs, and all manner of cloths, ribbons, lace, very large

quantities of linen, fustian, embroidered work, fine hats, and tapestry; they also print cotton in a beautiful manner, make Spanish rough and smooth leather; and are well skilled in the art of dying. They work all sorts of metals for ornaments, vessels, tools, wire, &c. in the best manner; and Augsburg in particular is famous for its performances in silver. They are well skilled in the working of brass and arms. They make glass, and beautiful mirrors of all sizes; fine works in lacquer, and a variety of porcelain, among which the Misnian is said to be the finest in the world. In short, Nuremburg is famous for a variety of ingenious works in wood, ivory, metal, stone, glass, &c. which are exported to all parts of the earth.

With respect to commerce, Germany enjoys every advantage; for it not only borders on the German ocean, the Baltic, and the gulf of Venice, but is watered by many navigable rivers; and being situated in the heart of Europe, can commodiously export the superfluity of its home commodities and manufactures, and receive those of foreign countries.

About the middle of the thirteenth century, many towns in Germany, as well as in other countries lying on the German ocean and the Baltic, entered into a mutual league with each other for the promotion of trade and navigation, and were thence called Hanse towns. Though their trade fell to decay in the fifteenth century, and the name of the league in that time ceased, yet the trading towns of Hamburg, Lubec, and Bremen, are still called Hanse-Towns, and have a league actually subsisting between them, under the name of which they conclude treaties of commerce with foreign powers. Hamburg is the most important trading town in all Germany, and is chiefly indebted to navigation for its fame, as being the most resorted to by the English and Dutch of all the towns in Germany. The other principal trading towns are Francfort on the Mayne, Leipzig, Nuremburg, Augsburg, Vienna, Fiume, and Trieste, which last is a free port. Several towns have likewise the privilege of holding fairs; of these, Francfort on the Mayne has the greatest, and the next to it is Leipzig. The other fairs are kept at Francfort on the Oder, Naumburg, Brunswick, and Mentz.

The goods exported from Germany into the neighbouring and remote countries are corn, wine, particularly the Rhenish and Moselle, tobacco, horses, lean cattle, butter, cheese, honey, syrup, linen, woollen stuffs, yarn, ribbons, silk and cotton stuffs, wool, Nuremburg wares, wood of various sorts, particularly timber fit for ship-building, iron plates and stoves, cannon, ball, bombs, grenades, tin-plates, steel-work, copper, brass wire, porcelain, earthen ware, mirrors, glasses, beer, Brunswick mum, hogs bristles, tartar, smalt, zaffer, Prussian blue, printers ink, and many other articles.

With respect to the coins in Germany, it is proper to observe, that the emperor, with the electors, the chief part of the princes of the empire, several prelates, abbesses, counts, barons, some of the gentry, and the imperial cities, enjoy the privilege of coining money; but with this distinction, that some are entitled to coin only small money, others to coin also a larger species, and that either of silver alone, or of gold also. Yet many states of the empire, in order to save expences, seldom make use of this privilege. One or two days are appointed every year in each circle to be held by the mint masters for the examination of the coin; and the emperor has engaged that they shall be regularly held in every circle. All the money in the empire ought likewise to be coined of the same standard, and to be of one weight and intrinsic value: at present, by virtue of a resolution of the diet of 1737, this standard ought to be that of Leipzig; but neither this, nor the other regulations of the empire, with respect to coinage, have been able to prevent its debasement.

In Hamburg and Lubec they reckon by marks, shillings, and pfennings: one mark, which is one shilling and six pence sterling, makes sixteen shillings, one shilling twelve pfennings; but this pfenning is no real coin; forty-eight shillings, or three marks, make one rix-dollar. The current heavy money of this country is generally

rally twenty-five *per cent.* better than the light current coin of Germany.

In Bremen they reckon by rixdollars, grots, and schwars: one rixdollar worth four shillings and sixpence makes one and a half double, and three single Bremen marks, seventy-two grots, or three hundred and sixty schwars.

In Leipzig, and in all the electoral countries of Saxony, as also at Naumburg, Berlin, Magdeburg, and Francfort on the Oder, they reckon by rixdollars, gut-groschen and pfennings; that is, one rixdollar, which is there an imaginary coin, contains one imperial florin and a half, or twenty four gut-groschen; and one gut-groschen twelve pfennings. An imperial florin contains sixteen gut-groschen; a one third piece, eight groschen; and one sixth piece, four gut-groschen.

At Francfort on the Mayne they reckon in rixdollars, kreutzers, and pfennings: one rixdollar makes one florin and a half, four head-pieces and a half, twenty-two batzes and a half, thirty imperial grosches, and forty-five albus, or white pfennings.

At Nuremburg, Augsbourg, Vienna, Prague, &c. they reckon by imperial guldens, or florins, kreutzers, and pfennings: one imperial florin, or two-third piece, makes fifteen batzes, sixty kreutzers, twenty imperial grosches, or two hundred and forty pfennings.

In Breslau, and all Silesia, they reckon by rixdollars, silver groschen, and pfennings: one rix-dollar contains thirty imperial or silver grosches or bohms, forty-five white grosches, ninety kreutzers, an hundred and twenty grosches, an hundred and eighty dreyers, and three hundred and sixty pfennings.

In Brunswic, and many other places in Lower Saxony, as also in the whole circle of Westphalia, they reckon by rixdollars, marien-groschen, and also by gut-groschen and pfennings: one rixdollar makes twenty-four gut-groschen, thirty-six marien-groschen, or two hundred eighty-eight pfennings; one marien-grosche contains two matters, or eight pfennings.

At Cologne on the Rhine, they reckon by rixdollars, albus, and hellers; as also in esses, and pfennings Flemish: one rixdollar current makes one imperial florin and a half, four head-pieces and a half, forty-eight Brabant styvers, fifty-eight and a half Cleve styvers, seventy-eight albus, and an hundred and seventeen fetmanger.

It is observable, that the rixdollar which at Hamburg, Altena, Lubec, Bremen, &c. is worth four shillings and sixpence, goes in most parts of Germany for no more than three shillings and sixpence.

S E C T. III.

An Abstract of the ancient and modern History of the Germans.

THE Germans were, in the early ages of the world, divided into many petty nations and principalities, some governed by kings whose power was limited, and others were absolute; some of their princes were elective, and others hereditary; and some aristocratical and democratical governments were also found among them. Many of these states and kingdoms frequently united under one head or general, both in their offensive and defensive wars.

This was the state of the Germans before they were conquered by the Romans. At that time the children went naked, and the men hung the skin of some wild beast upon their shoulders, fastening it with a thong; and persons of the best quality wore only a little woollen mantle or a coat without sleeves. Their usual bed was the ground, a little straw, or the skins of wolves or bears. Their food was bread, flesh-meat, butter, and fruit, as at present, and their drink water, milk, and beer; for in those early ages they were strangers to the use of wine. They were usually very merry at their entertainments, sitting in a semi-circle, with the master of the family in the middle, and the rest on the right and left, according to their quality; but to these feasts no women were admitted, nor a son under twenty years of age.

They expressed an extraordinary regard for morality, and were very strict in divine worship, choosing their priests out of the nobility, who were not entirely ignorant of moral philosophy and physics, and were usually called to councils of state. Women were likewise admitted to the priestly office, and both the one and the other were treated with the most profound respect by the laity. The doctrine of transmigration then prevailed in Germany; they believed that departed souls, when they had left these bodies, animated other creatures; and, according as they behaved in this life, were happy or miserable. Cluverius observes, that they worshipped the sun with such devotion, that they seemed to acknowledge that planet as the supreme God, and to it dedicated the first day of the week. They also worshipped Woden, or Godan, after whom the fourth day of the week was called Wednesday. It is said that this word Godan becoming afterwards contracted into God, the Germans and English gave that name to the Deity. They also worshipped the god Faranes, the same with the Danish Thor, the Thunderer, from whom our Thursday has its name. The goddess Freia, or Venus, gave her name to Friday; and Tuisko, the same with Mars, gave name to Tuesday.

Like the antient Britons they performed their sacrifices in groves, the oak being usually chosen for an altar; and, instead of a temple, they erected an arbour made of the boughs of the oak and beech. The priests, as well as the sacrifice, were always crowned with wreaths of oak, or of some other sacred tree. They sacrificed not only beasts, but men; and these human sacrifices were taken from among their slaves or malefactors. Their belief that their souls should animate other bodies after death, it is said made them fearless of danger, and upon extraordinary occasions they made no scruple of dispatching themselves into the other world. They burnt their dead bodies, and having gathered up the bones and ashes of the funeral pile, buried them together; and at the funerals of the great were tiltings and songs, sung in memory of their heroic actions.

These were the manners of the Germans before they were subdued by the Romans, who met with such resistance, that they were contented with making the Rhine and the Danube the boundaries of their conquests; and accordingly built fortresses, and planted garrisons on the banks of both those rivers, to prevent the incursions of what they termed the barbarous nations: but within about a hundred years after Constantine the Great, the Franks, Burgundians, Alemans, and other German nations broke through those boundaries, passed the Rhine, and dispossessed the Romans of all Gaul, Rhætia, and Noricum, which they shared among them; but the Franks prevailing over the rest, at length established their empire over all Modern Germany, France, and Italy, under the conduct of Charlemagn, or Charles the Great.

The conquered German nations had at first hereditary dukes of their own, and were governed by their own laws; but Charles put an end to the former, and governed the countries by counts and royal missionaries. However, the antient diets were still retained. In the year 800, Charles revived and conferred the dignity of Roman emperor upon himself and family: but his son Lewis divided the empire among his sons; upon which great troubles arose, which, in 843, were adjusted by an accommodation; by which Lewis the German obtained all Germany as far as the Rhine, with the three towns of Spire, Worms, and Mentz; and thus Germany became an independent kingdom. In 870, Lewis reduced half of the Lotharingian kingdom under his subjection, and his son Lewis, the younger, nine years after reduced the other.

Lewis the Younger sharing his paternal kingdom with both his brothers, Carlman became king of Bavaria, Lewis of East Franconia, and Charles the Fat of Alemannia; the last surviving his brothers, not only inherited their kingdoms, but obtained the imperial dignity, together with all Italy and France: yet governed in so weak a manner, that in 887 he was deposed by the German states, who constituted Arnulph, Carlman's natural son, king of Germany. This prince beat the Normans, who had made great devastations in Germany; and, by the

the assistance of the Huns, subdued the Bohemians. But afterwards, by the death of his son Lewis the Child, his family became extinct. Germany was at that time an hereditary kingdom, but the power of its monarchs was limited by the diets. The several territories belonging to it were governed under the king by counts, among whom the margraves defended the borders against hostile attacks.

The German states now raised a Frankish lord, named Conrad, to the throne, he being descended from the daughter of Lewis the First. Conrad was succeeded by his enemy Henry duke of Saxony, whom on his death-bed he recommended to the states.

In Henry II. the male race of the Saxon kings and emperors ended in 1024, during which time Germany continued an hereditary kingdom. The states afterwards assembling at Tribus in the open fields on the banks of the Rhine, elected Conrad II. for their king, who being also acknowledged by the states of Italy, he likewise obtained the imperial dignity. By means of his son he annexed the kingdom of Burgundy to the empire, rendered Poland subject to his dominion, and in a treaty with Denmark appointed the Eider as the boundary of the German empire.

Henry III. deposed three popes who had set up against each other, appointing a fourth in their stead; since which time the vacancy of the papal chair has always been intimated to the emperor, who sends a person to Rome to desire that a new pope may be elected.

Henry IV. his son, was, however, put under the ban by the pope, on which he was deposed by the states.

Henry V. succeeded his father, but was obliged to renounce all pretensions to the investiture of bishoprics, which had been claimed by his ancestors; and in him became extinct the male line of the Frankish emperors.

Upon this the pope caused Lotharius, duke of Saxony, to be elected; but he was not acknowledged by all Germany for their sovereign, till after a ten years war. After him Conrad of Hohenstaufen succeeded to the crown. The emperor Frederic I. effectually exercised his sovereignty over the see of Rome, by virtue of his coronation at Arles, reserving also his dominion over that kingdom, and obliging Poland to pay him tribute, and take an oath of allegiance. Henry VI. attempted in vain to render the crown hereditary in his family. Philip, the brother of Henry, succeeded him; but refusing to acknowledge the pope's supremacy, was excommunicated, and Otho, duke of Brunswic, set up against him by the pope and the electors. The whole empire was engaged in this dispute in a bloody war, till Philip being treacherously assassinated in his bed, Otho became possessed of the whole empire; but he had not reigned four years, before he was deposed by the pope and the electors, and Frederic, king of Sicily, advanced to the imperial dignity.

Frederic II. whom historians extol for his learning, wisdom, and resolution, was five times excommunicated by three popes; but prevailed so far against pope Gregory IX. as to depose him from the papal chair. These continual contests between him and the popes gave rise to the two famous factions of the Guelphs and Gibellines; the former adhering to the papal see, and the latter to the emperors. Frederic having reigned thirty-eight years, died, or, as some say, was poisoned, in Italy; after which the empire remained in great confusion for upwards of twenty years, there being no less than six competitors for the imperial dignity.

Germany began to recover from its distracted state in 1273, when count Rodolphus of Hapsburg was advanced to the imperial dignity, the other electors leaving the choice to the palgrave Lewis; and from him the house of Austria sprung.

Count Adolphus of Nassau was also, by virtue of a compromise, created emperor by the elector of Mentz; but he so disgusted the electors of the empire, that they made choice of Albert the son of Rodolphus for their sovereign, who defeated Adolphus in a pitched battle, and slew him with his own hand. Albert's coronation was confirmed by the pope; but he was afterwards murdered by his nephew and three assassins.

On the death of Albert, in 1308, Henry, count of Lutzelburg, was created emperor: he was famed for his wisdom, temper, and courage; but was poisoned by a Franciscan friar with the consecrated elements. The emperor no sooner perceived what was done, than he generously advised the villain to make his escape; but neglecting to perform it, he was taken and flayed alive.

Ludowic, or Lewis of Bavaria, after an interregnum of some years, was chosen emperor, by a majority of the electors, in 1318; but Frederic, duke of Austria, son of the late emperor, was set up by a contrary faction. Frederic's forces were defeated, and Lewis remained sole emperor. After his death Charles IV. was unanimously elected emperor, and distinguished himself by drawing up the golden bull, or those regulations for the election of an emperor, which are still observed. Charles lived to see his son Wenzel, or Wenceslaus, elected king of the Romans. This prince, who was the fourth son of Charles, at his father's desire, succeeded to the empire; but, being dissolute and cruel, was deposed, after he had reigned twenty-two years.

Charles was succeeded by three other princes, whose reigns were short; and at length, in 1411, Sigismund was unanimously chosen emperor, who, in 1414, proclaimed a general council to be held at Constance, in which three popes were deposed, and a new one set up. At this council those reformers John Hufs and Jerom of Prague were condemned and burnt, though this emperor had granted them a passport, and was engaged in honour and conscience for their safe return to their country; which so exasperated the Hussites of Bohemia, that they raised a formidable army, and, under the conduct of Zisca, their general, defeated his forces in fourteen battles. Frederic, duke of Austria, son-in-law to the emperor Sigismund, was chosen emperor upon the death of his father, and reigned fifty-three years. His son Maximilian was chosen king of the Romans during his father's life-time, and afterwards obtained from the pope the imperial crown; and during his reign the empire was divided into ten circles.

Charles V. surnamed the Great, son to Philip king of Spain, and grand-son to Maximilian, was elected emperor in 1519. He procured Luther's doctrine to be condemned, and in his reign the disciples of that great reformer obtained the name of Protestants, from their protesting against a decree of the imperial diet in favour of the Catholics. He is said to have been victorious in seventy battles: he had the pope and French king prisoners at the same time, and carried his arms into Africa, where he conquered the kingdom of Tunis. He drove the Turks from the siege of Vienna, made war on the protestant princes, and took the elector of Saxony and the prince of Hesse prisoners; but, after a reign of thirty-eight years, he resigned his empire to his brother Ferdinand, and retired into a convent in Spain.

Ferdinand I. distinguished himself by establishing the aulic council of the empire: he was a peaceful prince, and used to assign a part of the day to hear the complaints of his people. Maximilian II. and his son Rodolphus II. were both elected king of the Romans, but the latter could not be prevailed upon to allow a successor to be chosen in his life-time. He was succeeded by his brother Matthias, in whose capitulation it was for the first time inserted, that the electors for the future should be entitled to elect a king of the Romans even against the will of his father.

In the reign of Ferdinand II. broke out the thirty years war, in which he endeavoured to destroy the Protestants, and which was put an end to by his son Ferdinand III. in the year 1648, by the peace of Westphalia, by which the Protestants were secured in their religious and civil privileges. This emperor conferred on duke Ernest Augustus of Brunswic Lunenburg the ninth electoral dignity, and was succeeded by his son Joseph, king of the Romans. This last was followed by his brother Charles VI. who in the year 1713 published the ordinance called the pragmatic sanction, to secure his hereditary dominions in his family, and died in 1740, without male heirs. In 1742 Charles VII. of Bavaria was chosen emperor, by the suspension of the vote of Bohemia; but, after an un-

happy reign, in which he was continually at war, he died in 1745, and was succeeded by Francis I. grand duke of Tuscany, and duke of Lorrain, who had married the queen of Bohemia, the daughter of Charles VI.

SECT. IV.

Of the Election and Coronation of the Emperor; his Power, and the Power and Privileges of the States of the Empire and the Diet.

THE empire is elective, and every new king of the Romans is obliged solemnly to renounce all attempts of rendering it hereditary in his family. The laws of the empire make no limitation with respect to religion, nation, state, or age. The choice is settled by the majority of the electors, and declared by the elector of Mentz, within a month after an account is received of the former emperor's death, by means of envoys and public rescripts to each elector. The ceremony of election is performed at Frankfort on the Mayne; where the electors appear, either in person, or send two or three envoys, who must be provided with sufficient powers. After settling the deliberations, as well relating to the capitulation of election, as to other matters proposed by the states, foreign envoys, and others, all the foreigners who do not belong to the retinue of the electors, or their envoys, are ordered to leave the town before the day of election; after which all the electors present, with the first envoys of such as are absent, march in their electoral habits in procession on horseback, the three ecclesiastical electors wearing scarlet robes, with caps lined with ermine, and the robes of the secular electors of crimson velvet lined also with ermine, each with his hereditary marshal carrying a sword in a scabbard before him; but this honour is not paid to the deputies of the absent electors. In this manner they proceed from the council-house to St. Bartholomew's church, where alighting at the gate, they go to their respective seats in the choir, followed by several princes and counts of the empire, the several sword-bearers standing before their respective electors, with their swords drawn and laid on their shoulders. The service begins with *Veni Creator*, and the Protestant electors withdraw till mass is over; after which they return, and they all solemnly take an oath before the altar, to elect the fittest person to be emperor, and then shut themselves up in the chapel of election, which is a small vaulted gallery, to which there is an entrance from the choir. When they have once more sworn to stand to a plurality of votes, these votes are collected by the elector of Mentz, according to the rank of the electors; and then the elector of Mentz is asked by the elector of Saxony for his vote. Whoever has above half the voices of the college is elected, and an elector may even vote for himself.

The election being over, the person elected, or his proxy, must immediately swear and subscribe to the capitulation of election, which being done, he receives the congratulations of the electors, and the choice is made public in the church. If the elected king of the Romans be not present in person, he must give a counter-bond that he will maintain the capitulation of election, and, before his coronation, must swear to it in person; and, till this is done, he cannot assume the government, but must leave it to the vicars of the empire. An authentic copy of the capitulation of election, subscribed by the person elected, or his envoy, and confirmed by his seal, is delivered to each of the electors; and, on the other hand, the electoral college causes to be delivered to the person elected an instrument of his election, which, when he is absent, is carried to him by a prince, with a writing of notification. Upon this he appoints a day for his coronation, which ought to be performed at Aix la Chapelle, but at present is always held in the town of election.

Part of the jewels of the empire are kept at Aix, and part at Nuremberg. Most of them belonged to Charlemagne, and are solemnly delivered up at the place of coronation. Exclusive of several kinds of vestments, there are the crown and sceptre, with two rings, one imperial monde, two broad swords, one small one, a book of the gospels, &c.

At the coronation the temporal electors, or their ambassadors, attend the person elected from his palace to the church, in the following order; the elector Palatine with the crown, the elector of Bavaria with the monde, or globe, and the elector of Brandenburg with the sceptre, march first, abreast; the elector of Saxony carries the sword, and the elector of Hanover the standard. At the door of the church he is received by the three ecclesiastical electors in their robes, who attend him to the altar; and having taken a general oath as a ruler, and also promised due veneration to the pope and the church, the archbishop who officiates, anoints his head, and between his shoulders, his neck, breast, and right arm; then being clothed in the ancient imperial robes, he is brought to another altar, and once more sworn; he is then crowned, and afterwards conducted to the throne, where the archbishop bids him receive and keep the pledge which was designed for him by Providence. *Te Deum* is then sung, and the trumpets and other music proclaim the general joy. After which he dubs some knights, is made a canon of the collegiate church of St. Mary at Aix la Chapelle, and is then conducted on foot, in solemn procession, to the council-house to a table, at which the hereditary officers attend.

Till the reign of Charles V. the emperors suffered themselves to be crowned at Rome by the pope, and then styled themselves Roman emperors. The emperor, immediately on his entering on the government, shews his veneration to the pope by an embassy. The title of king of Italy and Lombardy, if we except twenty-one fiefs of the empire, that lie in the ecclesiastical state, is merely titular.

The emperor's title runs thus, "F. by the grace of God elected a Roman emperor, and at all times augmentor of the empire of Germany." Next follow the titles of the hereditary imperial dominions. The states of the empire give the emperor the title of most illustrious, most powerful, and most invincible Roman emperor; but the last is omitted by the electors.

The arms of the emperor and empire are a black spread eagle with two heads, hovering with expanded wings in a field of gold, and over the head of the eagle is seen the imperial crown. To these are annexed the arms of the several hereditary countries.

The prerogatives of the emperor consist partly in his being looked upon by all other crowned heads and states in Europe as the first European potentate, and consequently has precedence given him and his ambassadors. With respect to the German empire, he is its supreme head, and as such enjoys many privileges. Yet his power in the administration of the German empire is limited both by the capitulation of the election, the other laws of the empire, by treaties, and by the customs of the empire. Those privileges which he has the right of exercising without the advice of the states, are called his *reservata*; but his greatest power does not consist in these, which are far from being repugnant to the liberties of the states of the empire.

His rights, with respect to ecclesiastical affairs, consist in little more than confirming ecclesiastical elections, and sending commissaries to the elections of archbishops, bishops, and abbots, that they may be performed in due order; but the commissary is never personally present at these elections.

With respect to temporal affairs, the emperor has the right of bestowing personal dignities; as for instance, the creating of noblemen, as lords, barons, counts, who enjoy the dignity of princes, and of knights and gentry; as also that of raising countries and territories to a higher rank; of bestowing coats of arms, as also the enlarging, improving, and altering them. He has the power of establishing universities, and enabling them to confer academical degrees; of granting a right of holding fairs and markets, and of erecting any place into a sanctuary. He has likewise the power of bestowing letters of respite, of securing a debtor against his creditor, and of conferring majority on minors. He can put children who are born out of wedlock upon the footing of such as are legitimate; can confirm the contracts and stipulations of the members of the empire; and so far remit the oaths extorted from them, that they may com-

commence an action at law against another, on account of the very thing for which the oath was administered.

The emperor, however, has no right, without the consent of the collective states of the empire, to put one of those states under the ban; to exclude a state of the empire from a seat and voice in its colleges; to interfere in the laws of the empire; to conclude treaties in affairs relating to the empire; to involve it in a war; to raise levies; or to conclude a peace in which the empire is concerned; to appoint taxes in it; to regulate the coinage; to build forts in the empire; or to determine religious disputes.

The successor in the administration is frequently chosen by the electors during the life of the emperor, and the person so chosen styled King of the Romans. He is elected and crowned in the very same manner as the emperor; and though he has properly no kingdom, is actually a crowned head; is saluted with the title of Majesty, and enjoys the title of *Perpetual Augmenter of the empire*, and king of Germany. He bears a spread eagle with one head, in his arms, and takes precedence before all other kings of Christendom.

With respect to the emperor's court and chancery, he has for his assistants the arch-offices of the empire, which are filled by electors.

Of the nine electors, three are spiritual, and the rest temporal; of the former is the elector of Mentz, who is arch-chancellor of the holy Roman empire, and director of the electoral college: this prince, besides the offices he enjoys at the coronation, as already mentioned, has the general direction, and is not to be controuled by the emperor; he lays before that body the grievances of the separate states. Before him, or his envoys, all those of the states of the empire, as well as of foreign powers, legitimate themselves. He nominates the vice-chancellor of the empire, who must take an oath to him as well as the emperor. He likewise appoints all officers for the chancery of the empire, and has supreme jurisdiction over them, and also the inspection of the archives of the empire.

The elector of Treves, who is the second spiritual elector, is the arch-chancellor of the holy Roman empire in Gaul and the kingdom of Arles, but this is at present no more than a mere title. He has the first voice at the election of a king of the Romans, and constantly precedes the elector of Cologne.

The elector of Cologne is arch-chancellor of the holy Roman empire in Italy, and has a second voice at the election of a king of the Romans. When the emperor is crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, and in the archbishopric of Cologne, he has the right of performing the coronation alone; but if it happen in a third place, that is neither in his archbishopric, nor in that of Mentz, he exchanges therein with the elector of Mentz.

The temporal electors are the following: The king of Bohemia, the elector of Bavaria, the elector of Saxony, the elector of Brandenburg, the elector Palatine, and the elector of Hanover.

The king and elector of Bohemia is arch-cup-bearer of the holy Roman empire, and as such, presents to the emperor the chalice, filled with wine and water, and hands the first liquor to the table in a silver cup, which weighs twelve marks, or about ninety-six ounces English, which afterwards, together with the horse, becomes the property of his vicar. His other prerogatives are, his preceding all other temporal electors, walking in procession immediately after the emperor, followed by the empress, and the electors of Mentz and Cologne; and in the electoral college he has a third voice.

The elector of Bavaria is arch-sewer of the holy Roman empire. At the coronation he carries the monde before the emperor, ranks next to Bohemia, and at the imperial coronation places four silver dishes, weighing twelve marks, on the imperial table, and serves up the first course.

The elector of Saxony is arch-marshal of the holy Roman empire. At the diets, and on other solemn occasions, he carries the sword of state before the emperor, and at the coronation rides into a heap of oats, and fills a silver measure with them. At the diets he appoints

quarters for the electors, or their envoys; and during the holding of the diets, has jurisdiction over all electoral, and other officers of the empire.

The elector of Brandenburg is arch-chamberlain of the empire, and carries the scepter before the emperor, and presents him with water in a silver basin, for him to wash his hands.

The elector Palatine has the office of arch-treasurer, and throughout all Germany is protector of the order of St. John; he can also raise nobles and gentlemen to the degree of counts.

The elector of Bavaria being put under the ban of the empire, and the Palatine obtaining the office of arch-sewer, the elector of Brunswick Lunenburg also obtained the office of arch-treasurer, a title which he still bears, till another suitable office be found him. He enjoys the alternate succession of the bishopric of Osnaburg, with some other rights and privileges; and his electoral jurisdiction extends both to the territories of Hanover and Zell. Indeed, the emperor Leopold raised the illustrious house of Hanover, on account of the extraordinary services both he and the empire had received from it, to the electoral dignity, so early as the year 1692; but those electors obtained neither a seat nor a voice in the electoral college till the year 1708.

After these follow in rank the princes of the empire, who are partly spiritual, and partly temporal; partly old, and partly new; or first raised to that dignity since the reign of Ferdinand II. The spiritual princes are either archbishops, bishops, or princely abbots; and to them likewise belong the Teutonic masters, together with the mastership of the order of St. John. Among the temporal princes is an arch-duke, and the rest are either dukes, palgraves, margraves, landgraves, burgraves, princes, or princely counts. In the college, or council of the princes of the empire, are three benches: on what is called the spiritual bench, sit the spiritual princes, with the arch-duke of Austria, and that of Burgundy, but in such a manner that Austria daily exchanges the first place with Saltzburg: on the temporal bench sit the other temporal princes; and on the cross bench the bishops of Lubec and Osnaburg, when the latter happens to be a Lutheran.

The diet of the empire is an assembly of the emperor, and of all the states, or their envoys and plenipotentiaries, in order to consult and take resolutions in such affairs as concern the whole German empire. The diet is summoned by the emperor, who, after consulting with the electors, appoints the time and place where it shall meet, which must be within the German dominions. The summons consists of printed patents subscribed by the emperor, and sent in the form of a letter to each state of the empire, briefly declaring the occasion of their meeting, and the most important matters to be transacted. The emperor either assists at it in person, or has a principal commissary, who is generally an old imperial aulic counsellor, and a person of learning raised to the dignity of a baron.

The respective states may either appear themselves, or by their envoys, or charge another state, or its envoys, with their voice. On the side of the states the elector of Mentz, or his envoys, has the general direction; and these envoys shew their credentials to the elector of Mentz, or his envoys, and to the imperial principal commissary.

The states of the empire, in their consultations, divide into three colleges, the electoral, the princely, and the college of the imperial cities; each of the two first, which are called the higher colleges of the empire, has a principal and by-chamber of its own; but all the three colleges meet to hear the imperial proposals, and at the exchanging of the conclusions of both the higher colleges against the imperial cities, in the hall of correlatives.

It ought not to be omitted, that the ecclesiastical and secular princes of the empire, and all prelates who have princely dignities annexed to their functions, with the master of the Teutonic order, have each one single voice; but the rest, who have no temporal principality, give their voices by companies, of which kind are the two benches of the Rhine and Swabia. The representatives,

or the deputies of the imperial cities, form the last and third rank of members in the diet, and are also divided into the Rhenish and Swabian benches. On the first sit the representatives of Lubec, the free cities upon the Rhine, which amount to fifteen; and on the other the representatives of the thirty-seven free cities in Swabia and Franconia. The representatives of the city where the diet is held sit at a table by themselves, and take an account of the voices of the other deputies, which are registered by the two registers of Ulm and Spire, one of them representing the cities in the circle of the Rhine, and the other the cities in the circle of Swabia.

In each college the resolutions are formed by a majority of voices; but when affairs relating to religion are discussed, or where all the Catholics are of one opinion, and all the Protestants of another, it does not turn on a majority of voices.

If the three colleges be unanimous, a judgment of the empire is formed for the use of the emperor, or his principal commissary; but if only two of the colleges are unanimous, their resolution, with the particular conclusion of the third, is delivered into the imperial commission. When the emperor approves either of the judgment of the empire, or the conclusion of two colleges, an obligatory conclusion of the empire arises out of it, and it is immediately put into execution.

SECT. V.

Of the Forces, Taxes, Courts of Justice, and Laws of the Empire.

TAXES and other imposts can no otherwise be laid on the empire in general by the emperor, than with the advice, privity, and consent of the electors, princes, and states, at the general diets. These taxes are partly ordinary, and partly extraordinary: the former, which are styled the chamber-terms, are what each state of the empire is annually to contribute for maintaining the chamber-judicatory of the emperor and empire; and the proportion paid by each state is expressed in the matricula of the chamber. But these chamber-terms are so ill paid, that in 1753 the empire was indebted to the chamber-judicature six hundred and fifty-four thousand and thirteen rixdollars. Indeed many complaints have been made, that the matricula is imperfect, and the states not proportionably rated.

The extraordinary taxes are such as are frequently granted, in case of necessity, by the states, for the support of the emperor, or the army of the empire; for the maintenance or building of its forts; and for a war, particularly against the Turks. These are granted according to what is called in Germany Roman months; a denomination which took its rise from this circumstance: in antient times the emperors, in order to receive the papal coronation, took a journey to Rome, and the German states of the empire were bound to escort them with a certain number of horse and foot for six months, at their own expence; or to pay twelve florins monthly for a horseman, and four for a footman; which money obtained the name of Roman months. This foot, or standard, was afterwards retained, and the rate of each state, either in men or money, is settled in what is termed the matricula of the empire. A Roman month ought to bring in fifty-eight thousand two hundred and eighty florins.

The emperor is not to commence a war of the empire, without the consent of the electors, princes, and states, obtained in an open diet. But when the empire resolves upon a war, the generality of the empire, with the field-marshal at the head, and also the directors and counsellors of the military council, are to be nominated by the emperor and the whole body of the states; and those to an equal number of both religions, who, together with the whole army, are subject to the emperor and empire. The war must also be carried on agreeably to the ordinances of the empire; and the oldest field-marshal, without distinction of religion, must command the army. But at present no directors of the military council are any longer called in, and the war is generally managed by the emperor and his aulic military council.

With respect to the forces which the several princes of the empire are able to maintain and pay, the following calculation has been made:

The elector of Mentz can maintain	- - -	6000
The elector of Triers	- - -	6000
The elector of Cologne	- - -	6000
The bishop of Munster	- - -	8000
The bishop of Liege	- - -	8000
The archbishop of Saltzburg	- - -	8000
The bishop of Wirtzburg	- - -	2000
The bishop of Bamberg	- - -	5000
The bishop of Paderborn	- - -	3000
The bishop of Osnaburg	- - -	2500
The abbot of Fulda	- - -	6000
The other bishoprics of the empire	- - -	6000
The abbies and provostships of the empire	- - -	8000

Total of the ecclesiastical princes 74,500

The emperor for Hungary	- - -	30,000
For Bohemia, Silesia, and Moravia	- - -	30,000
For Austria, and his other dominions	- - -	30,000
The king of Prussia, as elector of Brandenburg	- - -	40,000
The elector of Saxony	- - -	25,000
The elector Palatine	- - -	15,000
The duke of Wirtemberg	- - -	15,000
The Landgrave of Hesse Cassel	- - -	15,000
The prince of Baden	- - -	10,000
The elector of Hanover	- - -	30,000
The duke of Holstein	- - -	12,000
The duke of Mecklenburg	- - -	15,000
The princes of Anhalt	- - -	6000
The prince of Lawenburg	- - -	6000
The elector of Bavaria	- - -	30,000
The dukes of Saxony	- - -	10,000
The princes of Nassau	- - -	10,000
The other princes and imperial towns	- - -	50,000

The secular princes - - - 379,000
The ecclesiastical princes - - - 74,500

453,500

But of the body of men which the empire unanimously agree to send, and promise to supply, one-half seldom actually appear in the field.

With respect to the courts of justice, the principal is the imperial aulic council, which is held at the imperial court, and solely depends on the emperor, who is supreme head and judge, to whom in all matters of importance a judgment is exhibited by the imperial aulic council. This judicatory consists of a president, the imperial aulic vice-chancellor, a vice-president, and a number of imperial aulic counsellors, six of whom are always to be Lutherans; besides these are two secretaries, and a fiscal of the empire. To this class also belong the agents of the imperial aulic council, who give in the writings, urge the resolutions, &c.

The imperial and chamber judicatory of the empire, which is filled by the emperor and states of the empire at the same time, but maintained only by the latter, is at present held in the imperial city of Wetzlar. This judicatory consists of a chamber judge, two presidents of the chamber judicatory, one of whom is a Roman, and the other a Lutheran; as also of seventeen assessors, eight of whom are Lutheran, and nine catholic. To this court also belong a general and advocate fiscal, with thirty procurators, and a number of advocates. The chamber judicatory has also a chancery of its own, and a treasury, and has the direction of the chamber-terms of payment.

The other judicatories are called peculiar or lower, and to these belong the imperial land judicatory in Upper and Lower Swabia, held in the three imperial cities of Ravensburg, Wangen, and Isny, and in the borough of Altdorf, together with the imperial land judicatory of the burgraviate of Nuremberg, which belongs to the margrave of Brandenburg, and is held at Anspach, and many others, particularly the imperial aulic judicatory of Rotweil, which solely depends on the emperor, and is the principal of the lower judicatories of the empire.

The

The civil law is generally observed in all courts of the empire, and to this are added some decrees, to which an equal regard is paid; as first, the golden bull, already mentioned, which has only about twenty-four leaves, and was published by Charles IV. with the approbation of most of the princes, counts, barons, and other states of the empire, and contains all the fundamental laws relating to the election of the emperor, and the privileges of the electors: the seal annexed to this decree being of gold, it obtained the name of the Golden Bull, or edict, and is esteemed irrevocable. Another considerable part of the municipal laws of the empire is the *Capitulatio Cæsarea*, which is a collection of forty or fifty articles between the electors and the emperor; who, at his coronation, swears to maintain the privileges of the electors, princes, and other subjects of the empire; that he will not alienate or diminish the revenues of the crown, or bring foreign troops into the empire, without the consent of the states. The third kind of laws by which the Germans are governed are, the acts of their general diets. These laws indeed relate chiefly to the great, whose privileges they ascertain and secure; but every distinct state is governed by its prince or sovereign, either according to a set of laws formed by him or his ancestors, or his arbitrary pleasure.

S E C T. VI.

Of the State of Religion in Germany.

THE Germans became acquainted with some principles of the Christian religion, towards the close of the seventh century, by the Irish bishop Kilian, Suidbert and Ewald, who were Englishmen, and Ruprecht, of Worms, who settled at Saltzburg; and in the eighth century, Winifred, of England, preaching among the Thuringians, Hessians, and Saxons, was ordained bishop of the Germans beyond the Rhine, by the name of Bonifacius; he was afterwards made archbishop of Germany, when, under the specious pretence of propagating the doctrines of Christianity, he exerted himself with great zeal in promoting obedience to the church of Rome, and even employed the secular power against such bishops and priests as refused to submit to the Romish yoke and ceremonies of worship. Charlemagne propagated Christianity among the Saxons by fire and sword; and some time after, the Bohemians and Moravians were also brought to embrace the Christian religion.

The reformation began in Germany about the year 1517; for the archbishop of Mentz being unable to pay the large sums the pope expected from him, procured leave of his holiness to sell his pardons and indulgencies in all the great towns of Germany. Dr. Martin Luther, hearing of this, protested against the proceeding, and openly disputed at Wittemberg and Leipzig against those who asserted the power of the pope to grant pardons and indulgences, notwithstanding his being threatened with excommunication, and with being condemned as an heretic; but the elector of Saxony approving of his doctrines, he boldly propagated them in other parts of Germany, where the dukes of Brunswic and Lunenburg, Wirtemberg, Mecklenburg, Pomerania, the marquis of Brandenburg, the landgrave of Hesse, and the inhabitants of most of the imperial cities, became his disciples, and, in 1529, protested against the conclusion of the diet at Spire, by which all innovations in religion, till the decree of a future council should be obtained, were declared unlawful; and from this protest they received the name of Protestants; and from their confession of faith, which the following year they solemnly delivered to the diet at Augsberg, they obtained the name of Adherers to the Augsberg Confession. They took no part in the council of Trent; but the year before, that is in 1537, at an assembly at Smalkald, they set forth the substance of their doctrine in certain articles, in order to deliver them to the assembled bishops. Afterwards refusing to recede from the opinions they had professed, the emperor Charles V. endeavoured to reduce them by force; but after a long war, which broke out in the

year 1546, he granted them a toleration at Passau in 1552, which was afterwards confirmed to them at Augsberg in 1555, during the recess of the diet of the empire. By this peace, all the adherents to the Augsberg confession were confirmed in their full religious liberty, till a final agreement concerning both religions should be brought about, and in case that could not be effected, for ever. To the maintaining of this important law of the empire, the emperors and popish powers have frequently bound themselves by new obligations; and the former in particular have always confirmed it by oath in their capitulation of election; and the doubts that arose upon it were removed in the year 1648, by the treaty of Westphalia.

By virtue of this renewed and confirmed religious peace, no other religion, but that of the Roman, Lutheran, and reformed, is to be tolerated in the empire; yet there are sects that adhere to neither of these three religions, and yet in some places enjoy the free exercise of their own. The determination whether a person be a member of this or that church, belongs only to that very church; and each sovereign, or lord, is bound to allow his own vassals and subjects who are of another religion, not only the public and private exercise of theirs, but every thing belonging to it, as churches, schools, spiritualities, incomes, consistories, &c. in the same manner as they stood on the first of January, 1624: but in a country where there are subjects who adhere to one religion, which in that year was neither publicly nor privately observed, it lies in the sovereign's breast whether he shall suffer them in his country or not. If he enters into a stipulation with them, and promises them a toleration, it must be maintained, not only by him, but by his successors; for the rights of such subjects must not be infringed. But if he will grant no toleration, he must allow those who at the time of the treaty of Westphalia were already settled in his country, five years at least; and those who afterwards came to settle therein, or have made any change in their religion, at least three years. However, these regulations have in later times been repeatedly infringed.

Each protestant state may make what regulations and changes it pleases within its own jurisdiction in matters relating to the churches or schools. Hence the external forms differ greatly in the protestant countries of the empire. The sovereign commonly decides all important affairs, settles and establishes, removes, promotes, cashier, or otherwise punishes such as serve either in the church or schools: he forms ecclesiastical regulations, appoints feasts and fasts, and erects colleges, which in his name superintend the other affairs of the church. Consistories are also generally appointed by the protestant states, which for the most part consist of lay and ecclesiastical counsellors; but in some places more, and in others fewer things fall under their notice. In many places also peculiar synods and a church council are held. Those that serve the church and schools are either appointed by the sovereign of the country, or the consistory, the elders of the church, or its members. These also appoint inspectors, provosts, or superintendents; and general superintendents are frequently placed over these.

The power of the protestant states over their catholic subjects is the same with that which the catholic states have over their protestant subjects. In favour too of those, who in the year 1624 enjoyed the public exercise of their religion, it is provided, that the catholic bishops in whose district they belong, shall retain the same spiritual jurisdiction over them as far as in that period: consequently, such as were merely tolerated out of grace or favour, are also wholly left in this particular to the supreme jurisdiction of the lord of the country; but with this limitation, that he can require nothing of them which is contrary to the principles of their church. On the other hand, no cloister situated in the territory of any protestant superior, or lord, must be converted into any other order, unless the former order be wholly extinct; and even in that case, the cloister is to be supplied only with such regulars as had a being as an order, prior to the religious dissensions.

In short, the protestant body has mutually agreed, that whenever, for the future, a Lutheran lord of a country shall

shall turn to the reformed or Calvinist church, or obtain a country annexed to it, and *vice versa*, in that case he shall leave his subjects the free exercise of their religion, their whole form of church and school discipline, and all their other privileges. But if a church shall of itself turn to that of the lord of the country, the public exercise of religion shall be permitted the people; but at their own expence, and without prejudice to the others. The consistorial counsellor, superintendents of divinity and philosophy are to be of the religion that prevailed in the country at the conclusion of the treaty of Westphalia.

S E C T. VII.

Of the Circles into which the German Empire is divided, and the Italian Fiefs subject to the Emperor and the Empire.

GERMANY is divided into ten circles, in order to promote and maintain the internal peace and security of the empire, and the better to repel hostile violence; this is also done for the better examination and disposal of whatever regards the public welfare; for the more just division and collection of the aids granted by the empire, either in men or money; and for preventing and remedying the disorders in the taxes, coinage, &c. The circles have, however, no particular regulations with respect to precedence, but are very differently ranked in the ordinances and acts of the empire. But if we consider the rank of the assessors of the chamber-judiciary, and the regulations stipulated between some of them, they will appear in the following order, viz. the Austrian, the Burgundian, the Electoral Rhenish, the Franconian, the Swabian, the Upper Rhenish, the Lower Rhenish Westphalian, the Upper and Lower Saxon. But this division of the circles is imperfect, it not including all the dominions of the German empire; for Bohemia, Moravia, the Lusatias, and the Silesias, are not comprized within them; nor was a sufficient regard paid to the situation of the countries; for a part of the territories belonging to the Austrian circle lies scattered over all Swabia, and some countries of the Upper Rhenish lie also therein, though they might with more propriety be added to the circle of Swabia.

With respect to religion, the circles are divided into those that are entirely popish, as the Austrian and Burgundian; into such as are wholly protestant, which are those of Upper and Lower Saxony; and into the mixed, to which all the others belong.

The French wars have frequently occasioned an association of the four circles that lie nearest the Rhine, for their common defence, as well as that of the empire.

It will be proper just to mention here the fiefs belonging to the emperor and the empire in Italy, which the emperor in the last capitulation of election promised to preserve. These fiefs are at the imperial court divided,

1. Into those of Lombardy, of which there are thirteen; and among them the duchies of Milan, Mantua, and Montferrat; together with all the principalities of the house of Gonzaga, and the principality of Mirandola.

2. The Ligurian, of which there are nineteen, the chief of which are possessed by the princes of Doria.

3. The Bononian, of which there are twenty, among which are the dukes of Modena and Ferrara, with the princes Spinola, Doria, &c.

4. The Tuscan, of which there are ten, and among them are the grand duchy of Tuscany or Florence, Piombino, Soramo, Comacchio, &c.

5. The Tirnifani, of which there eleven, and among them the princes of Massa, Malaspina, &c.

We shall defer giving any account of these princes till we come to treat of Italy, to which they properly belong; and shall now proceed to the circles and other divisions of Germany; beginning with Austria, which is bounded on the south and east by the countries we have just laid before our readers, and deserves to be first mentioned on account of its containing the capital of the whole German empire.

S E C T. VIII.

Of A U S T R I A.

Its Situation, Climate, Rivers, Mountains, Produce, and Face of the Country. Its Royal Towns, the Language spoke by the People, and its Government. With a concise Account of the Sciences, Arts, Manufactures, and Trade.

THE circle of Austria borders to the north on Moravia, Bohemia, and the circle of Bavaria; to the east on Croatia and Hungary; to the south on Croatia, the Adriatic Sea, and the territory of the Republic of Venice; and to the west on Switzerland. The countries distinguished by Hither Austria are scattered in and about Swabia, and all the territories within this circle amount to about two thousand and twenty-five German square miles; so that this appears to be the largest of them all. It takes its name from the archduchy of Austria, which constitutes the principal part of the circle, and also contains the provinces of Austria Proper, Stiria, Carinthia, Carniola, Tyrol, Trent, and Brixen.

The archduchy of Austria is in general divided into two parts of very different extent. The larger tract, called Lower Austria, forms the easterly part of the country, and the smaller one, named Upper Austria, constitutes the westerly.

The air of Lower Austria would be very unhealthy, was it not purified by strong gales of wind. It is principally level, and the highest and most numerous mountains it contains are towards Stiria.

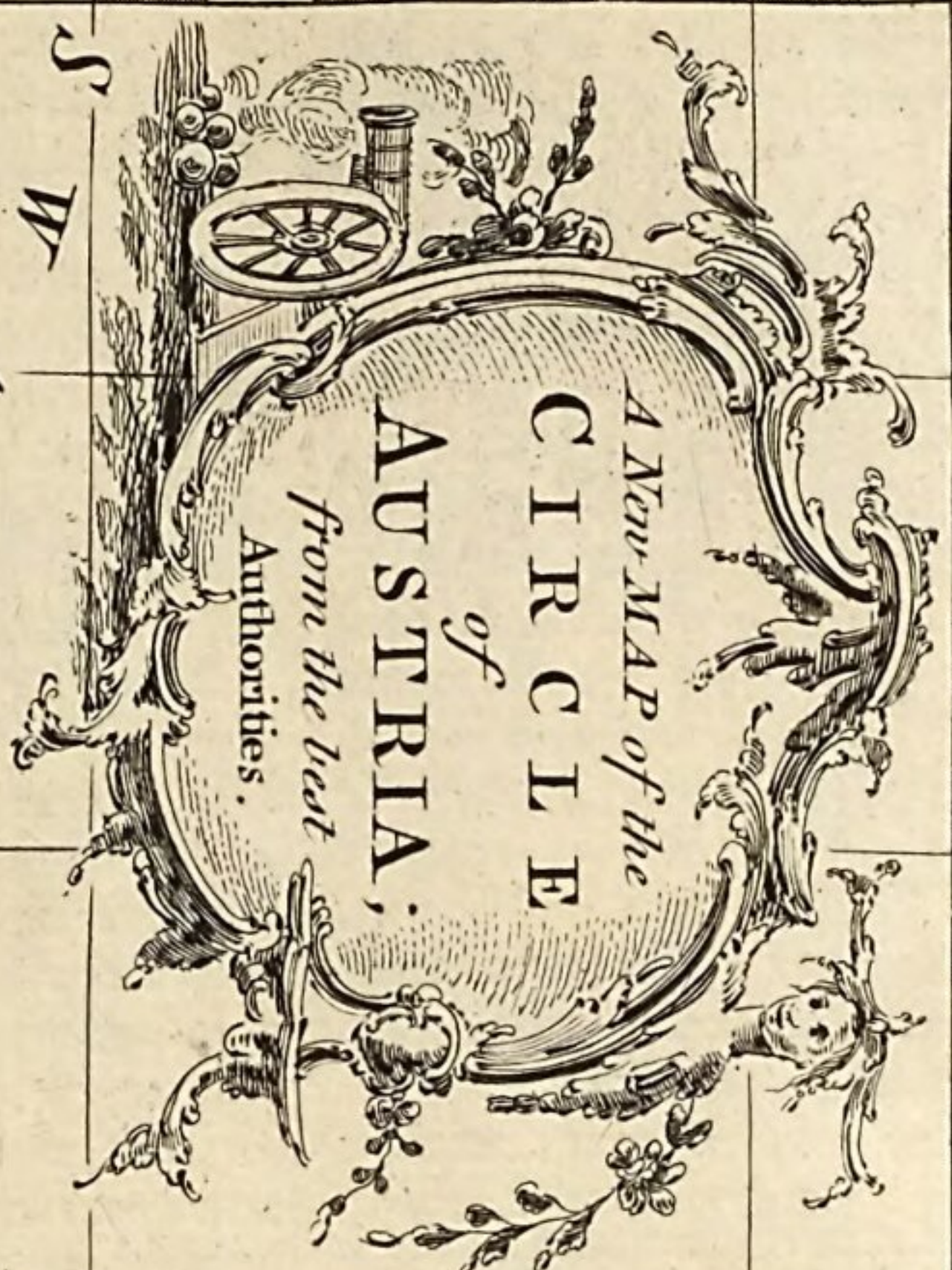
The country is fertile, and yields such plenty of corn, that the inhabitants are able to dispose of considerable quantities to their neighbours. In a few places they also cultivate mustard, calamus, saffron, and, particularly towards Hungary, an excellent sort of wine. The breed of cattle is good, and it has also a variety of game. At St. Annaberg, near the borders of Stiria, is a rich silver mine, which was first worked in the year 1754. It is remarkable that they have found in it a new species of silver ore, which is of an alkaline kind. Allum is also prepared here in plenty.

At Baden are some celebrated hot-baths. The Danube traverses Austria from east to west, and receives all the great and small rivers of this country. The former of these are the Morawa, or March, which receives the Teya, and divides a part of this country from Hungary; the Leitha, which also forms the limits of Hungary; with the rivers Trasen, Erlebach, Ips, Kamp, &c. which all rise in this country, and produce great variety of fish.

Upper Austria is mountainous, particularly towards Stiria and Bohemia, in which countries several tracts lie uncultivated; but the rest of the country is fruitful. Towards Stiria the mountains are high, but the other parts abound in low hills. The soil of Upper Austria, from its many springs, is wet, and the air all the year round moist and cool, which seems partly owing to the saline earth it contains, but chiefly to the situation of the country; for as it lies on the shady side of the mountains of Austria Proper, and of the still larger and higher ones of Upper Stiria and Saltzburg, the warm southerly and westerly winds are precluded.

Upper Austria is uncommonly fertile in mushrooms, and the inhabitants plant a vast number of fruit-trees. As there are here no vineyards, the inhabitants plentifully supply themselves with cyder and perry. This is also the first beer country on proceeding from Lower Austria towards the Danube; but as it has not a sufficiency of corn, that defect is supplied by Lower Austria. The breed of cattle here is pretty good; the woods and forests are numerous, and abound in all sorts of game.

Near Munden is a considerable mine of salt, out of which both the crystal and variegated sort is dug; but the latter is little esteemed. In these parts too fresh water is conveyed into the salt-works, or pits, which, after it has impregnated itself with alkaline particles, is extracted by machines, and conducted through canals for several miles in order for boiling. There are some other salt-works and some saline springs, and others that have a petrifying



British Miles 60 to a Degree
5 10 20 30 40 50 60

ELECTORATE

BOHEMIA

MORAVIA

Upper Austria

Lower Austria



petrifying quality, and yet afford the best water for drinking of any in the country.

Here are several lakes and small rivers, which yield many sorts of fish; and also two medicinal baths.

There are fifteen royal towns in Lower Austria, with eighteen others belonging to particular lords; as also market-towns, and many common boroughs, religious foundations, and cloisters, which enjoy both a seat and voice with the country; and likewise other cloisters, citadels, and noblemen's seats.

In Upper Austria are seven royal towns, with five belonging to particular lords, eighty-one market-towns, many common boroughs, thirteen religious foundations, which enjoy both a seat and voice with the country, two knights commanderies, two colleges, one Jesuits college, seventy other cloisters, and two hundred and seventeen citadels and noblemen's seats.

The Austrian-German dialect, which is very different from the High Dutch, or proper German, is spoken from the Adriatic Sea to the north-north-west, and westerly as far as Silesia, Saxony, Franconia, Swabia, and Switzerland. It also extends to the east and south-east, through Hungary and the Sclavonian territories; yet there is an observable difference in the pronunciation, and in a few particular words used in certain parts of this large tract of country.

The states of Austria consist of the prelates, including bishops, abbots, and provosts; of the lords, under which class are reckoned princes, counts, and barons; of the knights; and lastly, of the towns and markets. The land-marshal is here always elected from among the lords; but the deputy land-marshal out of the order of knights.

The assemblies of the states are either general land-diets, or ban-diets; the latter of which are divided into the greater and lesser ban. These assemblies are appointed by the superior, and the business is laid before them either by the aulic counsellor, or by the archducal deputy; but the deliberations are carried on before the land-marshal. In these assemblies they treat of contributions, taxes, military affairs, &c. The land-diet of Lower Austria is held at Vienna, and that of the Upper at Lintz.

The bishopric of Vienna was immediately subject to the see of Rome, though the archduke has long had the right of nominating a bishop. In 1722, at the solicitation of the emperor Charles VI. it was raised by the pope to a metropolitan church and archbishopric. The archbishop is a prince of the holy Roman empire, and has the bishop of Newstadt, near Vienna, for his suffragan, but is subject to the supremacy of the archducal house of Austria.

The sciences in this country are in an improving condition, for there is an university at Vienna, and academies of painting, sculpture, and architecture. Manufactures are much improved; for in this country are those of silk, gold and silver lace, woollen and linen cloths, stuffs, stockings, porcelain, mirrors, plate, brass, and other articles. The importation of foreign manufactures is either prohibited, or under great restrictions. The trade of Austria gradually increases, and there are chiefly exported from thence saffron, wine, allum, and gunpowder.

S E C T. IX.

The Divisions of Lower Austria, and a particular Description of the City of Vienna, and the Manners of its Inhabitants.

LOWER Austria, which is also termed the Country below the Ens, is divided into four circles, over each of which is appointed a circle-captain. Of these circles, two lie on the south, and two on the north side of the Danube; the former from their situation, with respect to the forest of Vienna, are called the circles below and above the forest of Vienna; but the latter, from their situation with respect to Manhartsberg, the circles below and above the Manhartsberg.

We shall begin with giving a description of the principal places in what is called the circle below the forest

of Vienna, the seat of the emperor, and the capital of the German empire.

The celebrated city of Vienna, called by the Germans Wien, by the Turks Beez, and by the Poles Wieden, is situated in the forty-eighth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the sixteenth degree twenty minutes east longitude, on a branch of the Danube, which separates the suburbs of Leopoldstadt from the town, and receives the little river Wien, which passes through it between the city and suburbs. It stands in a pleasant situation; for to the north and east the country is entirely level, but to the south and west are seen a range of mountains thick planted with vines and trees; and the Danube, which is there very wide, divides itself into several arms that form so many islands stocked with wood. This city has always been the residence of the emperors of the house of Austria.

Vienna indeed is but of small extent, it being possible to walk round it on the glacis within the space of an hour. Its situation is capable of rendering it pretty strong, and it is actually well fortified; for it has a strong rampart defended by eleven stout bastions, and ten ravelins very broad and deep, with lined ditches, and the necessary out-works. The many churches and extensive cloisters the city contains, which have generally gardens and walks near them, take up almost one-sixth part of the whole city, whence the streets, which are narrow and crooked, are about eighty, and the houses are computed at no more than about twelve hundred and thirty; but these are from four to even seven stories high, and are in general well built of stone, and provided with large convenient cellars; and among them are many magnificent palaces, which have noble fronts, though the narrowness of the streets will not admit their being seen.

The lady Wortley Montague observes, with respect to the height of these buildings, that the town being too little for the number of people that desire to live in it, the builders seem to have contrived to repair that misfortune, by clapping one town on the top of another; and adds, You may easily imagine, that the streets being so narrow the rooms are extremely dark, and, what is still a more intolerable inconvenience, no house has so few as five or six families in it. The apartments of the greatest ladies, and even of the ministers of state, are divided but by a partition from that of a taylor or shoemaker. Those who have houses of their own let out the part they do not use to whoever will take them; and thus the great stairs, which are all of stone, are as common and as dirty as the street. It is true, when once you have travelled through them, nothing can be more surprisingly magnificent than the apartments. They are commonly a suite of eight or ten large rooms all inlaid, the doors and windows richly carved and gilt, and the furniture such as is seldom seen in the palaces of sovereign princes in other countries. The apartments are adorned with hangings of the finest Brussels tapestry, prodigious large looking-glasses in silver frames, fine Japan tables, beds, chairs, canopies, and window-curtains of the richest Genoa damask, or velvet almost covered with gold lace or embroidery. The rooms are also adorned with pictures, vast jars of Japan porcelain, and large lustres of rock-crystal.

The city is divided into four quarters, the Schotten, Wubmer, Stuben, and Carinthian. There are fifteen principal squares, the most remarkable of which are the six following: the Hof is the largest of them all, and, besides a stone fountain, has a magnificent monument of gilt metal, which the emperor Ferdinand III. caused to be erected in the year 1647, in memory of the immaculate conception of the Virgin Mary; but this pillar was removed in 1667, by the emperor Leopold, and another of brass erected in its place. The image of the Virgin Mary on this pillar is a master-piece, and is of brass gilt. This pillar has a pompous Latin inscription, composed by the emperor himself; the letters are of gold, and set in a brass plate. The New-market, in which is a fine fountain. The Graben, in which, besides two beautiful fountains, stands the marble Trinity pillar, which is sixty-six feet high; this is an admirable piece of architecture built with stone, on which is also a Latin inscription by the emperor Leopold its founder. Formerly it was

usual for people, by way of amusement, to sit round these pillars; which often produced many pleasant incidents. But a company, among which were several countesses, having given too much wine to a soldier on guard at the Virgin Mary's pillar, such a disturbance ensued as caused these assemblies to be forbidden; and at present people only kneel round the pillars. In the High-market stands Joseph's metal pillar, which was erected in the year 1732.

The principal church in this city is the metropolitan church of St. Stephen, a very dark Gothic structure of free-stone, adorned on the outside with sculpture representing saints, beasts, flowers, pyramids, &c. The roof is covered with glazed tiles of various colours. The highest tower is four hundred and sixty, or according to others, only four hundred and forty-seven Austrian feet and a half high. It is built of large blocks of free-stone, fastened together with iron braces, and is the strongest steeple in Europe. It has a great bell hanging in it, upwards of ten feet in height, and thirty-two feet two inches in circumference, weighing, exclusive of the clapper, seventeen tons and a half. The clapper, which is eleven feet and a half long, weighs thirteen hundred and twenty-eight pounds. It was cast by order of the emperor Joseph out of the Turkish field-pieces taken in several battles. In the inside of this church is a costly high altar, with many relics and curiosities, and a magnificent marble monument of the emperor Ferdinand III.

In Vienna are reckoned four parish churches, with ten other churches served by particular ecclesiastics, sixteen cloister churches, and eighteen cloisters; among these are three colleges of Jesuits, a college of regular canons, of Augustines, of St. Dorothea, a Capuchine convent, a Minorite convent, and the cloister of bare-footed Augustines, who have the imperial Aulic church, in which is kept, in silver repositories, the hearts of the high personages of the archducal house. This church belongs to the court, and you ascend to it up a pair of stairs out of the palace. Ferdinand III. had a chapel built here to St. Apollonia, the patroness of the teeth, in consequence of a vow he had made when his son prince Leopold cut his teeth. The tooth of St. Apollonia shewn here is likewise adored and kissed by the vulgar, who imagine the touch of it a cure for the tooth-ach.

Among the charitable foundations is the burghers hospital, in which three thousand persons are maintained.

The imperial museum is in the castle, and has an astonishing variety of curiosities in gold, silver, ivory, and mother of pearl, mathematical instruments of exquisite workmanship, excellent pictures, antique intaglios, vases of agate, jasper, crystal, garnet, emerald, and jewels of inestimable value. Among the curiosities is seriously shewn a dæmon, or familiar spirit, which being conjured out of a demoniac, was confined in a glass: but this is really nothing more than some dark-coloured moss, or something of that kind, which has some distant resemblance of a little man, and is naturally inclosed within a triangular piece of crystal.

The imperial library is a very handsome edifice, adorned with good paintings, sculpture, and a superb gallery: with respect to the number and importance of the manuscripts and printed books, it may vie with the Vatican and royal French libraries, and, with respect to printed books, exceeds them.

The land-house of the states of Lower Austria and the town-house are fine modern structures. The riding-house and the chancery of the empire are noble buildings in the modern taste. The other public buildings here are the imperial arsenal, the burghers arsenal, the imperial arsenal near the new gate, in which is every thing necessary for the equipment of the ships used on the Danube, and the opera-house, which is a magnificent structure.

The university is said to consist of four nations; these are the Austrian, Rhenish, Hungarian, and Saxon. An academy of painting, sculpture, and architecture, was founded here in 1705. The Theresian college, which was founded by the empress queen Maria Theresa, is a well instituted riding academy, the members of which are all uniformly dressed, and each of them pays for his board, lodging, washing, school-books, and other neces-

saries eight hundred florins yearly, and another hundred for riding. The Savoy Lichtenstein riding academy was founded by Maria Theresa, dutchess of Savoy, who was born princess of Lichtenstein.

Among the palaces of Vienna is that of prince Eugene, which consists of four stories, the third of which is the most magnificent; but the apartments and stair-case are somewhat darkened by the houses on the other side of the street. In the front are three doors opening into so many balconies, and in every story are seventeen windows. The roof is flat, in the Italian taste, and adorned with eighteen large statues. In one of the antichambers are fine paintings, representing the battles of Hochstet, Zenta, and four others; but the piece which first strikes the eye, is the relief of the city of Turin. Among the beautiful tapestry, that representing a shipwreck is particularly admired. Some of the apartments are hung with crimson velvet, especially that in which the late prince Eugene gave audience to the Turkish ambassador, under a canopy, and in a chair of state. The stove in this room is made of brass, and represents Hercules vanquishing the hydra. In another apartment is a book-case and a desk covered entirely with tortoiseshell. Nothing can be more beautiful than the looking-glass chamber; and indeed every part of this superb palace is embellished with exquisite pictures, glasses of all kinds, and fine chimney-pieces. The library contains fourteen thousand volumes, which are mostly folios, and being bound in red Turkey gilt, make a fine appearance. In this library is also a planetarium, in which Mr. Rowley, an Englishman, has accurately represented the revolutions of the heavenly bodies according to the Copernican system.

The prince of Lichtenstein has three palaces in Vienna; but that in the Herron street is the most magnificent. The front is adorned with columns and statues; and the palace is furnished in the Italian taste, with sculptures, paintings, and antiques. Among the paintings are several pieces by Rubens; particularly six capital pieces representing the history of Alexander the Great, valued at about twenty-four thousand dollars; Herodias with John the Baptist's head by Raphael: the building of the tower of Babel on vellum, and the overthrow of Pharaoh with his army in the Red Sea, painted on marble, are very curious. The saloon is elegant and lofty; the vaulted roof was painted by Belucci, who also painted the cieling of the first and second stories on canvas.

The suburbs are much larger than the city itself, which they encompass, but are removed to the distance of five or six hundred paces from the works of the fort. The line which encloses them, and extends on both sides to Leopoldstadt, was in the year 1704 thrown up against the Hungarian rebels, and afterwards lined with bricks; the gates and entries to it being always kept by regular guards; of these Leopoldstadt is the principal, and lies next the city on an island of the Danube; it was formerly called the Jews Town, but in the year 1670, the emperor Leopold driving that people from hence, it took its name from him. It contains one parish church, two monasteries, the old imperial Favourita, a citadel, which in the year 1683 was almost destroyed by the Turks, and only a small part of it is repaired. There are here also many fine houses and gardens.

Opposite to it on the other side of the Danube lie the large suburbs of Rossau, which contains some fine churches, palaces, houses, and gardens. The noblest of these palaces is that of prince Lichtenstein, which is extremely magnificent. The great stair-case consists of two flights, and every step cost sixty guilders, each being a single block of red marble, seven paces in length, and in the two flights are a hundred and eight of these steps. Though the Italian palaces greatly surpass all others in the beauty and magnificence of the stair-cases, yet Italy affords very few that equals this. The saloon, which is very superb, was painted by Pozzo, and is adorned with four beautiful stone statues, so finely encrusted with plaster, that they have the appearance of alabaster. Two of the apartments are entirely painted by Franceschini di Bologna; and in every part of this noble palace, the eye is entertained with pieces of painting by celebrated artists.

The

The walks, parterres, water-works, and statues, render the garden a most delightful place. It contains a great number of uncommon vegetables, and at the ends affords a very fine view of the country.

In the suburbs of Waringergessen is nothing worthy of notice.

In that called the Alstergasse is the hospital of invalids, with the pest-house, the great hospital, the Lower Austrian provincial academy, and count Paar's riding-school.

The populous suburbs of St. Ulrich is subject to the jurisdiction of the Benedictine Scots abbey in Vienna, and contains one parish church, a Capuchin monastery, and upwards of a hundred gardens.

In the suburbs called the Leimgrube is one church, one cloister containing a church, a military academy founded by Maria Theresa, the empress queen, and the imperial stables, which are equalled by few buildings of the kind, though the stalls in them are too narrow.

The suburbs called the Wien, from the little river of the same name which runs through it.

Gaudendorf, which belongs to the provost of St. Dorothea in Vienna, contains one convent of Dominicans, and a small church.

The Wieden is pretty extensive, and, besides a cloister and the church of St. Charles Boromæus, contains the new imperial favorita, a summer residence, though but meanly built.

The Rennweg is remarkable for its churches, convents, palaces, and noble houses. The cloister of the female Salerians, or English nuns, is pretty large, and has a small but costly church. These nuns are obliged to bring up and instruct young ladies. The palace of prince Schwarzenberg is extremely magnificent; the saloons, stair-cases, marble tables, looking-glasses, porcelain vases, paintings, beds, and other rich furniture, make this one of the finest palaces near Vienna. The trees in the large orangery in the garden, instead of being planted in pots or tubs, stand in the ground, and in winter are sheltered by little sheds, which on occasion may be warmed. The walks, groves, and water-works are extremely beautiful; and the last are supplied by means of an hydraulic engine worked by fire.

Adjoining to the above palace is that of prince Eugene, one of the finest buildings about Vienna. It has eleven rooms in a direct line in the front and the towers at the angles, and seven rooms in the wings. In the room adjoining to the prince's bed-chamber are several exquisite pieces of painting in miniature, and in the next apartment is a chandelier of rock-crystal valued at twenty thousand guildens, each gulden equal to two shillings and four-pence. Here is also a Dutch piece of painting of great value, representing an old woman on her death-bed, with her daughter on her knee taking her leave of her, while her maid is stirring a medicine, and the physician looking into an urinal. In the chapel is a fine picture of the resurrection of our Saviour. The large saloon is an oblong octagon, the ceiling of which is finely painted in fresco, and it yields a very fine prospect over the gardens towards the city. Among the excellent paintings in the other apartments are a beautiful piece representing Adam and Eve as big as the life, a woman embracing a youth in a bath, Endymion and Diana, and a copy of Ruben's three Graces, which is much esteemed. The gardens lie on a slope, and on that account make its elegant water-works appear to advantage. In that part of the garden on the left called Paradise, is a spacious aviary made of curious wire-work, and also beautiful walks and gilt summer-houses. On one side of this palace the prince has a view from his apartment of eight small courts, embellished with fountains and rows of chestnut trees, among which are to be seen a considerable number of exotic animals.

The suburb called the Landstrasse lies directly opposite on the other side of the Danube, and contains a fine cloister of hermits of the order of St. Augustin, who here wear white ermine; also a couple of chapels, a seminary of Jesuits, an hospital, and several fine houses.

The Prater, or imperial park, is a pretty large island planted with wood, and has some fine walks, to which the people in spring resort for taking the air.

The inhabitants of the city and suburbs amount to about a hundred and eighty or two hundred thousand. The country about Vienna is fertile, and produces good grafs.

The finest of all the imperial pleasure-houses is Schonbrun, which lies at the distance of a league from Vienna; it was begun by the emperor Joseph, who did not live to finish it. The pleasant situation of this place is, however, attended with one inconvenience, which is, that the little river Wien crosses the road several times between it and Vienna; and as it is subject to sudden floods, it frequently happens, that a person who goes to Schonbrun at noon without the least danger, in the evening finds his return rendered impracticable by the swelling of the river.

It will be proper before we take leave of Vienna, to give some account of the inhabitants of this celebrated city. The Protestants have the public exercise of their religion allowed them at the houses of the Swedish, Danish, and Dutch ambassadors; but in the streets they must take care not to come in the way of a procession of the Host, the ignorant multitude frequently handling very roughly those who make a conscience of kneeling as it passes by.

The pride of rank is an eternal subject of quarrels among the great, for none of them will, upon any condition, desist from their pretensions where they imagine their rank is concerned. The lady Wortley Montague observes, that they are never lively but upon points of ceremony, and mentions two coaches, which meeting in a narrow street at night, when the ladies in them not being able to adjust the ceremonial of who should go back, sat there with equal gallantry till two in the morning, when the emperor sending his guards they were both taken out exactly at the same moment, and carried away in chairs. The men are not less touched with this point of honour, and not only scorn to marry, but to make love to any woman of a family less illustrious than their own.

As the houses of the great are richly furnished, the good taste and magnificence of their tables are answerable to that of their furniture. They have frequently fifty dishes of meat, all served in silver, and well dressed, with a dessert proportionable served in the finest china. But what appears most surprising is the variety and richness of their wines. It is usual to lay a list of their names upon the plates of the guests along with their napkins, and there are sometimes eighteen different sorts, all exquisite in their kind.

Mr. Keyser says, that when the empress amuses herself in the evening with playing at cards, her company are the ladies of the privy-counsellors or lords of the bed-chamber, according to their seniority. She usually plays at a gulden, or two shillings and four-pence a fish.

Among the diversions of the imperial court, those of the carnival must not be omitted; though the strictness of the ceremonial checks the liberty allowed at other courts in the carnival masquerades, no ladies but those who have access to the empress's chamber are admitted at court on those occasions. The emperor generally dances several times with the empress and archduchesses, but the empress dances with the emperor only. In the country-dances their imperial majesties are spectators, but the archduchesses mingle with the company.

On the saint's day of the name of any of the royal family operas are exhibited, each of which is said to cost about sixty thousand guildens; for the magnificence of the theatre, the splendor of the decorations, the richness of the habits, and the performance in the orchestra, surpass any thing of the kind in Europe. These days are called days of gala; and the ladies of quality, whenever they have a mind to display the magnificence of their apartments, or oblige a friend by complimenting them on the day of their saint, declare, that on such a day will be their gala. All the friends or relations of the lady whose saint it is, are obliged to appear in their best cloaths and all their jewels. The mistress of the house takes no particular notice of any body, nor returns any body's visit. The company are splendidly entertained, and afterwards divided into several parties at cards, or conversation, all games of hazard being forbidden.

The opera is here performed at court; and as the noble lady with whose observations we have in several parts embellished this work has fully described them, we shall give a particular account of this and other diversions from her letters. This lady, on visiting one of these operas, says, "The stage was built over a very large canal, and at the beginning of the second act divided into two parts, discovering the water; on which there immediately came, from different parts, two fleets of little gilded vessels, that gave the representation of a naval fight. It is not easy to imagine the beauty of this scene, and all the rest were perfectly fine in their kind. The story of the opera was the enchantment of Alcina, which gives opportunities for a great variety of machines and changes of the scenes, which are performed with surprising swiftness. The theatre is so large that it is hard to carry the eye to the end of it, and the habits in the utmost magnificence, to the number of a hundred and eight. No house could hold such large decorations; but the ladies all sitting in the open air, exposes them to great inconveniences; for there is but one canopy for the imperial family, and the first night it was represented, a shower of rain happening, the opera was broke off, and the company crowded away in such confusion, that I was almost squeezed to death.

"But if their operas are thus delightful, their comedies are, in as high a degree, ridiculous. They have but one play-house, where I had the curiosity to go to a German comedy, and was very glad it happened to be the story of Amphitruon. As that subject has been already handled by a Latin, French, and English poet, I was curious to see what an Austrian author would make of it. I understand enough of that language to comprehend the greatest part of it; and, besides, I took with me a lady that had the goodness to explain to me every word. The way is to take a box, which holds four, for yourself and company. The fixed price is a gold ducat. I thought the house very low and dark; but I confess the comedy admirably recompensed that defect. I never laughed so much in my life. It begun with Jupiter's falling in love out of a peep-hole in the clouds, and ended with the birth of Hercules. But what was most pleasant was, the use Jupiter made of his metamorphosis; for you no sooner saw him under the figure of Amphitruon, but instead of flying to Alcmena with the raptures Mr. Dryden puts into his mouth, he sends for Amphitruon's taylor, and cheats him of a laced coat, and his banker of a bag of money, a Jew of a diamond ring, and bespeaks a great supper in his name; and the greatest part of the comedy turns upon poor Amphitruon's being tormented by these people for their debts. Mercury uses Sofia in the same manner. But I could not easily pardon the liberty the poet has taken of larding his play, not only with indecent expressions, but such gross words as I do not think our mob would suffer from a mountebank. Besides, the two Sofias very fairly let down their breeches in the direct view of the boxes, which were full of people of the first rank, that seemed very well pleased with their entertainment, and assured me this was a celebrated piece."

It ought, however, to be added, in justice to the Germans, that since the time this lady wrote, they have greatly improved in the arts, and that their poetry, which even at the beginning of the present century was very rude, and in its infancy, is now much improved, and they have dramatic pieces that would do honour to any nation.

The above ingenious lady describes another common amusement of the court, which will farther serve to characterize the taste of the great in this metropolis. The empress was seated on a little throne at the end of a fine alley in her garden, and on each side of her were ranged two parties of her ladies of quality, headed by two young archduchesses, all dressed in their hair full of jewels, with fine light guns in their hands; and at proper distances were placed three oval pictures, which were the marks to be shot at. The first was that of a Cupid filling a bumper of Burgundy, and the motto, "It is easy to be va-

liant here." The second, Fortune holding a garland in her hand, with the motto, "For her whom Fortune favours." The third was a sword with a laurel wreath on the point, the motto, "Here is no shame to the vanquished." Near the empress was a gilded trophy wreathed with flowers, formed of little crooks, on which hung rich Turkish handkerchiefs, tippets, ribbons, laces, &c. for the small prizes. The empress gave the first with her own hand, which was a fine ruby ring set round with diamonds in a gold snuff-box. There was for the second a little Cupid set with brilliants; and besides these a set of fine china for the tea-table, japanned trunks, fans, and many other things of the like nature. All the men of quality at Vienna were spectators, but the ladies alone had permission to shoot, and the archduchess Amelia carried off the first prize.

S E C T. X.

A concise Description of the other principal Places in the Dutchy of Austria.

ANOTHER of the emperor's pleasure-houses is Laxenburg, which is situated about two German miles from Vienna, in a pleasant little wood, and near it is a pretty well inhabited village and park. The extensive circumjacent plain affords very great conveniences for the baiting of herons, which is said to be performed here in spring-time by the imperial family.

In the neighbourhood of Vienna is Baden, which is much frequented for its warm baths, assemblies, and other diversions. Both sexes bathe here without distinction in the same bath, and at the same time. The bathing cloaths are made to cover the whole body, and those of the women have lead at the bottom of them to keep them down. There are seats within the baths for the convenience of sitting in the water, which can be raised or lowered at pleasure. The company walk up and down in the bath conversing together, and the ladies are sometimes treated with sweetmeats. There are particular doors and stairs leading into the separate stove-rooms out of the bath, where the different sexes dress and undress apart. Some of these baths are within and others without it, and in most of them the water is extremely clear. The principal is called the Women's bath, and next to that the Duke's and Anthony's baths. There is also one appropriated to the use of the poor. The sulphureous effluvia arising from the baths tinge most kind of metals with yellow; and a silver cup, after being some time used for drinking the water, contracts a sort of gilding. These baths are chiefly recommended to patients afflicted with the gout, lameness, pains in the joints, and any arthritic disorders. Barren women often resort thither and find relief; but whether this proceeds from the virtue of the water, or that of the company, we shall not determine. Before the principal church in this town is a fine pillar dedicated to the Holy Trinity.

Neustadt is a pleasant and well built town on the Leitha: it is well fortified, and contains some broad even streets, with some fine squares ornamented with pillars in honour of the Virgin Mary. These kind of pillars have a fine effect in a city; and, though seldom seen in other popish countries, are very frequent in the Austrian territories. The palace here has been allotted for the new erected military academy, and is now inhabited by the young gentlemen, who are here instructed by officers appointed for that purpose in all parts of the art of war, and by others in the mathematics and polite literature. There is also here a college of Jesuits. Out of the fine earth near this place is made a very beautiful sort of porcelain.

The most considerable places in Upper Austria, which is divided into four quarters, are the following:

Lintz, the capital of Upper Austria, stands in an agreeable situation on the river Danube, in the forty-eighth degree twenty-one minutes north latitude, and the fourteenth degree twelve minutes east longitude. It is well built and populous, and has some fine suburbs. The old town consists almost entirely of one single street, and includes in it the citadel, which is seated on an eminence that affords a fine open prospect. In this citadel are the courts of justice for Upper Austria; and in the town

town are a house belonging to the states, a parish church, a considerable college of Jesuits, the academy, and a fine church endowed by the emperor Ferdinand II. with four cloisters of monks, and two of nuns, a commandery belonging to the Teutonic order, and some manufactures. This town carries on a considerable trade.

Steyr is a town situated on a river of the same name, near the place where it falls into the Ens. It consists of three parts; the town with its suburbs, and the villages of Ens and Steyr, both which have a communication with the former by means of bridges. It has a citadel, which stands on a point of a steep rock within the walls, and within the town are also one parish church, one college of Jesuits, together with a cloister of Dominicans and another of nuns, as also an hospital. Without the town is a convent of capuchins, and all these religious houses have churches. Most of the inhabitants work in steel and iron. This place was formerly the capital of a county, and belonged to Stiria; but it has been separated from thence, and added to the country above the Ens.

SECT. XI.

Of the Dutchy of STIRIA.

Its Situation, Mountains, and Face of the Country; its Produce, Rivers, &c.

STIRIA, or Steyermark, in the circle of Austria, is bounded by the dutchy of Austria on the north; by Hungary on the east; by Carniola on the south; and by Carinthia and Saltzburg on the west. The northerly part is called the Upper Steyermark, and the southerly the Under.

Upper Steyermark contains many high and steep mountains, among which the Grimming is the highest in the country; but by the diligence of the inhabitants this dutchy is pretty well cultivated, so that in many places the highest tops of the mountains are inhabited.

The people who dwell in these parts in winter, when great quantities of snow fall, are blocked up for several months, and as it were rendered captives. Indeed they are so habituated to the cold, that they seldom come down from these eminences. It is astonishing that they are able to succeed so well with the plough on these mountains, and that the eminences themselves are so fertile.

The inhabitants cultivate a fine sort of wheat, which is sufficient not only to supply their necessities, but in some measure also for sale. They have fruit, large herds of cattle, chamois goats, and wild fowl. The brooks and lakes, many of which lie between the high rocks, are rich in fish. In some places are small vales, and the inhabitants take advantage of every spot of earth.

The mountains contain silver, lead, copper, and particularly iron. The Stirian steel is reckoned the best in Europe. The forests, with which the ridges of the mountains are covered, yield a sufficient quantity of wood for the use of the smelting huts. In these mountains are likewise hot baths and medicinal springs.

The principal rivers which run through this country are the Muehr and Ens, both of which arise in the bishopric of Saltzburg.

Lower Steyermark has fewer mountains and more plains. The hills produce a fine wine, and the plains which are also fruitful, have hot baths and medicinal springs. In the quarter of Cilli, as in Carniola and Italy, dormice are caught in plenty, and eaten.

The language of the Stirians is very rough. They speak the Wendish tongue, which is in use among the common people for several miles round Gratz; but those who are raised only a small degree above the vulgar speak not only Wendish, but German and Italian, and the principal inhabitants speak also French.

In the whole dutchy are twenty boroughs, near one hundred market towns, and about five hundred citadels, many of which stand on the highest summits of the rocks. The highways, notwithstanding the country is mountainous, have been put into excellent condition.

The principal place in Lower Stiria is the city of Gratz, the capital of the whole dutchy, which is seated on the river Muehr, in the forty-seventh degree twenty-

two minutes north latitude, and the sixteenth degree ten minutes east longitude. It has suburbs on each side the river, which exceed the town in bigness, to which they are joined by a bridge. The city is well fortified, and contains some fine streets and houses. The castle stands on a high hill, and here is a good armoury and magazine, constantly well furnished. The Jesuits have a fine church, and a chapel detached from it, where the architecture and sculpture are well worth seeing. Over the entrance of this chapel is a Latin inscription to this purpose, "The imperial mausoleum of Ferdinand II. emperor of Rome, sacred to St. Catharine virgin and martyr." On the roof is represented the life of the emperor Leopold in several emblematical paintings, and on the tower is an observatory well furnished with mathematical instruments. The other public buildings are the Jesuits college, the university, the parish church, the sovereign's hospital, the fine Trinity pillar of gilt brass in the market-place, the sovereign's fort, in which the privy council, the government, the chamber for the Inner Austrian countries, and the military council, are kept; and in this fort is also the arsenal; the land-house, in which the land-diets are held; the arsenal of the land states, and the council house. There are also in the city eight cloisters, with their churches. In the Dominican convent is a piece of painting representing Catharine of Sienna exchanging her heart for that of Christ, and at some distance on the right hand, is the portrait of St. Alan, a Dominican monk, who was a native of England. An inscription underneath says, that the blessed Virgin was so pleased with his love to her, that in the presence of the Son of God, an infinite number of angels, and blessed spirits, she was espoused to St. Alan; gave him with her virgin mouth a kiss of everlasting peace, refreshed him with the milk of her most chaste breast, and presented him with a ring in token of the marriage. However, some of the more sensible Romanists have openly expressed their abhorrence of such impious fictions.

In each of the suburbs that lie on the west side of the Muehr, is a church with a cloister; but in the large suburbs on the other side of the river, are several churches and convents. In the midst of a plain about a mile from the city, is a round hill, on which are erected nine chapels in commemoration of Christ's passion. In one of these chapels the whole crucifix is covered with pearls; but the sculpture of all of them is very coarse, and sometimes ridiculous. Besides, the holy sepulchre, which is said to be constructed after the manner of that of Jerusalem, here is also a scala santa, or holy stairs, by ascending which every Friday, and on the days of the invention and elevation of the cross, people may gain forty days indulgence.

About the distance of four miles from the above mount, to which is given the name of Calvary, is the seat of count Adam. The gardens, paintings, and water-works, are greatly admired by the country people, though they contain nothing very extraordinary.

The principal places in Upper Stiria are, Judenburg, its capital, which is seated on the high bank of the Muehr, and commands a prospect into a plain surrounded with high mountains that are continually covered with snow. This place contains a royal fort, a parish church, a cloister of Minorites, in which is a church, and a college of Jesuits, and without the town is a convent of nuns.

Leuben was formerly the capital of the county, and contains a college of Jesuits, and a Dominican convent, both of which have churches, and without the walls are two parish churches, one of which is in the suburbs, on the other side of the Muehr, in which is also a convent of Dominicans. A great trade in iron is carried on here.

SECT. XII.

Of the Dutchy of CARINTHIA.

Its Situation, Rivers, Mountains, and principal Places.

THE dutchy of Carinthia, in the circle of Austria, is bounded on the east by Stiria; on the north by Stiria and the archbishopric of Saltzburg; on the south by

by Carniola, and the Republic of Venice; and on the west by Tyrol.

This country is woody and mountainous; the highest of the mountains are called St. Ulrich, St. Helena, St. Veit, and St. Laurence. Several of the mountains of this country yield good iron, and some of them lead. There are many fertile dales, which produce wheat and other grain, yet the country cannot produce corn sufficient for the inhabitants.

This country has also a great number of lakes, brooks, and rivers. The largest river is the Dran, which issues out of Tyrol, and traversing Carinthia from east to west, receives all the other rivers and brooks of the country.

The only religion professed here is that of the Romish church, though there were formerly many professors of the Lutheran religion, and the youth are instructed in the Jesuits college at Clagenfurt. In this dutchy are eleven boroughs, and twenty-one market towns. The principal manufactures are those of iron and steel, which are worked in various ways, and afterwards exported. The dutchy is governed by a land captain, and annually contributes six millions thirty-seven thousand six hundred ninety-five florins to the support of the military state of the house of Austria.

The principal towns in this dutchy are,

Clagenfurt, the capital of the dutchy, which is situated near the river Glan, in the forty-seventh degree ten minutes north latitude, and the fourteenth degree twenty minutes east longitude, and is also joined by means of a canal with the Wordsee. It is well built, and surrounded with a wall said to be broad enough for five coaches to drive a-breast. It contains six churches, a college of Jesuits, an academy, two convents of monks and one of nuns, and a provincial-house. It is adorned with two marble pillars, one consecrated to the Holy Trinity, the other to the Virgin, and an equestrian statue of the emperor Leopold. In the year 1600 Martin, bishop of Seckau, came to this town, accompanied by four hundred soldiers, in order to burn the Lutheran books and abolish that religion. In 1636, and 1723, the town was almost entirely consumed by fire.

Freisach, the oldest town in Carinthia, is situated on the rivulet of Metnitz, and belongs to the archbishop of Salzburg.

It contains a citadel and two cloisters, and without the town stands the citadel of Geyersberg, where the archiepiscopal vicar resides.

S E C T. XIII.

Of the Dutchy of CARNIOLA.

Its Situation, Extent, Mountains, Roads, and Produce; the Hardiness of the People, their Languages, Religion, Arms, and Exports; with the principal Places in this Country: among which is a particular Account of the Lake of Cirknitz, some remarkable Caverns, and Mines of Quicksilver.

CARNIOLA, which is also included in the circle of Austria, is bounded on the north by Carinthia and Stiria; on the east by Liburnia, Dalmatia, and Croatia; on the south by that part of Istria possessed by the republic of Venice, and by a part of the Adriatic Sea; and on the west by Friuli, the country of Gortz, and a part of the Adriatic; extending in its greatest length a hundred and forty-two miles from east to west, and a hundred and eighteen from north to south.

This dutchy is for the most part mountainous, and some of the mountains are quite naked, while others are covered with wood; some of them are uninhabited, and many of their summits are continually covered with snow.

In winter, when the snow lies deep on the ground, some of the peasants make use of small baskets, which they bind to their feet; and others have a kind of snow-skates made of thin narrow boards, like those used by the Laplanders, by the help of which, and a stout staff or pole, they descend from the mountains with great speed. One of the most remarkable of these mountains is the Lobel, called by the Carinthians Lybel: it is high, rocky, and steep; and therefore the road winds round it,

in a serpentine form, for near five miles. This road is pretty well paved, and near the top a passage has been hewn through the rock about a hundred and fifty geometrical paces in length, twelve feet high, and nine broad; and this separates Carniola from Carinthia. The prospect from this mountain is uncommonly fine.

It is remarkable that the roads through Carniola and Stiria, though the country be so very mountainous, are extremely good. The making of these roads at first was very burthensome to the subjects; but as they are now completed, the expence of keeping them in order is not very great. First all the stones were made use of to raise it to a proper height. On each side is a ditch secured with large stones well compacted, and the road between these ditches consists of a stratum of flint-stones beaten small. This is covered with sand mixed with a kind of clay, which makes the road very smooth and hard, like a threshing-floor. The greatest care is taken to repair these roads; and the labourers who have good wages for that purpose, have their dwellings along the side of the roads, that they may be at hand to keep them in good order.

In Carniola are medicinal springs and hot baths: it also contains several lakes, and some rivers, the principal of which is the Sau, into which the other rivers discharge themselves; it is navigable, and its stream uncommonly rapid; it flows into Hungary, and discharges itself into the Danube.

Though this country is mostly mountainous, yet it contains many fruitful valleys and fields, which not only yield good pasturage, but every year produce a double crop; for when wheat, rye, barley, peas, beans, and lentils are cut down, they sow buck-wheat. This dutchy also produces excellent fruit, which becomes early ripe, and of which the inhabitants make cyder and perry: large chesnuts and walnuts are here very plentiful, and in some parts are olives, citrons, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and grapes, of which an exquisite white and red wine are made.

The bowels of the earth yield all sorts of minerals and metals, as copper, iron, and lead; and the marble of this country is very beautiful: but salt is wanting, and the people are obliged to purchase it at the magazines provided by the sovereign.

There are here horses and horned cattle in great plenty, and the people furnish themselves with all sorts of venison and fowl, and with many kinds of fish.

This country is more populous than one would imagine; for it contains twenty-one boroughs, thirty-five markets, and, according to Valvasor, upwards of four thousand villages. The common people are extremely hardy, for they go bare-foot in winter through the snow, and the men always with open breasts. At night they sleep without bed or bolster on a hard bench, and their food is always mean. The common people are of Slavonian extraction; but the principal nobility are for the most part descended from the Germans.

The two principal languages in Carniola are the Slavonic and the German; in the latter of which all letters are written, judicial matters carried on, and all writings made.

The Christian religion was gradually received here about the latter end of the eighth century. The Lutheran doctrine also gained a considerable footing in the sixteenth century; but was afterwards abolished, and all the inhabitants at present profess the popish religion, except the Walachians and Uscocs, who adhere to the Greek religion, and stile themselves Old Believers. In Carniola are three bishoprics, that of Laubach, to which belong a number of parishes in Carniola, twenty-one parishes in Stiria, and sixteen in Carinthia; the other bishoprics are those of Biben and Trieste. In this dutchy there are computed to be a hundred and thirty-four parishes, and twenty-four religious houses.

The arms of this dutchy are an eagle crowned, on whose breast and expanded wings is a dived crescent.

From Carniola are exported into other countries horned cattle, sheep, cheese, white and red wine, quicksilver, iron, steel, oil of olives, linen, a kind of woollen stuff, Spanish leather, which is prepared in plenty in Upper Carniola,

Carniola, honey, timber for ship-building, and many sorts of wooden-ware, as boxes, dishes, trenchers, spoons, sieves, &c.

Carniola annually contributes to the house of Austria three hundred and sixty-three thousand one hundred and seventy one florins fifty-six kruiters. This dutchy is divided into Upper, Lower, Middle, and Inner Carniola.

Upper Carniola, commonly called Gorenška Stran, enjoys a wholesome air and fresh springs. The vineyards here are but few. Iron is found in the greatest plenty, and there are profitable iron-works in many parts of the country. The lake of Feldes is near five miles long, and above two broad; it is uncommonly deep, but in its middle rises a round mountain, on which stands a small church, and at its foot is a fine spring. The lake of Wocheiner arises out of a copious spring that rolls from a very high rock into the dale of Wocheiner, which is about three miles long and a mile broad, and out of it runs a river called the Wocheiner Sau, which, after a course of nineteen miles, discharges itself into the Sau. Both in the lake and river are excellent trout.

In this dutchy are the following remarkable places:

Laubacht, or Laybach, the principal town in Carniola, is situated on a navigable river of the same name, by which it is so divided, that it lies partly in Upper and partly in Lower Carniola. That part which forms the latter, and is situated on the other side of the river, is the largest and finest. The royal citadel here stands on an eminence covered with trees and beautifully cultivated, and at its foot is that part of the city in which are the market, the town-house, the cathedral, and episcopal palace. The cathedral is finely painted, and under the cupola are four statues of its antient bishops. In the Augustins church, behind the high altar, is a *Casa Santa*, in imitation of that at Loretto. The Ursuline nuns have a very beautiful light church, and that of St. Peter is one of the finest in the city.

At the Jesuits church is a superb altar of marble, adorned with four statues that are worth seeing: their library is well contrived, and those fathers have spacious wine-vaults capable of containing three thousand pipes, which is the less surprising, as most of the rents of their estates are paid in wine. The whole town contains three suburbs, in one of which live the butchers, in the second are chiefly fishermen, and the third is principally inhabited by mariners. These suburbs contain five churches, four cloisters, and a commandery of the knights of Malta. The streets are narrow; and, besides the above buildings, the council-house, and the royal provincial and city arsenal, are worthy of notice. The bishop is immediately under the pope, and bears the title of a prince of the holy Roman empire. This place carries on a considerable trade.

Lower Carniola, more usually called Dalenska Stran, contains many fruitful valleys, and produces red and white wine. In many places there are here no springs, and particularly the fertile bottom of Temnitz labours under a total want of springs and running water; whence the inhabitants, when they have been long without rain, are obliged to fetch water at five or six miles distance. Among the caverns or grottos in this part of Carniola, that near Lueg is worthy of notice. The entrance of this cavern extends a considerable length under the rocks, and within it are seen many icicles equal in whiteness to snow itself.

One of the principal towns in this district is Rudolphswerth, or Neustadtlein, a royal town seated on an eminence on the river Gurk, and founded by the archduke Rodolph IV. in 1365, whence it received its name. It has a collegiate church, to which belong four others in the town, fourteen in the country, and five parishes in Stiria. It has a monastery of Franciscan friars, and another of Capuchins. The many incursions of the Turks into the territory belonging to this town, together with fires and pestilence, have reduced it from its former flourishing state.

The next division is Middle Carniola, to which belongs a tract called Dry Carniola, which is between four and five German miles in extent; and if we include in it the bottom of Temnitz, which belongs to Lower Car-

niola, and is also destitute of water, it is between six and seven in compass: yet this tract of land, though almost every where mountainous and stony, is covered with great and small villages, and in some parts of it the inhabitants produce good wine. The celebrated lake of Cirknitz in this part is very remarkable; it takes its name from the neighbouring market-town, and is encompassed with wild, rough, and stony mountains; but round it also lie two inhabited citadels, nine villages, and twenty churches.

This lake is one German mile in length from north to south, half a German mile in breadth, and from one, to two, three, and four fathoms in depth, the pits excepted, some of which are many fathoms deep. In it lie three beautiful islands covered with trees: these islands are called Vornec, Velha Goriza, and Mala Goriza. A peninsula also runs into this lake, and is separated from the island of Vornec by a canal. In the lake are many holes or pits with long ditches like canals, and eight brooks discharge themselves into it.

It is a common saying, that in this lake a person may sow and reap, hunt and fish, within the space of a year; but this is the least remarkable circumstance in it, and no more than what may be said of almost any other spot that is overflowed in winter or spring. The most wonderful circumstance is its ebbing and flowing. The former always happens in a long drought, when it runs off through eighteen holes at the bottom, which form so many eddies or whirlpools. Valvasor mentions a singular method of fishing in one of these holes called Ribescajama, and says, that when the water is entirely run off into its subterraneous reservoirs, the peasants venture with lights into that cavity, which is in a hard rock, three or four fathoms under ground, to a solid bottom; whence the water running through small holes, as through a sieve, the fishes are left behind, caught, as it were, in a net provided by nature.

At the first appearance of its ebbing a bell is rung at Cirknitz, upon which all the peasants in the neighbouring villages, with the utmost diligence, prepare for fishing; for the greatest part of the fish generally go off at the beginning of the ebb, and seldom stay till the water is considerably decreased. Above a hundred peasants never fail to exert themselves on this occasion, and both the men and women promiscuously run into the lake stripped quite naked, though both the magistrates and clergy have used their utmost endeavours to suppress this indecent custom, particularly on account of the young lay-brothers of a neighbouring convent, who have the privilege of fishing there; and, notwithstanding the prohibitions of the fathers, leave the convent in order to see this uncommon spectacle. The peasants, however, are not observed to be guilty of more lewdness at these times than at others, when they are clothed. At these ebbings an incredible number of pike, trout, tench, eels, carp, perch, &c. are caught in the lake; and what are not consumed, or disposed of while fresh, are dried by the fire.

Though every part of the lake is left dry, except two or three pools, yet Mr. Keysser says, immediately upon the return of the water, it abounds in fish as much as it did before; and the fishes that return with the water are of a very large size, particularly pikes weighing fifty or sixty pounds. It is also remarkable, that when it begins to rain hard, three of the cavities spout up water to the height of two or three fathoms, and if the rain continues, and is accompanied with violent thunder, the water bubbles out of all the holes through which it had been absorbed, two of them excepted, and the whole lake is again filled with water in twenty-four, and often in eighteen hours. Sometimes not only fish, but live ducks, with grass and fish in their stomachs, have emerged out of these cavities.

In a rock on one side of the lake, but considerably higher than its surface, are two caverns, at some distance from each other; and when it thunders the water gushes out of both, with great noise and impetuosity: if this happens in autumn, they also eject a great many ducks, which are blind, but very fat, and of a black colour; and though they are at first almost bare of feathers, in a fortnight's time, or at farthest before the end of October,

they are entirely fledged, recover their sight, and fly away. Each of these caverns is six feet high, and as many broad; and when the water gushes out of them, it is in a large column of the same dimensions, and in a continual stream. There is a large passage in each of these caves, where a man may walk upright for a considerable way; but it is said that no person has ever yet ventured into them, to search into the nature of the inner caves and reservoir to which these apertures lead; for there is no certainty but that in an instant he may be surprized by the water rushing upon him, with the force and rapidity of a fire-engine.

When the lake ebbs early in the year, within twenty days time grass grows upon it, which is mowed down, and the bottom afterwards sown with millet: but if the water does not run off early nothing can be sown, and if it soon returns, as it sometimes does, the seed is lost: otherwise after the millet harvest all manner of game is hunted and shot in it.

In Middle Carniola are several little royal towns, and some market towns; but none that deserve a particular description.

We now come to Inner Carniola, a division which is for the most part mountainous and full of small eminences. Little corn is cultivated here; but it produces a great deal of very good wine, which is commonly called Italian, and is exported to very distant countries; but in many places the inhabitants labour under great want of fresh water.

The most remarkable places in this division are the following:

Adlsberg, or Adlersberg, in the Slavonian language called Postoina, a well-built market-town, situated at the foot of a high rocky mountain, on which stands a citadel.

About half way up the acclivity of this mountain is the entrance into a large cavern that is divided into a great number of subterraneous passages. The eye is here delighted with viewing a vast number of sparry icicles, formed on the arched roof of this vast cavern, by the exsudations of a lapideous or petrifying fluid, which form the most beautiful decorations. The sides are covered with all kinds of figures formed by the same exsudations, to which the imagination of the spectator gives various forms never intended by nature; so that it is not at all strange that some people should make out dragons, heads of horses, tygers, and other animals. Several pillars, which are to be seen on each side, proceed from the droppings of the petrifying fluid from the top, which form a kind of sparry pillar on the bottom of the cave: this gradually increases, till it at last joins the icicle at the top, by meeting it about half way, and thus a complete pillar is formed. If a person's curiosity will carry him so far, he may rove about two German miles in the subterraneous passages of this cavern.

It is remarkable that the river Poig, which rises in the above mountain, about four English miles from Adlersberg, runs again to it with an inverted course, loses itself near the entrance of the cavern, and falls a great depth into the rock, as is evident from its roaring noise, and the sound caused by flinging a stone into the hole. The same river appears again near Planina; but soon after a second time loses itself in a rock, and at length emerges a third time, when it assumes the name of the Laubach.

Tybein or Duin, which stands on an eminence on the Adriatic, has a small harbour, a cloister, and a citadel. At a small distance is dug a very beautiful black marble, and in the rocks on the sea is found on breaking off a piece of them, a living snail about the thickness of a man's fist, and eatable. The stone in which these snails are inclosed, contains many small apertures.

Lucg, a citadel seated on the center of a high rocky mountain that rises perpendicularly. This large building stands in a hole in the rock in such a manner that no rain falls on it; but it has a roof to defend it against the water which trickles down from the rocks. From this citadel there is no other prospect than that of the heavens. One half of the fore tower alone projects: it is extremely damp, and in summer cool.

About two German miles from Adlersberg is a remarkable cavern, named St. Magdalen's cave. The way to it being covered with stones and bushes, is extremely troublesome; but the great fatigue in going is overpaid by the satisfaction of seeing such an extraordinary cavern. You first descend into a kind of hole, where the earth seems to be fallen in for ten paces before you reach the entrance, which resembles a fissure in a huge rock caused by an earthquake. Here the torches are always lighted to conduct travellers; for the cave is extremely dark. This wonderful cavern seems as if divided into several large halls, and other apartments. The vast number of pillars by which it is ornamented by nature, give it a superb appearance, and are extremely beautiful; for they are as white as snow, and have a kind of transparent lustre, not unlike that of white sugar candy. The bottom is of the same materials, so that a person may imagine he is walking among the ruins of some stately palace, amidst noble pillars and columns, partly mutilated and partly entire. From the top, sparry icicles are seen every where suspended, in some places resembling wax tapers, which from their radiant whiteness appear extremely beautiful. All the inconvenience here arises from the inequality of the bottom, which may make the spectator stumble, while he is viewing the beauties above and around him.

Idra, or Ydra, is a small town, seated in a deep valley, amidst high mountains on the river of the same name, and at the bottom of a descent so steep, that it is very difficult and sometimes dangerous, to ride to it. The town consists of about two hundred and seventy scattered houses, and a citadel; but the number of the inhabitants is said to amount to about two thousand.

This town is famous for its quicksilver mines, which were first discovered in the year 1497. Before that time, says Mr. Keyser, this part of the country was only inhabited by a few coopers, and other artificers in wood, with which this country abounds. But one evening a cooper having placed a new tub under a dropping spring, in order to try if it would hold water, when he came in the morning to take the tub away, found it so heavy, that he could hardly move it. At first the superstitious notions that are apt to possess the minds of the ignorant, made him begin to suspect that his tub was bewitched; but at last perceiving a shining fluid at the bottom, and not knowing what to make of it, he went to Laubach, where he shewed it to an apothecary, who being an artful man, dismissed him with a small gratuity, and bid him bring him some more of the same stuff whenever he could meet with it. This the poor cooper frequently did, being highly pleased with his good luck; till the affair being at last made public, several persons formed themselves into a society, in order to search farther into the quicksilver mine. In their possession it continued till Charles duke of Austria, perceiving the great importance of such a work, gave them a sum of money, as a compensation for the expences they had been at, and took it into his own hands.

The subterraneous passages of the mine are so extensive, that it would take up several hours to go through them. The greatest perpendicular height, computing from the entrance of the shaft, is eight hundred and forty feet; but as they advance horizontally under a high mountain, the depth would be much greater, if it was measured from the surface of the hill. One way of descending down the shafts is by a bucket; but as the entrance is narrow, the bucket is liable to strike against the sides, or to be stopped by something in the way, so that it may be easily overset. The other way of going down is safer; this is descending by a great number of ladders, placed obliquely in a kind of zig-zag; but as the ladders are wet and narrow, a person must be very cautious how he steps, to prevent his falling. As you descend there are resting places in some parts, that are very welcome to the weary traveller. In some of the subterranean passages the heat is so intense, as to throw a man into a perfect sweat; and formerly in some of these shafts the air was extremely confined, so that several miners have been suffocated by a kind of igneous vapour called the damp; but by sinking the main shaft deeper,

deeper, this has been prevented. Near the main shaft is a large wheel, and an hydraulic machine, by which all the water is raised out of the bottom of the mine.

Virgin mercury is that which is prepared by nature, and is found in some of the ores of this mine, in a multitude of little drops of pure quicksilver. This is also to be met with in a kind of clay, and sometimes flows down the passages or fissures of the mine in a small continued stream, so that a man has frequently gathered in six hours above thirty-six pounds of virgin mercury, which bears a higher price than common quicksilver. The rest is extracted from cinnabar, (which is the ore of quicksilver) by the force of fire.

Every common miner receives the value of three shillings and six-pence a week; but many of them are afflicted with a nervous disorder, accompanied with violent tremblings, sudden convulsive motions of the hands and legs, and frightful distortions of the face. Those are most subject to these disorders who work in the places where virgin mercury is found, which in a surprising manner insinuates itself into their bodies; so that when they go into a warm bath, or are put into a profuse sweat by steam, drops of pure mercury have been known to issue through the pores from all parts of the body. These mines are often infested with rats and mice, which feed on the crumbs of bread, &c. dropped by the miners at their meals. But this plague seldom lasts long; for even they are seized with the like convulsive disorders as the men, which soon kills them. It is esteemed a necessary precaution for every person to eat before he descends into these subterraneous regions.

All the adjacent country is very woody; but that the woods may not be destroyed, great quantities of fuel for the smelting furnaces are annually brought down the river Idra, or Idrizza, from some forests that lie about five or six miles distant. Besides this river, here is a canal about two miles in length, supplied with water by several streams issuing from perennial springs, in order to put in motion the machines belonging to the mines.

The next town we shall mention is that of Fiume, or St. Veit, which is situated on a bay of the Adriatic Sea, called the gulph of Carnero. It is seated in a valley, and is famous for good wine, figs, and other fruit. It is populous, and contains an arsenal, a cathedral, and a Jesuits college; with two convents within the town, and one without it near the sea. The harbour is formed by the river Finmara, and from thence large quantities of goods are exported, a considerable part of which come from Hungary, on which account an expensive highway has been made from this place to Carlstadt in Croatia. It is separated from the dutchy of Carniola, and under the government of a captain, who resides at the citadel. The gulph of Carnero abounds in fish, among which is a sort called gatto, which grows to a considerable size, and of its skin is made a kind of shagreen, used for the cases of watches, caskets, telescopes, and the like.

Trieste is pleasantly situated on a hill, and forms a semicircle, which is encompassed with vineyards. The town is but small; however on the south-west side, where formerly were salt-pits, a beautiful suburb has been erected. The castle, which stands on an eminence, is surrounded with a ditch, and the fortifications have been considerably improved. The Jesuits church is a handsome structure, but has neither good paintings, nor any other ornaments worthy of notice. In the church near the castle are two chapels, adorned with a great deal of old mosaic work. The streets of the town are narrow and uneven, except in the market-place, where there is a very convenient walk. The inhabitants of Trieste are accused of being lazy and proud, of never applying themselves to any useful employment, and of being so malicious, as to molest and injure strangers to the utmost of their power. This town, which stands on the borders of Italy, is situated in the forty-sixth degree ten minutes north latitude, and in the fourteenth degree twelve minutes east longitude, only fifty-eight miles to the north-east of Venice.

S E C T. XIV.

Of the County of TIROL.

Its Extent; Situation, Mountains, Rivers; with a particular Description of the Channel of the Inn, and the Face of the Country. The Appearance of the Peasants; and a Description of the principal Places in Tirol.

THE next division of Austria is that of the county of Tirol, which is one hundred and fifty miles in length, and one hundred and twenty in breadth; and is bounded on the north by Bavaria; on the east by Carinthia and the archbishopric of Salzburg; on the south, by part of the territory of Venice; and on the west, by Swisserland, and the country of the Grisons.

The passes into this country, where all travellers are obliged to take passports, are entirely surrounded by a continued chain of mountains, so that at a distance you are often at a loss to distinguish the passage; and when after many windings, you come to an opening, you find it secured by strong forts. It is said that seven thousand men could defend the whole country against the attempts of any number of men. In several parts, particularly before noon, not only light mists, but heavy clouds, are seen resting in the middle of a mountain; higher up it is quite clear, till at the summit, it is again enveloped in clouds; "a sight," says Mr. Keyser, "which sometimes gave me an idea of mount Sinai, at the promulgation of the law."

But though the mountains of Tirol have their tops constantly covered with snow, they are very fertile, and have not only the finest woods, abounding in a variety of game, but also large corn-fields; and where the mountains are barren, there are generally either mines or quarries of excellent marble of all colours. On the eminences grow all sorts of the fine fruits that Italy affords, and also woods of chesnut trees. The country likewise yields flax, and produces excellent wine. There are found in this country granates, rubies, amethysts, emeralds, agates, cornelians, chalcedonies, and a species of crystal so hard as to be used instead of diamonds for cutting glass. It has in some places profitable salt-pits, and in others mines of copper, silver, lead, allum, and vitriol. Hence it is one of the most profitable parts of the territories of the emperor; and it was not without reason that Maximilian I. used to say, "Tirol is like a peasant's coat, very coarse, indeed, but also very warm."

It produces a good breed of horned cattle and horses, and among the wild beasts are the chamois and wild goats. The chamois, or shamoy, goat is properly a native of Tirol, as well as of the principality of Salzburg. The huntsmen have sharp crooked pieces of iron on their shoes, and sometimes fastened to their hands, for the better pursuing this swift footed animal among the rocks and mountains.

The principal rivers in this country are the Inn, which receives a number of lesser streams, and entering Bavaria falls into the Danube. The ingenious Mr. Addison says, "It was the pleasantest voyage in the world to follow the windings of this river, through the variety of pleasing scenes to which its course naturally lead us. We had sometimes on each side a vast extent of naked rocks and mountains, broken into a thousand irregular steeps and precipices. At other places we beheld a long forest so thick set together that it was impossible to discover any of the soil they grew upon, and rising up so regularly one above another, as to give us the view of a whole wood. The time of the year that had given the leaves of the trees so many different colours, completed the beauty of the prospect."

The other rivers of Tirol are the Etsch, which also rises in this country, and traversing the bishopric of Trent, and the territory of the republic of Venice, at length falls into the Adriatic sea. The Lech which rises here, and after passing through Tirol, forms the limits between the circles of Swabia and Bavaria, and at length falls into the Danube.

In this country are twelve towns and ten villages that have markets. The common people live chiefly by working in the mines and salt-works.

The meaner sort of peasants make so wretched an appearance, that one would almost take them for gypsies: both the men and women wear hats of all colours. Their farm-houses, barns, and stables are also very mean, when compared with those of other countries, and are only covered with boards placed almost horizontally, on which are laid heavy stones to secure them from being blown off.

The inhabitants have, however, many particular privileges above those of the other hereditary dominions of the house of Austria: for being naturally well fortified by their mountains, and bordering upon many different governments, as the Bavarians, Swiss, Venetians, Grisons, &c. were they treated with severity, they might be tempted to set up for a republic, or at least throw themselves under the milder government of some of their neighbours. The country is, however, poor, though the emperor draws considerable sums out of its mines of salt and metal; and these mines fill the country with greater numbers of people than it would be able to support without the importation of foreign corn.

The arms of this country are an eagle gules in a field argent.

Tirol is governed by three councils, which are held at Inspruck, one of which sits upon life and death, the other regulates the taxes, and the third manages the affairs of justice: but as these courts are guided by the orders they receive from Vienna, there are in many cases appeals from them to the emperor. It contributes yearly a hundred thousand florins towards the military state of the house of Austria.

The principal places it contains are,

Inspruck, the capital of the whole country, which is a handsome city, formerly the residence of the archdukes of Austria, who are counts of Tirol. It is seated on the river Inn, within the forty-seventh degree thirty-eight minutes latitude, and the eleventh degree thirty-nine minutes east longitude, and stands in a fertile plain environed with mountains. Though Inspruck be small, it is a fine city with well paved streets, and stately flat-roofed palaces, after the Italian taste. Here are no less than twelve churches, including those in eight convents, and the two suburbs, which are much larger than the city itself, and are finely built. The city is adorned with curious fountains, spacious market-places, and the castle, or palace; but is of small extent within the walls. The great hall of the palace is a very noble room, the walls being painted in fresco representing the labours of Hercules, many of which make a very fine appearance, tho' great part of the work has been cracked by the earthquakes, which are very frequent in this country. The famous golden roof in the palace consists of copper-plates richly gilt, at the expence of two hundred thousand dollars. Near this palace is another of wood, to which it was usual for the court to retire at the first shock of an earthquake. In one of the rooms of the palace, which is hung with the pictures of illustrious persons, they shew the portrait of Mary queen of Scots, who was beheaded in the reign of queen Elizabeth. The gardens are very large, and in the middle of them is a beautiful equestrian statue in brass of the archduke Leopold, and near it twelve figures of water nymphs and river gods, well cast and as big as the life. Covered galleries lead from the palace to five different churches, and a very long one reaches to the church belonging to the Capuchin convent, where the duke of Lorraine used frequently to assist at their midnight devotions. In this convent are shewn the apartments of Maximilian, archduke and count of Tirol, who, while he kept the government in his hands, lived in this convent with all the rigour and austerity of a Capuchin. His room of audience and anti-chamber are little square wainscotted rooms, faced with a kind of fret-work, that gives them the appearance of little hollow caverns hewn out of a rock.

The church belonging to the Franciscan convent was erected by Ferdinand I. and is a kind of attempt at mo-

dern architecture. But though the architect has shewn his dislike of the Gothic taste, it is easily seen that in that age the people, at least in this country, were not arrived at the true knowledge of that simplicity observed by the Greeks and Romans. The portal, for instance, consists of a composite order unknown to the ancients; for though the ornaments are taken from them, the volutes of the Ionic, the foliage of the Corinthian, and the uovali of the Doric order, are mixed without any regularity in the same capital. The vault of the church is incumbered with many little pieces of sculpture; and tho' it is supported with single columns, instead of the clusters of little pillars found in Gothic cathedrals, these columns are of no regular order, and are at least twice too long for their diameter. In the middle of it is the monument of the emperor Maximilian I. which was erected by his grandson Ferdinand I. but the body of the emperor lies elsewhere. On the top of this monument is the figure of Maximilian kneeling, in brass, surrounded with four other smaller metal figures representing the virtues, and on the monument itself is a beautiful basso relievo of white marble, representing the exploits of that prince in twenty-four square pannels of sculpture. In the middle passage of the church are twenty-eight brazen statues ranged in two rows, and larger than the life, representing the regal and princely personages, male and female; in particular those of the house of Austria, and on the cornice of the vaulted passage, which separates the choir from the nave of the church, stand twenty-three small statues of brass.

Among the other churches is a little Notre Dame, which is handsomely designed and covered with a cupola. This church was built by the contributions of the whole country, and was designed as an expression of gratitude to the Virgin Mary, for having defended the country of Tirol against the victorious arms of Gustavus Adolphus, who was unable to enter this part of the empire, after his having over-run most of the rest.

The regency and provincial houses here are fine structures. In the suburbs is an arsenal; there is also an university, a cloister of Capuchins, and two monasteries.

At a league's distance is the town of Hall, which is a pretty place seated on the river Inn, and contains a mint that is worked by water, a parish church, a college of Jesuits, a Franciscan cloister, and a royal foundation for ladies. But this town is most famous for its salt-works. In the neighbourhood of this town are vast mountains of rock-salt, where four or five hundred men are constantly employed; and as soon as they have hewn down a sufficient quantity of the rock, which in colour resembles allum, and is extremely solid, they let in their springs and reservoirs among their works, where the water dissolves the particles of salt mixed with the stone, and is conveyed from thence through long troughs and wooden canals to Hall, where it is received in vast cisterns, and from time to time boiled off. The salt-works of this town have great convenience for fuel, which is brought down to them by the river Inn; and, during its course through Tirol, is generally enclosed between a double range of mountains, most of which are covered with fir-trees. Great numbers of peasants are employed in felling the largest of these trees, which, after they have barked and cut into shape, are tumbled down from the mountains into the river, which carries them off to the salt-works: vast quantities of them are likewise taken up at Inspruck for the use of the convents and the public offices, who are allowed a certain portion of them by the emperor, and the rest pass on to Hall. Several hundred loads of this timber are generally on float; for they begin to cut twenty leagues up the river above Hall; and other rivers that flow into the Inn bring in their contributions. The above salt-works, with the mint established at the same place, have rendered Hall almost as populous as Inspruck. This mint is designed to work part of the metals obtained in the neighbouring mountains, where seven thousand men are said to be constantly employed in the mines.

Schwatz is a very considerable market-town, situated in the jurisdiction of the same name; it stands on the Inn, and exceeds most towns in the country in beauty. Near it is a mine-work of silver and copper, in which a thou-

a thousand men are employed. This mine was discovered in 1448, and was formerly much richer than it is at present.

In this province is the pass of Kofel, in Italian Covelo, which lies on the borders of the territory of the republic of Venice. In it is a high and steep rock, which rises fifty fathoms like a wall, and in the middle of it is a cavity which contains a spring, on which a castle or fort has been erected. It has a small garrison, which must be wound up and let down by ropes. Below it is a narrow pass, in which two carriages can scarce go abreast; and on the opposite side is the steep shore of the river Brent. At the beginning of this pass is a bulwark, or bastion, the guard of which is let down from the castle. Hard by is the village of Primolano, about a gun-shot from which is a lazaretto, where travellers in the time of the plague perform quarantine. This place lies quite lonesome, between mountains and cliffs of an uncommon height.

The next town we shall mention is that of Meran, which is situated on the river Passer in the most fertile part of the district of Etsch, and contains six churches and cloisters. It was formerly the capital of the country, and even still, on public occasions, takes precedence of all the towns. Near it antiently stood a town, which in the middle age was quite overwhelmed by the fall of a mountain.

Bozen, by the Italians called Bolzano, is situated in a pleasant valley twenty-five miles to the north of Trent, and stands on the river Eysock. This city contains several religious houses, and the monasteries of the Franciscans and Dominicans have churches. The most remarkable thing in the great church is a round hole in the roof three feet in diameter, surrounded with a garland of ribbons of different colours, with large wafers appendent to them; and Mr. Misson was told, that a sacred opera being acted in that church on Ascension-day, the person who represented Christ was taken up to heaven through this hole. This church has a high steeple, adorned with three stories of balustrades of very good workmanship. The houses are all plaistered over, and a rivulet of spring-water runs through all the streets, which are generally straight and broad; but the town has no walls, nor any defence, except a large stream at its entrance, over which there is a bridge. It is a place of good trade, especially at its four annual fairs, that last each a fortnight, and to which great numbers of merchants come from all parts of Germany, Swisserland, and Italy; on which account great privileges have been granted to the city. During these fairs the merchants are allowed magistrates and judges of their own, distinct from those of the town, and none are permitted to trade without being entered in the judges books, and a certificate of the entry under the seal of the corporation.

The neighbourhood of this place, and indeed the whole valley of Bolzano, is full of villages, and vineyards planted in the form of arbours, with the branches of the vines tied to wooden frames; props not being used in this country. Their white wines are generally of a very agreeable tartness; but they must be drank the very year of their growth, or else they grow luscious, and then turn crabbed. At certain distances in this valley are little straw huts, each raised upon three trunks of trees or poles, from whence they shoot the bears that come from the mountains to eat the grapes.

S E C T. XV.

Of the Bishoprics of TRENT and BRIXEN.

Their Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a particular Account of Trent and Brixen, the capital Cities of this Country.

THE temporal jurisdiction of the bishop of Trent is situated in the county of Tirol, and the bishop enjoys, as an immediate prince of the empire, a seat at the diets: it is situated among the Alps, in the south part of Tirol, to the north-west of the dominions of Venice, and to the east of those of the Grisons. It is near sixty

miles in length from east to west, and forty, where broadest, from north to south.

The river Adige runs through the country from north to south, and receives several smaller rivers that rise in the mountains on each side. The soil produces a good wine that is of a pale red, with oil, fruit, and pasture; but not much corn. The common languages of the people are the German and Italian.

The city of Trent, the capital of this bishopric, stands on the river Adige, in the forty-sixth degree north latitude, and the eleventh degree twenty-nine minutes east longitude. It is supposed to have received its Latin name Tridentum from three sharp peaks or rocks of the Alps, which resemble three teeth, and hang over the city. It is built on a flat rock of a kind of red and white marble, which also furnishes the materials for their houses; but is subject to dangerous inundations, not only from the overflowing of the river, but from the brooks of Levis and Fersena, which sometimes precipitate themselves from the adjacent mountains, and force great rocks along with them even into the town.

The city is encompassed with steep impassable hills, except the Tirol road on the north, and that to Verona on the south. The sun-beams darted from these flinty rocks, render the heat as intolerable as the snow on their tops makes the air cold in winter; but in spring and autumn the air is temperate. The town is small, but pretty populous, and defended by an old castle. The streets are broad and well paved, and have many stately palaces, beautiful churches, and religious houses. The cathedral dedicated to St. Vigil is a fine piece of Gothic architecture, supported by marble pillars of an extraordinary height and thickness; but the inside is too dark. It has a chapel, in which nothing is to be seen but marble and sculpture, and is said to have cost a hundred thousand crowns. In one of the chapels of this cathedral is shewn a crucifix as big as the life; and they gravely assert, that it bowed its head at the time of the council's being sworn and proclaimed under it, to shew its approbation of the veracity of their decrees.

The church of St. Mary Major is noted for the famous council of Trent, held there from the fourth of January, 1545, till 1563, the representation of which is finely painted on the walls. The church is also famous for an organ, which is said to imitate all sorts of instruments and the singing of birds, with the cries of several beasts, and the sound of drums and trumpets so naturally, that it is hard to distinguish them.

We now come to the bishopric of Brixen, which is by the Matricula placed in the circle of Austria, and, as it forms a part of the Tirolese, is subject to the house of Austria. This country is bounded by Saltzburg and part of Carinthia on the east, by Trent and the dominions of Venice on the south, and joins the Tirol on the north and east, extending about forty-five miles in length, and thirty in breadth.

The city of Brixen is situated on the river Eysock, at the foot of Mount Brenner, in the forty-sixth degree thirty-eight minutes north latitude, and the eleventh degree forty-nine minutes east longitude, in a fine country abounding in vineyards, that yield excellent red wine. It is adorned with spacious squares, a very handsome palace, a town-house, a cathedral, two churches which join to each other, and two convents. It has also a castle seated on an eminence. It is a populous town much frequented on account of the mineral springs in its neighbourhood. The houses are well-built, and are almost all of the same size: they are adorned with porticos, and curiously painted on the outside; but their shops are kept in vaults, which run from one side of the street to the other. The bishop's palace, which forms one side of a fine square over-against the two churches, is encompassed with a ditch, and defended at the entrance by four brass cannon.

The country between this city and Bolzano is extremely populous, and so well manured, that the steepest mountains are cultivated. The men of Brixen are reckoned more genteel and civilized, and the women handsomer, than in any other part of Tirol. The Virgin Mary and St. Christopher being the principal objects of

the people's devotion, the roads are full of little chapels of the Virgin, and St. Christopher is painted on all their houses. This city has its own magistrates, who are two burgomasters and twelve council.

We shall defer treating of that part of Swabia subject to the house of Austria, till we come to the circle of Swabia.

C H A P. X.

Of the Kingdom of BOHEMIA, including MORAVIA.

S E C T. I.

Its Name and Situation; the Face of the Country of Bohemia; its Minerals and Fossils, Vegetables and Animals; its Rivers and Highways, Towns and Villages. Of the Inhabitants, the Hardships under which they labour, their Language, Religion, and Government.

SOME authors include under the name of Bohemia in general the kingdom of Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, and Lusatia, which lie together in the form of a lozenge, between Austria on the south, Brandenburg on the north, the palatinate of Bavaria, with part of Saxony, on the west, and Poland on the east, extending in its greatest length and breadth two hundred and seventy-six miles from north to south, and two hundred and sixty from east to west.

But however convenient it may be for geographical writers thus to class countries that have little or no relation to each other, it can only serve to mislead the mind and confound our ideas; for neither Silesia nor Lusatia can properly be considered as provinces of Bohemia; the greatest part of the former being subject to the king of Prussia, and the latter divided between the elector of Saxony, the king of Prussia, and several other princes. We shall therefore confine this account of Bohemia to the kingdom of that name, including Moravia; but shall treat of each separately, beginning with the former.

Bohemia, in German Boiherheim, Boiheim, and corruptly Bohmen, that is the abode of the Boii, obtained its name from the Boii, its antient inhabitants, who were a tribe of the Celtæ, that retired into the Hercynian forest, which extends through this country, rather than submit to the Roman yoke, and is bounded to the north by Misnia, Lusatia, and Silesia; to the east by Moravia, Silesia, and the county of Glatz; to the south by Bavaria and Austria; and to the west by Bavaria and Franconia.

It is on all sides encompassed with high mountains and thick extensive woods, yet the country lies high, tho' it is for the most part level, and enjoys a warm, pleasant, and wholesome air; a soil in some places fat, and in others sandy. In the bowels of the earth are found isinglass, coal, allum, sulphur, and sealed-earth: there are here some mines of silver, tin, copper, lead, quicksilver, and iron; salt-petre is also found here, and all kinds of marble are dug in Bohemia. Among the precious stones are a kind of diamond which have a beautiful lustre, but want a proper hardness, which is also the case with the rubies and crysolites found in this country; here are likewise emeralds, granates, sapphires, topazes, amethysts, hyacinths, berils, carbuncles, jasper, chalcedonies, turquoises, and cornelians.

Bohemia is very fertile in corn, considerable quantities of which are exported, particularly buck-wheat and millet. It also abounds in garden and orchard fruits, and produces excellent red wines, with saffron, ginger, and calamus. It likewise yields good pasture, which feed numerous droves of cattle, and has excellent chaces. Among the wild beasts are lynxes, bears, wolves, foxes, martens, badgers, beavers, and otters; and there are here plenty of wild fowl.

With respect to the principal rivers of the country, the Elbe rises in Bohemia, and becomes navigable at Leut-

meritz: at Melmic it receives the Moldaw, and near Leutmeritz the Egra.

Ten principal highways, leading from Prague through the whole country, are made in a direct line, and in many places secured by masonry, the hollow parts being filled up, and on both sides deep trenches are cut for carrying off the water. This useful labour cost some millions of florins.

Bohemia was formerly well supplied with towns, boroughs, villages, castles, and men; but it at present appears extremely desolate when compared with its former state. During the intestine religious wars, and the succeeding eruptions of the Swedes, most of the towns, castles, and villages, were laid waste; so that at present it contains only one hundred and five great and small towns. These are Prague, the capital, with thirty-one royal towns, nine royal dowry or jointure ones, two common mine towns, three royal mine towns, twelve exempted mine towns, and forty-seven baron towns, with not much above six thousand villages.

The number of inhabitants is likewise considerably decreased: according to Balbin, there is not the tenth part of the people by which it was formerly inhabited, and Modern Bohemia is scarce the shadow of what it was antiently. In 1622, and the three or four succeeding years, thirty thousand families quitted this country, not to mention women, children, handicraftsmen, and the greatest part of the nobility, who also retired; whence an attentive traveller finds the towns, boroughs, villages, and highways of this country extremely desolate.

The peasants here are bondmen to their lords, and the hard yoke by which they are galled, appears to be the cause both of their stiff-neckedness and of their indolence; the latter being very observable by the wretched condition of their villages. In 1679, the heavy bondage they laboured under induced a great part of them to take arms, but for this they were wholly stripped of the small remains of liberty they enjoyed.

The owners of free estates are but few in number. The landed estates belong to the prelates, lords, knights, and towns. The prelates here are the archbishop of Prague, with the bishops of Leutmeritz and Konigin-gratz, the canons and capitulars of the metropolitan church of St. Vitus in the citadel of Prague, with many others. The lords consist of princes, counts, and barons.

The Bohemian language is a dialect of the Slavonic, but is harsher than that of the neighbouring people who speak that language.

The Bohemians are supposed to have embraced the Christian religion so early as the sixth century; but it is more certain that they were instructed in it by the Greek brethren Methodius and Cyril, about the middle of the ninth century; hence the Greek religion and customs were in use among them till the Romish method of worship was introduced by Boleslaus the Good. In the fifteenth century John Militz preached against the pope and the abuses of the clergy; Matthias Janow trod in his steps, and was followed by John Hufs, Jerome of Prague, and Jacob Von Misa, who in the fourteenth, and more particularly in the fifteenth century, opposed many doctrines of the popish church. This brought Hufs and Jerome to the stake, and put their adherents, most of whom were Bohemians, under the ban; upon which

account

account they were so irritated, that they raised a bloody war, which continued for many years. They pitched their camp on a mountain for the security of themselves and their religious assemblies, which gave occasion to their being called Taborites; Tabor in the Bohemian tongue signifying a camp. A part of the people, who were principally desirous of participating in the cup at the Lord's Supper, obtained the name of Calixtines, and after the death of Ziska, their general, a part called themselves Orphans. The Calixtines, in the year 1433, obtained the use of the cup, which was permitted to every one; but in other respects they complied with the church of Rome. The Taborites, on the contrary, could neither be brought over by allurements, threatenings, nor persecutions, to the Romish church; but improving their doctrines and church discipline, and laying aside war and disputes, called themselves the Bohemian Brethren; but, in 1547, the greatest part of them being banished, retired to Poland and Prussia. In the sixteenth century the opinions of Luther spread in Bohemia, and the greatest part of the Calixtines embraced that religion. In 1575 Maximilian II. allowed every one full liberty of conscience, which was granted in stronger terms in 1609, by Rodolphus II. when they were not only permitted the free exercise of their religion, but the use of the university of Prague. These privileges were confirmed by Matthias I. in 1611, and Ferdinand II. was admitted to the throne only upon condition of his confirming them by oath; but in 1617 he entered into an agreement with Philip III. king of Spain, without the consent of the states, that he, with all his descendants, after the extinction of the male archducal stock of Austria, should possess the hereditary succession in Bohemia. This terrified the Lutheran Bohemians, who had besides so many complaints to prefer, that their deputies, in 1618, obtaining no favourable answer to their representations in the royal chancery at Prague, they, in the heat of their passion, threw two of the royal counsellors, with a secretary, out of the window, as betrayers of their country; and no regard being paid to their complaints, they created the palgrave Frederic king, and took up arms in their own defence. Hence arose a dreadful war, which ended very unhappily both with respect to the new king and the protestant Bohemians; for in 1627 they were deprived of all their rights and privileges; and those who would not submit to the Romish church, were compelled to quit the country. From that time the church of Rome became the only prevailing religion in Bohemia; and though the Jews at Prague are indulged in the exercise of theirs, the few Lutherans were afterwards obliged to conceal themselves as much as possible.

The archbishop of Prague is legate of the see of Rome, a prince of the Roman empire, primate of the kingdom, and standing chancellor of the university of Prague, and has for his suffragans the bishops of Leutmeritz and Koniginratz. The archiepiscopal consistory has the supreme jurisdiction over the clergy, and from it lies an appeal, either to the king or the pope.

Learning is at a low ebb in this kingdom; nor do the Bohemians apply themselves much to the fine arts. They, however, make good cloth, fine potters work, good blades for swords and knives, fine paper and glass.

With respect to commerce, they export a considerable quantity of corn and malt into Saxony and Bavaria. Hops and the Spaw waters of Egra are also plentifully exported from this kingdom, and likewise paper, pottery, and beautiful glass; but their commerce is in general inconsiderable.

With regard to the government, Bohemia is at present an hereditary kingdom, but was formerly elective, though the states usually kept to the family of the deceased king. Ferdinand I. in 1547, declared the kingdom hereditary by a conclusion of the diet, and it fully became so in 1620, from which time the states have had nothing to do with respect to the right of succession.

We have already observed, in treating of Germany in general, that the king of Bohemia is arch-cup-bearer to the holy Roman empire, but he does not add that office to his other titles. He has for hereditary cup-bearer of the empire the counts of Althan, who therefore bear a cup in their arms. On the death of the emperor

Charles VI. great debates arose concerning the person who at the election of a new king of the Romans, should represent the electoral voice of Bohemia. Queen Maria Theresia had conferred the sovereignty on her consort the great duke of Tuscany; but by a majority of votes in the electoral college, it was determined that the voice of Bohemia should remain dormant for that time. But after the death of Charles VII. the envoys of election of the queen of Bohemia were admitted to the choice of a new king of the Romans.

The arms of Bohemia are a lion argent, with a double tail, in a field gules.

The supreme officers of the empire are the supreme burgrave, land-steward, land-marshal, land-chamberlain, land-judge, aulic feudal-judge, president of appeals, chamber president, and supreme land register. The hereditary officers are principally the four following, the supreme hereditary marshal, the sewer, the cup-bearer, and the steward.

The aulic chancery of Bohemia, which constantly follows the court, was united in 1749, with that of the Austrian at Vienna, and the government of Prague is abolished; there are, however, several courts of judicature held there. The circles and towns in Bohemia have also their peculiar judicatories, and the lords their hereditary and feudal ones.

According to the new regulation, with respect to the military state of the Austrian hereditary countries, the annual contribution of the kingdom of Bohemia amounts to five millions two hundred and seventy thousand four hundred eighty-eight florins, forty-four kruiters.

The kingdom of Bohemia is divided into twelve circles, and the territory of Egra, but does not contain many towns so considerable as to deserve a particular description; we shall therefore begin with the capital of the kingdom.

S E C T. II.

A Description of the City of Prague, with a concise Account of the Inhabitants of that Metropolis.

THIS city is seated almost in the middle of Bohemia, in the fiftieth degree five minutes north latitude, and the fourteenth degree forty minutes east longitude. It extends on both sides the Moldaw, which is here about eight hundred paces broad; but shallow, and not navigable. The stone bridge which joins the two parts of the city on the opposite banks of the river, was erected by Charles IV. in the year 1357, and exceeds in length those of Dresden and Ratisbon, it being one thousand seven hundred and seventy feet long: its breadth amounts to thirty-five feet; three carriages may pass upon it abreast, and it has a strong tower at each end. It is raised on sixteen piers, and adorned on the sides with twenty-eight statues of saints. The crucifix with the two female statues that stand under it, and that of St. John of Nepomuck, are of metal; but the others are of stone. This Nepomuck, king Wenzel caused to be thrown from the bridge into the river, and drowned in 1683; but in the year 1729, he was not only ranked among the saints, but adored with such veneration, that almost all the other saints are on his account forgotten in Bohemia.

The fortifications of the city are pretty strong. The houses are built entirely of stone, and for the most part consist of three stories. The streets are broader than those of Vienna; but it has not so many magnificent palaces. It is computed to contain ninety-two churches and chapels, with about forty cloisters. The town, considering its extent, is not sufficiently populous, it containing only about seventy thousand Christians, and between twelve and thirteen thousand Jews. Nor is its commerce very considerable; for exclusive of the arts and handicraft trades, its principal means of subsistence is drawn from the brewing of beer. It comprehends three towns, the Old, the New, and the Little Town.

In Old Prague the Jesuits have a magnificent college, which is one of the largest belonging to their order, except that of Goa. It is called *Collegium Clementinum*, from

from St. Clement's church which joins to it, and two hundred and ten priests of that order constantly reside there. They have also another college in the New City, and in the Little City, they have a college, and two seminaries. Their schools are very full, and the number of students in the twelve classes of the Clementine college amounts to no less than eighteen hundred. The library of the Clementine college is worth observing, being very light and lofty, and adorned with galleries. The mathematical cabinet built here has a moving armillary sphere, according to Tycho Brahe's system, and a large sextant made by that celebrated mathematician. In the tower of the Clementine college is an observatory, from which there is a fine prospect of the city. On the top of this tower is a statue of Atlas, supporting an armillary sphere.

In the church near the Trinhoff is the monument of Tycho Brahe, over which is his usual motto in large characters, ESSE POTIVS QUAM HABERI. That is, "To be rather than seem to be;" and underneath a long inscription mentioning his various discoveries. Under this, Tycho Brahe is represented in basso relievo dressed in armour, with a long sword by his side, a band and whiskers: he leans with his right hand on a celestial sphere, placed over his coat of arms, and on his left is his helmet.

The church of the cross near the Jesuit's college in the old city is an elegant piece of architecture, adorned with fine marble columns, and beautiful paintings. On the church, which stands in Charles's square, is a *scala santa*, built of Bohemian marble. The high altar is embellished with sculpture in wood, which is well executed; but the walls of the church are entirely covered with votive pieces, some of which are wretched daubings designed for pictures, others filthy rags, coats, &c. which give the church a very disgusting appearance.

The cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Vitus, and stands on the castle hill, is very rich in plate, altar furniture, and relics: among other valuable ornaments is a crucifix of Hungarian virgin gold, that weighs ten thousand ducats. Some have represented St. Wenceslaus's chapel in this structure, as if the walls were entirely covered with jasper, amethysts, and cornelian; every thing indeed is there very rich, but falls short of this exaggerated account. Indeed, a considerable part of the wall is covered with these gems, some of which are as big as a man's fist; but irregularly set without any order; and as for the embellishments of gold, and the like, their value is much more owing to the metal, than the skill of the artificer.

Upon a fountain within the area of the citadel is a brass statue of St. George, cast in the year 1373, and making allowance for the age in which it was produced, it may be reckoned a very good one. The prospect from the royal apartments is quite charming, and the hall where the emperor entertains the nobility well contrived, and very splendid.

Facing the Capuchin church is an edifice, built in the imitation of the *casa santa* at Loretto, the walls of which are like that, black and smoaky within; but on the basso relievos on the outside, there is a very great difference, these being only of plaister, and those of the holy house at Loretto of marble, and the workmanship is as far inferior to the latter as the materials. The treasure collected in this chapel is very extraordinary. Among other valuable offerings are the following: a pyx set with pearls of the size of an acorn, one of which in the middle is shaped like a heart, and is of the size of a middling walnut, another is enriched with six thousand six hundred sixty-six diamonds, representing the sun. The size of the diamonds gradually decreases, and they are curiously arranged, in order to form the solar rays, which terminate in a point, consisting of one single stone. It cost two hundred thousand guldens, and the artist who made it, and was employed ten years before it was completed, was rewarded with ten thousand.

In the middle of the horse-market, which is a large square, is an equestrian statue of king Wenceslaus, and on one side of the area, before count Czernini's palace, is a stone pillar in memory of Drahomira, a pagan dutchess of Bohemia, the mother of St. Wenceslaus,

whom the earth swallowed up on this spot, in the year 939.

A white tower in this city serves for a state prison, and it is said there was formerly in one of the rooms a curious machine, made in the shape of a woman, which when any delinquent was brought near it, would embrace him, and with its arms instantly break his back and ribs; but no such thing is now to be seen.

Prague has been frequently besieged, and obliged to surrender; particularly in the year 1631, it was taken by the Saxons, and in 1741, by the elector of Bavaria. In 1742, the Austrian forces invested the city, in which were about twenty thousand French, commanded by the marshals Broglie and Belleisle, who suffered greatly by famine; but defended themselves with great bravery, and at length found means to make their escape. In the year 1744, the Prussians made themselves masters of this capital, after cannonading it seven days; but quitted it the same year.

The inhabitants of Prague are poor, and their shops but meanly furnished. The people of quality, who cannot easily bear the expence of Vienna, chuse to reside here, where they have assemblies, music, and all other diversions, except those of a court; provisions are extremely cheap, and they have plenty of the most excellent fowl. The women of quality now dress pretty much in the French mode; but those of the Jews have a distinct habit. The wives of the wealthy citizens wear fur caps and long cloaks, some of them satin lined with taffety, and petticoats of the same; but short, on account of the dirtiness of the streets.

S E C T. III.

The other principal Towns in Bohemia.

IT has been already intimated, that war and persecution have rendered the kingdom of Bohemia extremely desart, in comparison with what it was formerly, and therefore, though there are many towns and villages, there are few worthy of notice. The country is, however, divided into twelve circles, some of the principal places in which are the following.

Pfaundorf is the first town in Bohemia on the side next Vienna. At Deutschbrod the baggage of travellers is searched by the Bohemian custom-house officers. In the road from hence to the pretty town of Jenkow, you have a delightful prospect of a fine level country on each side, which is interspersed with above fifty little villages and small towns. Dzaslow, which is six miles farther on this road, is also a very pretty town, and has a large square market-place.

Melnic, a small royal jointure town, is seated on an eminence in the circle of Bunzlau, near the conflux of the Elbe and Moldau; it has a collegiate church, and is defended by a castle.

Konigingratz, a royal jointure town in the circle of the same name, is seated on the Elbe, and is a bishop's see, suffragan to the archbishop of Prague. The town is pretty large, and has a college of Jesuits, and a commandery belonging to the knights of the Teutonic order. It has been several times besieged and taken.

Pardubice, a royal town in the circle of Chrudim, is fortified, and its citadel is a fine structure. The town is well built, and the inhabitants make excellent blades for swords and knives. This town has the privilege of holding fairs.

Crumau, or Crumlow, a well built fortified town, seated on the river Moldau. It has a beautiful citadel and college of Jesuits. This town, with the seigniorie annexed to it, bears the title of a dutchy.

Elnbogen, a royal borough, seated together with its citadel, on a high and steep rock, by which it is also environed. The river Eger, which rushes by the left side of this rock, here forms a curve resembling an elbow; and hence the town receives its name. The way which leads to it is very narrow, but it has sometimes been besieged and taken.

Five miles to the east of Elnbogen is Carlsbadt, or Charles's Bath, which is famous for its medicinal waters,

ters, of which there are two forts, that differ both in heat and strength, and are distinguished by the names of the Sproudel and the Muhl bath, the first of which are boiling hot, and the latter little more than luke-warm. They are both bathed in and drank, and on several occasions at one and the same time. They were first discovered in the year 1370, and take their name from the emperor Charles IV. They are recommended for many diseases, particularly the gravel and barrenness in women. Several eminent physicians have wrote upon them, and on the manner in which they ought to be used. The method of drinking them is very disagreeable; for let the weather be ever so hot, the patient is obliged to be shut up in a room heated with a stove, and to drink two or three large pots of water hotter than those of the king or queen's bath in Somersetshire, and to walk about while the sweat trickles down in drops. For this reason, people seldom stir out till three or four hours after they have drank the waters; and the rest of the day it is absolutely necessary to walk about, to prevent sleeping, which after dinner is dangerous: yet the walks are narrow, and afford no prospect but of barren rocks, except only one square place planted with rows of lime-trees, opposite to which is a great house, which has fine rooms, in which those who drink the waters play, dance, or walk from five to eight o'clock, the hour of supper. These baths are frequented by abundance of foreigners, and particularly the nobility and gentry of Austria, as well as those of Bohemia; but whoever would be well accommodated, must bring his own bed, wine, and cook with him.

The town itself is divided into two parts by the river Tappel, which runs through it; but it is a dirty place, chiefly inhabited by artificers in iron, whose works are very neat, and extremely cheap.

Carlstein is a celebrated citadel that stands on a mountain about fifteen miles distant from Prague. It is strong both by art and nature, and was built by Charles IV. to be the depository of the regalia of the kingdom. In it is a well two hundred and forty-four feet deep. It was besieged by the Hussites in the year 1422, from the twenty-eighth of May to the eleventh of November, but without success.

Leutomeritz is a considerable town on the Elbe, thirty-five miles to the north-west of Prague, and is a bishop's see suffragan to the archbishopric of Prague. It was garrisoned with French forces by the late emperor Charles VII. but was taken by the troops of the queen of Hungary in 1742.

The last town we shall mention in Bohemia is that of Egra, or Eger, the principal place in a territory of the same name. It is a beautiful and well fortified town, situated on the river Eger: it has a college of Jesuits, and three cloisters. This town retains its antient rights and privileges, and particularly that of coining money, which, however, passes only within its own district. From the judicial sentences of the town-council an appeal lies only to the king. Egra has been frequently besieged and taken: in the year 1742 the French made themselves masters of it, and kept it till the next year, when, after a long blockade, they were obliged to surrender. In the town are a number of ingenious artists, and its mineral waters are very famous.

Upon the roads in this country the traveller seldom fails of meeting with good provisions in the inns, as ducks, capons, pheasants, partridges, and hares; but the lodging is far from being answerable to the other entertainment, it being generally only some clean straw spread on the floor, with a bolster or pillow for the head. In the houses of the peasants there is a place walled in behind the stove, to which they ascend by a few narrow stone steps, as into a cock-loft, and in this warm apartment sleep away the cold winter nights very comfortably.

S E C T. IV.

Of the Marquisate of MORAVIA.

Its Situation, Extent, the Face of the Country, its Climate, Produce, and Rivers: the Manufactures and Religion of

the Inhabitants; with the principal Places in this Marquisate.

THE marquisate of Moravia is bounded on the north by Glatz and Silesia, on the east by Silesia and Hungary, on the south by Austria, and on the west by Bohemia; and receives its name from the river Morava, or March. It is a hundred and twenty-eight miles in length from east to west; and where broadest, about ninety-two from north to south. Towards Hungary, Silesia, and Bohemia, it is partly surrounded by mountains; and partly by woods. Above half of this country is mountainous and woody, and in the level tracts are many morasses, bogs, and lakes, where the water is unwholesome.

The air on the mountains is rough and so cold, that in many places the inhabitants use a stove for the greatest part of the whole summer. However, more corn grows here than is consumed by the inhabitants; here is also plenty of flax and hemp, nor are fruit-trees and garden-plants wanted. It likewise produces good saffron, and some white and red wine, particularly in those tracts that border on Austria and Hungary. Their pasture is good and feeds great numbers of cattle, and the extensive forests afford great plenty of venison, wolves, bears, and a species of leopards of the size of dogs; there are also some beavers. These forests likewise afford the inhabitants an opportunity of procuring a great deal of honey and wax by the breeding of bees.

In this country are quarries of marble amethysts, a kind of bastard diamonds, and other minerals; as also allum and mines of iron. This country likewise produces sulphur, saltpetre, and vitriol: here are wholesome mineral waters, and some acid springs.

The Oder rises in the circle of Olmutz, in this country. The river March, or Mora, or in Latin Morava, rises in the county of Glatz, and running from north to south, at length forms the limits between Hungary and Austria; but this river is not navigable. These and other smaller streams, as well as the lakes, yield various kinds of fish.

The sciences at present begin to flourish here. The principal commodities of the country are the cloth manufactory, iron-works, and glass-houses; the making of paper, gunpowder, &c. but the commerce of the inhabitants is very inconsiderable.

Christianity was settled here so early as in the eighth century; but in the fifteenth this country bore a considerable part in the commotions of the Hussites in Bohemia, and many embraced their opinions and called themselves Moravian Brethren; but in the sixteenth century most of them were obliged to fly. There are here at present not only some of them, but a few Lutherans and Calvinists, who make an external profession of conformity with the Romish church, though they privately hold separate assemblies, and, as opportunity offers, frequently fly to Protestant countries. Of late a new spirit of reformation appeared among the former, and a great number of converts, headed by a late count of Zinzendorf, have not only settled in England and several parts of Europe, but have removed for the sake of liberty to the British American plantations.

The whole marquisate is subject to the ecclesiastical jurisdiction of the bishop of Olmutz, who styles himself duke and prince of the holy Roman empire, and count of the royal Bohemian chapel, having formerly had a voice at the diets of the empire. He is at present immediately under the pope, and the episcopal consistory, which is the only ecclesiastical judicatory in all Moravia, enjoys the supreme jurisdiction over ecclesiastical persons.

Moravia contributes towards the maintenance of the military state of the Austrian hereditary countries, the annual sum of one million eight hundred and fifty-six thousand four hundred and ninety florins.

The whole marquisate is divided into six circles, each of which has its circle-captain, whose authority extends to the quartering, marching, and maintenance of the soldiers.

The principal towns in Moravia are,

S f

Olmutz,

Olmütz, the capital of the marquisate and of the circle of the same name, and the residence of the bishop, whose castle is a place of considerable strength, it being wholly surrounded by the river March. This town is populous and well built; it contains twenty-six churches, among which the cathedral church of St. Wenzel is worthy of notice, with five chapels, seven monasteries, and two nunneries, one college of Jesuits, an university, a riding-academy, several hospitals, and an orphan-house. The city has been frequently besieged, and in 1741 was blocked up for some months by the Prussians.

Kremsier, a well built walled town, seated on the river March, and belonging to the bishop of Olmütz. It has a collegiate church dedicated to St. Moritz, a college, several cloisters, and a mint. The large and beautiful palace in which the bishop usually resided was burnt down in the year 1752, together with the archives, the suburbs, and fifty-five burghers houses.

Brunn, or Brinn, is a royal borough in the circle of the same name. The town is not very large, but is well built, populous, and well fortified. It has the greatest

trade of any place in Moravia, and is the seat of the royal courts of justice and the diets. The bishop has a palace here, and within the town is also a college of Jesuits; six cloisters, among which is that of the Augustin hermits near St. Thomas's church, which is particularly famous for an image of the Virgin Mary, which they pretend was made by St. Luke. This place has sometimes been besieged and blocked up, but never yet taken.

Znain, or Znogma, a royal borough, situated in a pleasant spot near the river Teya; it is well built, and has a citadel, four cloisters, and a college of Jesuits. There are many vineyards in its neighbourhood that afford a palatable wine. It has been several times taken and retaken during the civil wars of Germany.

Iglau is a pretty large well built and populous town in the circle of the same name, seated on the river Iglau. It contains a college of Jesuits, with a Dominican and Franciscan monastery, and carries on a trade in beer and coarse woollen cloth. It has frequently been besieged and taken, and in the sixteenth century was the first of all the royal boroughs that embraced the opinions of Luther.

CHAP. XI.

Of the Dutchy of SILESIA and the County of GLATZ.

SECT. I.

Its Situation, Extent, Mountains, Climate, Fossils and Minerals, Vegetables, Animals, and Rivers.

SILESIA is bounded on the east by Poland, on which side the country is wholly level and open; to the southward it is separated from Hungary by a chain of mountains and a wild thicket, in some parts a German mile broad, and in others more or less: this thicket properly belongs neither to Silesia nor Hungary, though both countries have frequently attempted to make it their own; but it still remains a natural and impenetrable barrier both to Silesia and Hungary. Towards the west Silesia joins Moravia, Bohemia, Lusatia, and the county of Glatz. From the two first it is separated by a chain of mountains, but towards Lusatia it is level and open. To the northward it borders on Brandenburg, on which side it is likewise level and open.

It extends in length from the north-west to the south-east about two hundred and twenty-eight miles, and about a hundred where broadest; but it is much contracted at both ends.

Silesia is encompassed on the west and south by a chain of mountains, which, with respect to their height and extent, are some of the most remarkable in Europe, and is called by different names in the different countries by which it extends. In these mountains, and all over that part of Upper Silesia that lies towards Moravia and Hungary, the winter sets in earlier, is much more severe, and of longer continuance than in the plains. At the time when the country at the foot of these mountains is covered with ice and snow, the trees at Breslau are in full verdure.

The inhabitants of the mountains are not only confined to their houses by the snow, but like the Laplanders and people of Carniola, they use a kind of skates, by the help of which they pass over the snow with amazing swiftness.

In the mountains are found agate, jasper, and even amethysts of an uncommon hardness and beauty, and also crystals. They afford quarries of stone, and in some parts is pit-coal, while others afford turf for fuel. There are some mines of silver; vitriol is found in several places, and in others are mines of copper, lead, and iron.

The sandy parts of the country in the principality of Glogau, and beyond the Oder towards Poland, with the mountains tract, which is of considerable extent, pro-

duce little corn; but this deficiency is compensated by the fertility of the other and larger part of Silesia, which affords plenty of wheat, rye, barley, and oats, and also Turkey wheat, spelt, buck-wheat, millet, linseed, peas and beans. Several parts of the country produce excellent culinary vegetables, and afford plenty of fine fruit; even such spots as are unfit for tillage, either make good pasture grounds, or are covered with wood; so that there is scarce any part of Silesia that can be said to be entirely useless and barren. Here is abundance of flax, and some hemp; but not so much of the latter as is spun, considerable quantities being imported from Hungary and Poland. The country produces plenty of hops, and madder is cultivated with such success, as to form one of their most considerable exports: there is also great plenty of a yellow dye, and likewise plantations of tobacco; but the saffron of this country is not very good.

In the mountains, and in Upper Silesia, pitch, tar, and resin are made from the pine, fir, and beech, and the larch tree yields turpentine. From these resinous trees, the inhabitants among the mountains make a kind of lamp-black.

Their breeding of horned cattle extends no farther than is just necessary for the plough, and a sufficiency of milk, butter, and cheese; and their oxen are still fewer in number, on which account the markets are principally supplied from Hungary and Poland. The most famous of these ox markets are those of Brieg, Breslau, and Schweidnitz, where formerly at the annual fair, it was not uncommon to see ten, twelve, or fifteen thousand head of Hungarian and Polish cattle, and sometimes more. There are here bred many fine stout horses; but not enough to supply the country, great numbers being bought at Francfort fair, and brought likewise from Lithuania. The inhabitants of the hilly country keep goats, and estimate the profit of two good ones to be equal to that of a cow; a great deal of cheese being made of their milk. The breeding of sheep is also very profitable, on account of the excellency of their wool. These sheep are sheared twice a year; but the summer wool is reckoned preferable to that of winter, though somewhat lighter. As to venison and game, some parts enjoy a tolerable plenty, while in others they are scarce.

The wild beasts of this country that are only valued for their skins are lynxes, which frequent none but the mountainous parts, foxes, weazels, otters, and beavers, but in no great number.

The



A New MAP
of the
DUTCHY
of
SILE SIA,
Drawn from the
best Authorities.

British Miles 69 to a Degree
German Miles 15 to a Degree

Longit. E. from London

G. Rollos Sculp.

The breeding of bees in this country is not so considerable as to answer the consumption of honey and wax, on which account great quantities of both are imported from Poland; but their culture of silk is in a fair way of being carried to its utmost extent.

With respect to fish, in the Oder are caught sturgeon and salmon, the former of which are sometimes of prodigious size, skate, lampreys, &c. The other rivers, and especially the lakes and ponds, abound with various kinds of fish, as pike, carp, trout, mullets, &c.

As to the rivers of Silesia, the Oder has its source in Moravia; but is not of any considerable size till it reaches Silesia, which it traverses nearly from end to end, and at Ratibor it becomes navigable. Its banks are generally low and sandy; so that it frequently overflows them to the great detriment of the adjacent country. Into it run all the lesser streams, as the Oster, the Else, the Neiss, the Ohlau, the Stober, &c. The Vistula and Elbe have their source in this duchy, the former issuing from three springs situated among the lofty mountains in the principality of Teschen, on the frontiers of Poland. The source of the Elbe, though generally placed in Bohemia, lies in the Giant's mountain, in the principality of Jauer.

S E C T. II.

The Number, Language, and Religion of the People. Their Learning, Manufactures, and Commerce.

THE number of people in Silesia exceeds a million and a half; these are chiefly composed of Germans, Poles, and Moravians. With respect to the language, German is spoken by most of the inhabitants, though in Upper Silesia, and beyond the Oder, the Slavonic is very common, and in some places bears a nearer affinity to the Polish, and in others to the Moravian.

The inhabitants are of different religious sects. His majesty king Frederic II. at the peace of Berlin in 1742, promised that the popish religion should be tolerated, though without detriment to the freedom of conscience of the protestant inhabitants, or to his own prerogative as sovereign. This promise has accordingly taken place, and all parties enjoy a perfect liberty of conscience. The greatest number of papists are in the diocese of Breslau. This diocese is divided into four archdeaconries, namely, those of Breslau, Glogau, Oppelen, and Lignitz, which, exclusive of the cathedral of Breslau, comprehend under them seven collegiate churches, with seventy-seven archpresbyteries, sixteen priories, five hundred seventy-six parishes, and eighty-six convents; that is, sixty-eight of monks, and eighteen of nuns; but several of these are exempt from the bishop's jurisdiction. All ecclesiastical benefices here, not excepting the see of Breslau, are in the king of Prussia's gift.

The reformation in Silesia began to be introduced by the principality of Lignitz, in 1522, under the auspices of Frederic II. duke of that principality, and soon extended from thence into the principality of Brieg. The city of Breslau, which had before sequestered some lands belonging to monasteries towards charitable uses, likewise embraced Lutheranism; and its example was followed by the city of Schweidnitz, and several other places, till by degrees the reformation became propagated all over Silesia.

In 1609, the emperor Rodolphus II. granted to the princes, states, and vassals who had embraced Lutheranism, both in Upper and Lower Silesia, the free exercise of their religion; confirmed them in the possession of their churches, schools, and consistories, and permitted them to build others: but, on that emperor's decease, violent measures were used to bring back the Lutherans to popery. The treaty of Prague in 1635, seemed to promise them quiet and safety; but these blessings were of short duration; however, it was stipulated by the peace of Westphalia in 1648, that the princes of Silesia, professing the Augsburg confession, should continue possessed of their former privileges, and the free exercise of their religion, in the same manner as before

the war. His imperial majesty by that peace permitted the counts, barons, gentlemen, and vassals of Upper Silesia professing the Augsburg confession, to perform divine worship in the neighbouring places, and the protestants of Schweidnitz, Jauer, and Glogau, were allowed to build three churches. The Lutherans, however, not only lost the above-mentioned duchies, and the city of Breslau, with their churches, excepting only the three they had been allowed to build; but their oppressions were soon renewed, and too many were prevailed on by persecution to embrace popery. This fell heaviest on the Lutherans in Upper Silesia, who had many German miles to go to the nearest Lutheran church, and in some places above eighty English miles. However, by the protection of Charles XII. the religious state of the Lutherans in Silesia was much amended; for that monarch, in a convention concluded between him and the emperor Joseph, in 1707, obtained for them, besides other religious liberties, licence to build six new churches, and the restitution of one hundred and eighteen more, which had been taken from them; by which means they became possessed of three hundred twenty-five churches, to which one was afterwards added under the emperor Charles VI. These benefits were conferred by an act of state at Breslau in 1709; but they cost the Lutherans four millions eighty-seven thousand florins, partly as a loan to the emperor, and partly as a free gift. At length, under the government of the king of Prussia, they were granted a perfect liberty of conscience, with permission to build new churches under the title of houses of prayer, which have increased to the number of two hundred and thirty. But when the benefices are in the hands of the popish clergy, the Lutherans pay surplice fees to the incumbents, though the ministerial functions are performed by ministers of their own sect. On the other hand, in Lignitz, the papists pay the parish dues to the Lutheran ministers, as the established incumbents.

The Calvinists had also formerly the free exercise of their religion, and were possessed of churches in different parts of the country; but the papists gradually ejected them. After the convention in 1707, in which no express mention was made of them, they petitioned for the restitution of their churches; but though they did not want mediators, this proved ineffectual. Frederic II. has, however, granted them the privilege of public worship at Breslau, and many other places.

The Hussites have also some congregations in Silesia, and some of these being Lutherans, and others Calvinists, each sect has its distinct pastor. The Hernhuthers, or Moravian brethren, obtained a grant in 1742, from king Frederic II. to settle in Silesia, with entire freedom of conscience, and public worship. Their ministers in spiritual and ecclesiastical affairs acknowledge no consistory, as being under the king's immediate protection, and in religious matters subject only to their bishop. At Breslau is likewise a Greek church, and the Jews are permitted their synagogues.

Silesia has ever been famous for producing men of learning, of whom some have eminently distinguished themselves. At present all kinds of learning are greatly encouraged, especially among the Lutherans.

The principal manufactures in Silesia are of flax, thread, twine, linen and damask. The printing of linen in water and oil colours, is in some places carried to great perfection; besides which, canvas and buckrams of several kinds are made of thread and worsted. The plain striped and flowered veils, with a mixture of red Turkish thread, are made in this country of such fineness, as to sell for four florins and upwards a German ell. Lace is also made here of tolerable fineness, and more paper is made in Silesia than can be used by the inhabitants. Strong woollen cloths are made in many places. Here are likewise manufactures of linsley woollen serge, druggets, plain and figured fustians, plush, callimancoes, and all other stuffs; as also cottons, gingham, stockings and hats. The dressing of leather is likewise well understood. There are many glass-houses, and in no country is glass more exquisitely polished and cut. In Silesia are also a great number of powder-mills, iron-mills, and manufactures of that metal.

The principal exports of this dutchy are thread, yarn, linen, veils, wool, woollen cloths and stuffs, paper, madder, and mill-stones. The Silesian merchants likewise deal largely in wax, honey, hides, leather, and furs, which are for the most part brought from Poland, Hungary, and Russia.

On the other hand, they import horses, oxen, Polish wheat, and rock-salt, with wines, chiefly from Hungary, Austria, the countries about the Rhine, and France; spices, drugs, several manufactures, and other commodities are also imported. Since Silesia has fallen under the dominion of Prussia, several excellent regulations have been made, by which commerce has been considerably improved.

SECT. III.

A concise View of the Manner in which the greatest Part of Silesia became subject to the King of Prussia. Its Arms and Government.

WITH respect to the history of Silesia, it seems only necessary to observe here, that the death of the emperor Charles VI. in 1740, produced great changes in that dutchy; Frederic II. king of Prussia, laying claim to the following districts: first, to the principality of Jagerndorf, which in 1524 was purchased with the approbation of Lewis king of Bohemia and Hungary by George margrave of Brandenburg, from the house of Schellenberg, and bequeathed by him to his son George Frederic, from whom, by agreement, it devolved to Joachim Frederic, elector of Brandenburg, who left it to his son John George, whom the emperor Ferdinand II. put under the ban of the empire, in 1623, by which he lost the principality of Jagerndorf, which the emperor conferred on the prince of Lichtenstein. Indeed the elector Frederic William, in 1686, renounced his claim to it, in consideration of his enjoying the circle of Schwibus; but this, in 1695, his son Frederic restored to the house of Austria, in lieu of the sum of two hundred and fifty thousand florins: but king Frederic II. maintained by several arguments, that these cessions were invalid. Secondly, to the principalities of Lignitz, Brieg, and Wolau, by virtue of a compact of inheritance entered into, in 1537, between Frederic, duke of Lignitz and Brieg, and Joachim II. elector of Brandenburg, by which the former was empowered to seize it by virtue of the privileges granted the kings of Bohemia in several distant periods, notwithstanding the emperor Ferdinand I. in 1546, had declared such compact of inheritance void.

These principalities had therefore been unjustly withheld from the electoral house of Brandenburg, ever since the failure of the dukes of Lignitz. The above claims were so effectually supported by the march of an army into Silesia, that Maria Theresa, queen of Hungary and Bohemia, for ever ceded to the king of Prussia and his heirs and successors, the countries of Upper and Lower Silesia, together with the district of Katscher, formerly belonging to Moravia, as also the county of Glatz, reserving however to herself some parts of Upper Silesia. On the other hand, the king of Prussia for himself and successors renounced all demands on the queen of Hungary, and took on himself the discharge of the Silesian debt due to the subjects of Great Britain, Holland, and the states of Brabant. The same year the limits between Prussian and Austrian Silesia were settled and distinguished by fixing up a hundred and thirty-eight pillars, with plates of lead affixed to them.

This peace was, however, interrupted by a new war, which broke out in 1744; but was terminated by the treaty of Dresden on the twenty-fifth of December, 1745, wherein those of Breslau and Berlin, with the convention of 1742, were renewed and ratified. The year 1756 produced the third Silesian war, in which the king of Prussia, assisted by Great Britain, opposed the whole power of the house of Austria, assisted by France and Russia; and, after giving amazing proofs of his courage and conduct in defeating the numerous armies

of his powerful enemies, brought them to conclude a peace in 1763.

The king of Prussia styles himself sovereign and supreme duke of Silesia; and by the treaty of Berlin the queen of Hungary and Bohemia has also retained to herself and heirs the title of sovereign dutchess of Silesia.

The arms of this dutchy are or, an eagle crowned, sable, with a crescent argent on its breast, the ends of which are sometimes in the form of an acorn, and sometimes resemble little crosses.

Silesia was never immediately connected with the government of the empire; for it never was an imperial fief, nor obtained a seat or vote in the diet; and as it has never been subject to the supreme tribunals of the empire, the imperial laws are there of no force. While Silesia was annexed to the crown of Bohemia, the commissioners of the sovereign used to lay before the diets of the princes and states demands of pecuniary supplies, which were taken into consideration, and the resolution of the diet made known to the commissioners, and to all the principalities and towns, by their respective deputies: upon which meetings were held in each principality to deliberate on the means of raising the quota each separate principality was to pay towards the sum agreed to at the general diet; and this, one year with another, amounted to at least two millions twenty thousand florins. The collectors of the princes and states remitted the proportions paid by each principality to the general subsidy-office at Breslau, which was dependent on those princes, and paid the money so received to the sovereign's treasury or war-office, or to the treasurer of the household.

This method of taxation, together with the subsidy-office, and the diets, were, however, abrogated by king Frederic II. and two war and domain treasuries are erected at Breslau and Glogau, for the management of the several branches of the public revenue. The excise is on the same footing with that in the more ancient dominions of Prussia, and is limited to the walled towns; but the contributions of the open towns, villages, and seats, are fixed, and continue at the same height both in peace and war. Every principality, and every circle into which it is divided, receives notice of its annual and monthly contingents payable to the contribution. The two war and domain-offices, each of which has its president, directors, counsellors, and other officers, superintend the contributions; cause them to be duly received and accounted for by the office of the receiver-general, and in the particular receivers offices of the principalities; take care that such regularity be observed, as that the contributory and subsidial assessments may be laid and revised in the same precise manner; and that the several sums notified for collection, and duly paid every month into the offices of the provincial receivers, be from thence remitted to the receiver-general's offices at Breslau and Glogau.

Lower Silesia annually pays one million one hundred eighty-one thousand and forty-four rixdollars, according to fixed and invariable regulations; but we have no exact account of the amount of the contributions in Upper Silesia. It is, however, generally supposed, that all Prussian Silesia, in conjunction with the county of Glatz, the produce of the domains, regalia, excise, contributions, salt-works, the duty on stamped paper, which is much easier now than formerly, and the rights of the sovereignty all included, bring in annually above four millions of rixdollars. As to that part of Silesia which belongs to the house of Austria, it was in 1743 obliged to raise a hundred and eighty-six thousand rixdollars.

With respect to the laws and courts of justice, it is proper to observe, that the king of Prussia, in his part of Silesia, has erected three supreme courts, which are those of Breslau, Glogau, and Brieg, each of which has a particular district. They take cognizance of all civil and criminal causes, hear appeals from the inferior courts, and from the judgments of the magistrates of particular towns.

The principal rules of proceeding in these courts, are contained in the *Codex Fredericianus*, the royal ordinances and rescripts, and Brachvogel's Collection of the imperial pragmatic sanctions; besides which there are certain particular

particular constitutions in every principality and lordship, and even in every town.

The princes, states, and the city of Breslau, have their own regencies and courts, both in civil and penal causes, from which an appeal lies to the above supreme courts. The deputies of the princes and states assemble twice a year at Breslau, and, together with the supreme court of that city, decide all contests that have arisen among the princes and states concerning a principality, state, or any tract of land belonging to them; but a party who thinks himself aggrieved may apply to the king in person. The princes when sued on account of the rights and properties of others, or in disputes between themselves and their vassals, must stand trial before the supreme court. As to the inferior lordships, and other country corporations, with the upper and lower courts, they are held without any molestation, except that in capital or penal cases, they require the royal confirmation.

The Lutheran churches and schools are under the inspection of the upper-consistories at Breslau, Glogau, and Brieg, with right of appeal to the tribunal at Berlin. The members of these consistories are the presidents and counsellors of the above supreme court, with an ecclesiastic to each; but the principality of Oels and the city of Breslau have their own distinct consistories: but church affairs among the papists are cognizable by the bishop's court at Breslau; from whence also appeals lie to the tribunal of Berlin.

Silesia is divided into Upper and Lower; and, according to Mr. Busching, contains, exclusive of the county of Glatz, a hundred and sixty-nine cities, and four hundred and seventy-six villages. We shall begin with Lower Silesia, the greatest part of which is subject to the king of Prussia, and contains thirteen principalities.

S E C T. IV.

Of the principality of Breslau, with a particular Description of its Capital.

THE principality of Breslau, or Breslaw, exclusive of the circle of Namslau, which, though belonging to it, lies separate, is bounded on the north by the principalities of Oels and Wolau, on the westward by those of Lignitz and Schweidnitz, on the southward by the principalities of Schweidnitz and Brieg, and on the eastward by Brieg and Oels.

This principality is every where flat and level, and the parts near the Oder and other rivers either sandy or swampy. It is, however, an excellent corn country, and not destitute of rich pastures, the Namslau circle alone excepted; but this abounds in timber and wood for fuel, which are so scarce in the other circles, that the country people use straw, with the stalks of thistles and burdock, as also those of sun-flowers and potatoes, and in many places willows are planted merely for burning.

In most parts they have good cattle and sheep, and particularly cows of a very extraordinary size. The neighbourhood of Breslau produces great quantities of madder, and the rivers are well supplied with fish. The roads, however, are very bad, and, where the soil is black, are scarce passable in wet weather, and for want of timber and quarries of stone cannot be repaired without great difficulty and expence. The city of Breslau, in order to facilitate its intercourse with other places, has caused ditches to be dug along the sides of the roads, and the roads themselves to be paved with stones; a work of several years labour. Some of these ditches are not less than a mile in length, and the keeping them in repair is an annual charge of some thousands of dollars.

The principality of Breslau is divided into four circles; of these the circle of Breslau contains nine cities and two market-towns; and if the villages are not very large the deficiency is made up by the great number of them, they being every where placed within cannon-shot of each other.

The city of Breslau, or Breslaw, the capital of this circle, and of the whole dutchy of Silesia, is situated on the Oder, which on the north side runs close by the walls, and in that part receives the Ohlau, after its

winding course through Old Breslau. The present old city was formerly encompassed by this last river, as with a moat, all without the Ohlau to the walls of the city being additions made by the emperor Charles IV. The several parts comprehended under the name of Breslau are collectively of great extent; for, including the suburbs, the whole circumference is not less than nine English miles. The fortifications of the city are of no great importance. It has several large and regular squares; the main streets are broad, and, besides many noble edifices, it contains a number of very elegant houses and other private buildings. The part called the Dominsel, though lying without the circuit of the town, is defended by low walls strengthened with bastions, and in it stands the cathedral of St. John, which in 1759, together with the deanery, was destroyed by fire. In the same part is also the bishop's library, which forms a particular building; the abbey of the Holy Cross; three or four small churches; the bishop's palace, which is a very spacious structure; the dwellings of the prebends, some of which have very beautiful gardens; and the electoral hospital for poor children of both sexes.

In the suburb called the Sandinsel, which lies before the Sand gate, is St. Mary's church, a very beautiful building; a splendid convent, with a large library, belonging to the regular Augustin canons; St. James's church, which belongs to an Augustin nunnery; and St. Ann's, belonging to the canons of St. Mary. Near the Sand gate is the monastery of St. Vincent, and adjoining to it the magnificent nunnery of St. Clare. Near these fine structures is the beautiful abbey of St. Matthias, with a parish church, and a valuable collection of books belonging to the prebends of the Red Star; and in the same street is St. Agnes's church and an Ursuline nunnery. The Jesuits college, with its splendid church, stands on the site of the castle, which was once the residence of the dukes of Breslau; but the emperor Leopold gave it to the Jesuits.

The other popish churches and convents in the city are, the Franciscan, dedicated to St. Anthony, to which is also annexed a regular built church; St. Hedwiga's, which belongs to a Capuchin convent that stands behind it; St. Dorothy's, which is in the possession of the Minorites; the parochial church of the Holy Corps, belonging to the Johannites commandery, which faces it; the parochial church of St. Adelbert; the beautiful chapel of St. Cesslaus; St. Joseph's, which belongs to another Dominican convent; with the nunnery of St. Catharine. To these are to be added, the mansion-house of the sisters of St. Elizabeth; St. Nickel's church before St. Nickel's gate; St. Maurice's without the Ohlau gate; the small hospital church of St. Lazarus; with the church and convent of the Good Men.

The churches belonging to the Lutherans are St. Elizabeth's, which is the principal, and St. Mary Magdalen's, both in the Old Town, and containing valuable libraries; St. Bernardine's in the New Town has also a good collection of books; St. Barbara's church is appointed to the use of the garrison. There are also three hospital churches, and that of St. Christopher's. The Lutheran service is likewise performed in a large hall belonging to the house of correction. Without the town the Lutherans are possessed of the church of St. Salvator, which serves for the soldiery who are quartered without the city, and another church dedicated to the eleven thousand virgins, without the Oder gate.

The Calvinists assemble in a building on the other side the Oder, which was once the general tax-office. The Greek Christians, most of whom are Armenians, have a church here, and the Jews their synagogues.

The popish university, which is under the care of the Jesuits, is a noble structure. The Lutherans at St. Elizabeth's, and St. Mary Magdalen's, have two flourishing academies, each under the direction of eleven professors, with a grammar-school at St. Bernardine's in the New Town. The exchange is a very elegant structure.

The city, besides a governor, and several courts of justice, has a court of exchequer, a war and domain-office, with those for salt, customs, excise, and trade; a college of physicians, a mint, &c. Frederic II. granted Breslau the third place in rank among his capital cities,

that is, to be next to Berlin and Königsberg. The magistracy and consistory are both composed of Lutherans. This city is at present the center of all the trade in Silesia, and its inhabitants carry on several manufactures. It became subject to the Prussian government in 1741, and in 1757 a small Prussian army, commanded by Augustus William duke of Brunswick Bevern, fortified themselves in this neighbourhood; and, being attacked on the twenty-second of November by a considerable body of the Austrian forces, made a most vigorous defence till the evening; but in the night quitted their camp, and crossing the Oder, the city surrendered to the Austrians. However, on the twentieth of December it was retaken by the king of Prussia, and the Austrian garrison, which amounted to near one thousand eight hundred men, made prisoners of war. In the last siege several of its churches were damaged, and St. Mary Magdalen's library demolished by the falling of a bomb. The greatest part likewise of the suburbs suffered extremely, and that part without the Sand gate was entirely burnt down.

S E C T. V.

Of the Principalities of Brieg, Schweidnitz, and Jauer; with the principal Places contained in each.

WE now come to the principality of Brieg, which is on all sides surrounded by those of Oels, Breslau, Schweidnitz, Münsterberg, Neiß, and Oppeln, except a detached piece which borders on Poland. This is one of the largest principalities in all Silesia, and also one of the most fertile in grain.

This principality is divided into six circles, which contain nine cities and two market towns. The principal place in this principality is,

Brieg, in Latin Brega, the capital of a circle of the same name, and of the whole principality, stands on the river Oder, and is not only well fortified, but is one of the largest, handsomest, and most considerable cities in all Silesia. It has four suburbs, and a very long, lofty, and strong wooden bridge. The castle, which was anciently the residence of the dukes of Brieg, was burnt down during the siege of the city in 1741. On the south side of Brieg stands the abbey of St. Hedwiga, which is in the possession of the papists; besides which here is also a Jesuits college and a Franciscan convent. To the Lutherans belong the parochial church of St. Nicholas, and they have also an academy founded by duke George II. with the church of the Holy Trinity, in which the Polish congregation assemble. In 1643 this city held out a siege against the Swedes, but in 1741 the Prussians made themselves masters of it in four days.

The principality of Schweidnitz borders to the east on the principalities of Brieg and Breslau, to the northward on those of Lignitz and Jauer, to the westward also on Jauer, and to the southward on Bohemia and the county of Münsterberg. It is one of the largest and most populous principalities in all Silesia, and, in conjunction with the principality of Jauer, is supposed to form one-eighth of the duchy.

In this principality are several very high mountains: it, however, affords a sufficiency of grain, timber, and fruit; and abounds in game of all kinds; as also in cattle and pit-coal. Besides these advantages, it has excellent flax and wool; and the inhabitants are remarkable for their industrious improvement of these advantages, by carrying on a variety of manufactures. This is chiefly done in the hilly parts of the principality, where its greatest trade is carried on. It has no large rivers, the principal of them being the Werstitz, Polsnitz, and Bober.

This principality is under the war and domain treasuries at Breslau, and is divided into five circles, the principal towns in which are,

Schweidnitz, the capital of the circle of the same name, and of the whole principality, is a strong fortress situated on the little river Weistritz, in one of the most delightful spots in all Silesia. Its strength formerly consisted in a triple wall; but in 1748, Frederic II. caused it to be fortified with regular works of very great

strength. The parish church is in the hands of the Jesuits, who got footing in this town in 1629, and are likewise possessed of a college and seminary adjoining to it. There are here a Dominican, Minorite and Capuchin monastery, with an Ursuline nunnery, all of which have their respective churches. St. Michael's church without the lower gate is a commendam of the Red Star prebends of St. Matthias at Breslau. Without the town is a Lutheran church, the head minister of which is inspector of the churches within the circles of Schweidnitz, Reichenbach, and Strigan, and the principality of Münsterberg. The greatest part of this city was burnt down in the year 1716; but has been since rebuilt with much more beauty than before, and all entirely of stone; in particular the new town-house is a most elegant structure. However, in 1757, it was taken by the Austrians, after a siege of sixteen days, during which it was in a great measure destroyed by the bombs, bullets, and fires occasioned by them; and in 1758, the Prussians recovered it, after a siege of the same continuance.

Reichenbach, the capital of a circle of the same name, is situated on the little river Peil. In this town is a commandery of the order of St. John, to which belongs the patronage of its parochial church, which is popish; and there is here also a Lutheran oratory. Without the Frankenstein gate is a priory dedicated to St. Barbara, and without the Schweidnitz gate, an hospital that has a small church. In 1632, this city was pillaged by the Saxons; in 1638 by the imperialists, and in 1634, it suffered still greater calamities from the Croats. In 1642, it was sacked by the Swedes, and in 1643, its imperial garrison demolished upwards of one hundred and forty houses for fuel. In this town are some considerable manufactures of fustian, linen, and canvas.

The principality of Jauer is bounded on the east by the principalities of Lignitz and Schweidnitz; to the southward, by Bohemia; to the westward by Bohemia and Upper Lusatia; and to the northward by the principalities of Glogau and Sagan.

The whole principality is in general mountainous, and is separated from Bohemia to the south and west, by a chain of mountains. The Schnee, or Riesenkoppe, is the highest of all the Riesen or Giant's chain, as well as of all Silesia. It raises its head far above any of the neighbouring mountains, and for the greatest part of the year is covered with snow. Those who have climbed it, compute its ascent from the foot to the highest summit, at three German miles, and the reverend Mr. Schilling, late rector of Hirschberg, is said to have discovered, by means of mathematical instruments, that its perpendicular height is no less than twenty-two thousand five hundred Rheinland feet; but this account is certainly a mistake; for was it of such a height, it would be perpetually covered with snow, and the cold would be much more intense than it really is. Its loftiest part is a steep stony rock of considerable circumference, upon which is built a chapel, wherein mass is celebrated five times a year.

This principality does not produce corn sufficient for the great number of its inhabitants; but its mountains contain various ores, with numerous mines of copper and iron; they are likewise covered with wood. This principality yields also pit coal and mill-stone.

The principal river which traverses the whole length of the principality from south to north, is the Bober. There are also several little rivers, particularly the Jauersche water, which passes by the town of Jauer, with a gentle current; but is sometimes so swelled by the snows and rain, as to do considerable damage.

This principality has twelve towns, besides some villages in Silesia, they being four miles in length, and contain many artificers, particularly weavers. The whole principality is divided into four circles. The principal towns, in which are the following.

Jauer, the capital of the circle of the same name, as well as of the principality, lies on the Jauersche water. The houses in the market-place have a range of piazzas along the front, to shelter passengers from the rain; but these are so ill contrived, as to disguise the buildings, and render the fore part of the ground-floor

of little use. The parish church is popish, besides which here is another small church belonging to the same religion, with a Franciscan convent, that has likewise a church, and without the Goldberg gate, the Calvinists have a church and a grammar school. In 1640, this town was taken by the Imperialists sword in hand, and plundered.

Hirschberg, the capital of the circle of the same name, is situated on the Bober, which here receives a small river called the Zaken. This is one of the handsomest, most populous, and opulent towns in all Silesia; it having large and well built suburbs, in which are beautiful gardens and bleaching grounds, where every year many thousand pieces of linen, veils, and other works of the loom are whitened. The papists have here a parochial church, to which belongs an arch-priest, who is inspector over six arch-presbyteries, and a residence of Jesuits. Without the town the Lutherans have a large and handsome church, and a school, for the grant of both which they paid thirty thousand ducats as a gift to the emperor, and also advanced him a loan of one hundred thousand florins. This is next to Breslau, the principal place of trade in all Silesia, it having a very extensive commerce for its linens and veils.

The last place we shall mention in this principality is that of Schmiedeberg, or Smith's-hill, an open free mine town of considerable trade, seated among hills, that owes its origin to the vast quantity of iron ore found in its neighbourhood. Among the inhabitants are many lock and gun-smiths, with other artificers in iron. Here is also a damask manufacture, which makes linen damask, with half and whole silk damasks. The town likewise deals largely in linen. The parochial church is in the possession of the Romans, and there is also one belonging to the Lutherans. Formerly few of the inhabitants were free from wens, which was imputed to the vitriolic and ferruginous quality of the water in the mine trenches; as since the disuse of that water for drinking and dressing of victuals, they are become much less frequent.

S E C T. VI.

Of the Principalities of Lignitz, Wolau, Glogau, Neiss, Sagan, Trachenberg, and Carolath.

THE principality of Lignitz is bounded by that of Jauer to the westward, by the two principalities of Jauer and Schweidnitz to the south; by those of Breslau and Wolau to the east, and by the principalities of Wolau and Glogau to the westward.

The only considerable mountains in this principality are the Spitzberge and Gratzberge. The Oder waters it for about nine miles, running along the borders of the principality of Wolau, where it is joined by the Cratzbach, the largest river in all the country; but is subject to inundations. This principality is very fertile, and contains some large woods. There is here a good breed of strong horses, and the country about the villages near the city of Lignitz produces madder.

This principality is divided into four circles, and contains five towns, the principal of which are,

Lignitz, the capital of a circle of the same name, and of the whole principality, is seated on the Catzbach, in the fifty-first degree twenty-one minutes north latitude, and the sixteenth degree twenty minutes east longitude. It is walled round, and near the gate of Glogau is the old palace of the princes, which, though within the town, is encompassed with a distinct moat and high wall. Here the states of the provinces assemble in a very stately stone edifice. The Lutherans have two churches here, one called St. Peter's and St. Paul's, or the Upper church, is situated in the Lower Town near Breslau gate. The papists are still in possession of the collegiate church of St. John, which in 1698, was taken from the Lutherans, and being given to the Jesuits, was entirely rebuilt: they have also a magnificent college. Besides these, there is a Benedictine nunnery of the Holy Cross, with its church; the parochial church of St. Nepomuck, and a Franciscan church and con-

vent. Here is also an hospital, and a spacious academy founded by the emperor Joseph, for the instruction of young gentlemen of both religions, in military exercises: Lignitz is one of the most ancient towns in all Silesia, and carries on a good trade in cloths and madder. It has very frequently been destroyed by fire, and in 1741, the Prussians took it without opposition.

Goldberg, the principal town in a circle of the same name, is situated in a delightful country near the river Catzbach, and is, next to Lignitz, the best town in the principality. It is supposed to have been founded in the twelfth century, and is seated on a hill, which within the town is not every where level. The parish church here belongs to the Lutherans. In the sixteenth century it had a celebrated academy kept in a building which had been formerly a Franciscan convent, and in 1704, it was restored to that order; so that the Lutherans have only a common grammar school. There is here also a commandery of the order of St. John. The Catzbach is a great convenience to the town, yet its overflowing its banks has frequently done it considerable damage. This town has also sometimes suffered greatly by fire.

Luben, the capital of a circle of the same name, is situated in a plain, which though somewhat stony, is not unfruitful. The town is small; but its suburbs are large. Of the ancient palace of the princes, little more is now to be seen than the walls. Near this palace is a small popish chapel. The parish church and school are in the possession of the Lutherans.

The principality of Wolau is bounded on the south by the principalities of Breslau and Lignitz; on the westward, by those of Lignitz and Glogau; on the northward, it is also bounded by the latter, and on the eastward by Poland, and the principalities of Trachenberg, Oels, and Breslau.

The soil of this duchy is for the most part either dry, marshy, or over-run with woods and bushes; but there are several tracts which yield good corn.

The Oder traverses the whole principality from south to north, and on the borders of Lignitz, is joined by the Catzbach, where it likewise receives the little rivers of Caltenbach, Juferitz, and several other streams which water this principality.

This district contains six circles, and the same number of towns, the principal of which is,

Wolau, the capital of a circle of the same name, and of the whole principality. It is on all sides surrounded with marshes, which in wet weather form a natural defence. It has two suburbs, named Breslau and Steinau; and in it is a palace, with a Popish church, and a Carmelite convent; but the town church and school are in the possession of the Lutherans. In the year 1640, it was taken by the Swedes, and in 1642, surprised by the Imperialists; but soon retaken by the Swedes, and in 1644, was recovered by the Imperialists.

The principality of Glogau is surrounded by Poland, and the principalities of Wolau, Lignitz, Jauer, Sagan, and Crossen. It produces a great deal of corn and wine, has a sufficiency of wood, and its wool is wrought into different manufactories; it likewise abounds in iron. The Oder waters most of the circles in this principality.

It is divided into six circles, in which are sixteen boroughs and four market-towns.

Great Glogau is the capital of a circle, and of the whole principality, and is called Great to distinguish it from Glogau in Upper Silesia. It has a handsome castle, is well fortified on the side of Poland, and has a governor and commandant, who are nominated by the king of Prussia; it is the seat of several courts of justice, and also of the war and domain office, the excise office, the military treasury, the subsidy office, and the domain office. It is situated on the Oder, fifty miles to the east of Breslau, and in it is a palace, a popish parish church, a college of Jesuits, a monastery of Dominicans, another of Franciscans, and a nunnery of Clarists, with a Lutheran church and school. It has been frequently almost consumed by fire, and has often been besieged and taken; but in 1741, the Prussians having carried it by assault, strengthened its fortifications.

The

The principality of Neifs, by some improperly called the principality of Grotkau, is environed by those of Munsterberg, Brieg, Oppeln, and Jagerndorf, as also by Moravia and the county of Glatz. The southern part of this principality is very mountainous; as through it runs the Moravian mountains; but the northern part is both more level and more fertile. Within the circles of Neifs and Grotkau are bred good horses, the latter also yields tobacco, and in the former is made a great number of iron mills. Its largest river is the Neifs, which runs out of the principality of Munsterberg, and after continuing its course for some miles from west to east, winds away northwards. Most of the brooks and rivulets of this country discharge themselves into it. In this district also rises the Ohlau; the source of the Oppa is likewise among the mountains of this country.

The whole principality of Neifs contains under it eleven cities, and as it is within the bishopric of Breslau, that bishop usually styles himself prince of Neifs, and duke of Grotkau; and, by virtue of this principality, takes place of all the other princes in Silesia. As part of this principality is subject to the king of Bohemia, the bishop is under two sovereigns.

Neifs, in Latin Nissa, the capital of the circle of the same name, and of the whole principality, is a place of great strength, situated on the river Neifs, on the other side of which is a hill where king Frederic II. at the siege of this city in 1741, raised his first battery; and in 1743 a Prussian fort was erected by order of that prince, who laid the first stone. The king appoints a governor and commandant; but the bishop is possessed of the palace, and has a treasury, a court of justice, a domain and constitutional-office. Here is also a collegiate church, which is likewise the parochial church, dedicated to St. James and St. Nicholas; the abbey of St. Peter and St. Paul, dedicated to the Holy Cross; a Jesuits college, two Franciscan convents, a Dominican monastery in the new suburb called Frederickstadt, a Capuchin convent, and a nunnery of the order of *St. Maria Magdalena de paenitentia*.

The principality of Oels is surrounded by Poland and the principalities of Brieg, Breslau, Wolau, and Trachenberg: its soil is sandy, and not very fertile; and it contains eight cities and one town. It is divided into four circles, the principal place in which is,

Oels, in Latin Olsena, the capital of the same name and of the whole principality, is situated in a marshy soil on the river Oels. It contains a palace of the prince, with two Lutheran parochial churches, a free-school, endowed with salaries for a master of languages, a fencing and writing-master, and a popish church. In 1634 it was burnt by the Imperialists, and in 1730 the greatest part of it was again demolished by fire.

The principal city of Sagan is bounded on the east by that of Glogau, on the south and west by Lusatia and the duchy of Crossen, and to the northward by that duchy. It contains large woods and chaces; and, as it abounds in iron ore, has a great number of iron mills. The Queisz runs through the whole length of the principality, traversing it from south to north, and in its course receives the Bober, the Tscherna, and the Briesnitz. It is divided into three circles, and contains three cities and one market-town.

Sagan, the capital of a circle, and of the whole principality, is seated on the Bober in a pleasant country, and has a palace of the dukes, with an abbey and a church of regular Augustins; a Jesuits college, and a Lutheran church and school, for which the Lutherans made the emperor a donation of ten thousand florins, and lent him fifty thousand. It has been several times destroyed by fire.

The principality of Munsterberg is environed by the principalities of Schweidnitz, Brieg, Neifs, and the county of Glatz. It has a good soil, and, besides flax, hemp, and wood, produces hops and all sorts of grain. Here are likewise a large breed of horned cattle and sheep. To the west and south it is very mountainous, the Bohemian chain ending and the Moravian chain beginning there.

In this principality are three boroughs and one market-town; and it is divided into two circles, the principal

town of which is that of Munsterberg, the capital of the whole principality, which is seated on the river Ohlau, and has an old castle of the dukes, with a parochial popish church, and another called St. Peter and St. Paul's belonging as a commendam to the Red Star prebendaries of St. Matthias at Breslau. To these are added, a Lutheran oratory, with another of Bohemian Calvinists. The most considerable employment of the inhabitants is the culture of hops.

The principality of Trachenberg, or Drachenberg, is bounded on the west by the principality of Wolau, to the southward by that of Oels, to the eastward by the free seignior of Militsch and Sulau, and on the northward by Poland. Its soil, though somewhat sandy, produces plenty of all kinds of grain; besides which the inhabitants breed good cattle, and the country abounds in timber.

The most considerable place in this district is Trachenberg, the capital of the principality, which is situated on the Bartsch, and has a palace of the prince surrounded by a branch of that river, with a popish church, and a Lutheran oratory.

The principality of Corolath is on every side surrounded by three circles in the principality of Glogau, and contains two or three towns and a few villages; but as they have nothing worthy of notice, we shall not trouble our readers with any description of them.

There are also in Lower Silesia several lordships; but as most of them are very small, and none of them contain any thing worthy of notice, we shall not trouble our readers with a repetition of their names.

SECT. VII.

Of Upper Silesia, containing the Principalities of Oppeln, Ratibor, the Circle of Leobschutz, and the Principality of Teschen.

THE principality of Oppeln, in Upper Silesia, which we shall now describe, is bounded on the west by the principalities of Neifs and Brieg; to the northward on the principalities of Breslau, Oels, Brieg, and Poland; to the eastward on Poland and the lordship of Beuthen; and to the southward on the principalities of Ratibor, Jagerndorf, and Troppau, with part of Moravia; and is the largest of all the principalities in Silesia.

The soil is in many places sandy, and it has also several large heaths and forests; but the country is not quite so bad as it is represented. The people find their account in tillage, the culture of wood, and the breeding of sheep; but fish and game are very scarce in the cities, which is probably owing to the great quantities of the former consumed in the popish days of abstinence, and the latter is engrossed by the lords of the country.

The Oder, which comes from the principality of Ratibor, runs through a considerable part of this country, where it receives many smaller streams. There are also several lakes.

This principality consists of twelve circles, in which the greatest part of the inhabitants are Poles.

The principal place in this principality is Oppeln, the capital, which is seated on the Oder, over which it has a bridge. The old palace, which was separated from the town by a branch of the Oder, was destroyed by fire in 1737. In this town is a bishop's court, a collegiate abbey dedicated to the Holy Cross, a college of Jesuits, and a Dominican and Franciscan convent. This town has suffered greatly by fire, and in 1741 was taken by the Prussians.

The principality of Ratibor terminates to the northward on the principality of Oppeln; to the westward on those of Troppau and Jagerndorf; to the southward on the lordships of Oderberg, Loszlau, and Plesz, which also forms its eastern boundary. Its soil is better than that in the principality of Oppeln, it producing a sufficient quantity of wheat, rye, barley, and fruit; besides which it has good pasture grounds. The Oder is the only river in the whole country: but it is watered in all parts with brooks, ponds, and lakes.

It contains only three cities, and the inhabitants are universally Polish.

Ratibor, the capital of the principality, is seated on the Oder, which here becomes navigable, and has a bridge over it. The palace, with the church of St. John, stands on the opposite side of the river. Here is also a parish church, a canonry of the Holy Cross, a convent of nuns who are called the Sisters of the Holy Ghost, a Dominican and a Franciscan convent. It has been several times destroyed by fire, and in 1745 the Prussians took it by storm from the Hungarians, who lost a great number of men.

Adjoining to the last mentioned principality is the circle of Leobschutz, which contains the principality of Jagerndorf and that of Troppau, which intersect each other. The principality of Jagerndorf, in Latin Principatus Carnoviensis, has a fertile soil, and many mineral springs. The larch-trees, which are very common in this country, yield a great deal of turpentine. In this principality are five towns. The principality of Troppau, in Latin Principatus Oppaviensis, is both a good corn and pasture country; it abounds in fruit, and contains ten small cities, with one town.

The capital of the principality of Jagerndorf has the same name, and is a small town situated on the river Oppa, but defended by a castle and other fortifications. The city of Troppau, or Troppaw, is also small, but is an antient town, with a fortress built after the antient manner. It stands on a pleasant plain, has plenty of all necessaries, and is noted for its good beer; but has no great trade. It is well built, and surrounded with a strong wall, with the river Oppa on one side, and the Mohre on the other. Besides its beautiful parish church, which is richly adorned on the inside, there are three cloisters, and three commanderies of Malta. The town-house is a large structure, and the houses in general are of free-stone and pretty lofty.

The principality of Teschen joins to the principality of Troppau, and is for the most part hilly, though on the north it is marshy and has several lakes; but it has many fertile spots, and abounds in wood. The Vistula has its source in this country, and the Olsa, or Elsa, also rises in the Carpathian mountains, which begin here; and, after traversing the greatest part of the principality, falls into the Oder.

In the whole principality are five towns, part of the inhabitants of which speak German, and the other Polish. The mountains are inhabited by Walachians, and the people of this country are famous for making excellent fire-arms.

Teschen, the capital of this principality, is seated in a very fertile country on the river Elsa. It is walled, and contains a large church, with two monasteries and a college of Jesuits. In the suburbs is a Lutheran church, in which divine service is performed both in the German and Polish languages. To this church is also annexed a school.

Besides these principalities in Upper Silesia, there is also that of Bilitz, and a considerable number of free lordships, which contain nothing worthy of notice; we shall therefore proceed to the county of Glatz.

S E C T. VIII.

Of the County of GLATZ.

Its Situation, the Face of the Country, and Produce. Of the Inhabitants, their Religion, and Places most worthy of Notice.

THE county of Glatz is seated between Bohemia, Silesia, and Moravia, being on all sides environed by mountains, which render it of very difficult access; the entrance to it being a long, rugged, rocky, and troublesome road.

This county is thirty-eight miles in length, and about twenty-three miles in breadth. It is every where mountainous, and most delightfully variegated with hills and dales, meadows and woods, fields and streams, interspersed with towns and villages. In a good year it

produces more wheat than is sufficient for home consumption, and in bad seasons is supplied at a moderate rate from the adjacent countries. What fruits and culinary herbs it wants are imported from Silesia, Bohemia, and Moravia. It also yields rich pastures, and graziers turn to good account. It has great plenty of wood, as well as game of all kinds; and its fish, particularly its trout, are very large and well tasted. Here are likewise quarries of mill-stones, and stone fit for building, which are exported to other countries; and it affords good marble, with jasper, topazes, and cornelians. In this county are also coal pits and a copper mine; but the silver mine works of Wilhelmsthal, or Neustadt, and Merzberg, are at present discontinued.

This county has also mineral springs and warm baths. Here rises the river Neiss, which, after watering this country, passes into the principality of Munsterberg, in Silesia; and at the distance of about two miles from its source, rises the Morel, on the borders of Moravia, and is the chief river in that duchy. Here likewise issues the Erlitz, which divides this county from Bohemia.

There are in the whole county nine towns, with upwards of one hundred villages that are generally large and populous. The usual language spoken here is the German. The inhabitants live mostly by tillage, grazing, spinning thread, and the linen trade.

In the sixteenth century the opinions of John Hufs prevailed considerably; and, from the year 1560 to 1623, Lutheranism maintained its ground against the most violent opposition; but, after the last mentioned year, all the Lutheran pastors and school-masters, to the number of above a hundred and twenty, were driven out of the country, and the rest of the Lutheran inhabitants, by compulsion and blandishments, were prevailed on to embrace popery, though numbers preferred exile to apostasy. Thus popery became the public religion of the whole country; but since its being ceded to the king of Prussia, the Lutherans are again permitted the free exercise of their religion.

This county makes but one circle, and is divided into six districts; in which the places most worthy of notice are,

Glatz, called by the Bohemians Kladzko, by the Poles Klodzko, and in Latin Glacium, is the capital of the county, and is situated on the declivity of a hill by the river Neiss, in the fiftieth degree thirty-six minutes north latitude, and the sixteenth degree twenty-one minutes east longitude. Most of the houses command a fine and extensive prospect of the country, and on the top of the hill is built the old castle, which was formerly divided into three parts, called the Lower, Middle, and Upper palace. The buildings of the first lie lower towards the city; in it is a spacious area, surrounded with buildings, and in them are vaults secured from fire, in which things of value and consequence may be safely lodged, and water is conveyed through pipes from the water tower near the Lower mills, quite up into this Lower palace. In it is also a popish church. From this Lower palace you ascend to the Upper, which stands much higher on the top of the rock, and has three courts, with a very deep well hewn quite through the rock, that yields plenty of excellent water.

Since Glatz has belonged to Prussia, the old citadel has been greatly improved and strengthened, particularly by the addition of very commodious barracks, capable of quartering a numerous garrison; and as it stands within sight of the whole county, at the firing of a gun, or the lighting up of a beacon, the approach of an enemy may be made known to every part in a quarter of an hour's time.

The new citadel, which is a Prussian work, stands directly fronting the old one, with the river Neiss running between them, and by means of speaking trumpets advices may be mutually communicated. This new citadel is very advantageously situated, and is a strong and regular building, that is also provided with a good well, which at a great expence is cut through the rock. Between these two citadels is also a sluice, by which the intermediate country may be laid under water.

The town itself is now strongly fortified, and in beauty, cleanliness, and order, has been greatly improved under the Prussian government. It has several suburbs, and has a parish church, with a college and seminary belonging to the Jesuits. A new church was built here in 1742, for the use of the garrison and other Lutherans. In the horse-market without the town, is a Minorite convent with a church, a Franciscan church and convent, and an alms-house in which is a chapel. Here are likewise two large mills belonging to the king, with magazines of corn and meal.

Glatz enjoys a good trade, but has been frequently pillaged and burnt; but its severest siege was that in 1622, when it held out against the united forces of the emperor Ferdinand II. and his allies. In 1742, the Prussians took it by capitulation.

In the district of Landec, is a little open town of the same name, situated on the Biela, the inhabitants of which live chiefly by tillage, graziery, and the sale of their beer and brandy. It has suffered greatly by war, and has been frequently sacked and burnt; but it is most remarkable for the warm baths that lie near it. The village of Upper Thalheim joins the town, and from thence a long wooden bridge leads to a small elegant

seat and an eminence planted with lime trees, on which is a church, and from thence to the New Bath. On proceeding two or three hundred paces to the left, you arrive at St. George's Bath, which stands somewhat higher than the other, and issues from a hard rocky soil, on an eminence east of the Biela, and about a hundred paces from a wood; the water there gushes through the fissures of the rock, which were formerly seventy in number; and in several of these fissures, the stream is equal in thickness to a man's arm. Nothing can be more pellucid than this water, though it is impregnated with a strong sulphureous smell, and its degree of warmth somewhat exceeds that of milk as it comes from the cow. The largest spring, which is in the middle, is nearly boiling hot; but others are only tepid, and others again quite cold; so that the water collected from all these several springs, must naturally be no more than luke-warm. The New, or, as it is called, our Lady's Bath, which has been already mentioned, is tepid, clear, and in taste and smell perfectly like the capital spring. On a hill about two thousand paces distant, is what is called the White Well, the water of which, besides, its being transparent, has a most grateful taste, and is extremely cold, though it is never known to freeze.

CH A P. XII.

Of S A X O N Y.

S E C T. I.

Of Saxony in general, and particularly of Upper Saxony; its Limits, Extent, Produce, and Rivers.

THE limits of Saxony are differently described. It formerly extended over both the circles of Upper and Lower Saxony; but for some time the name has been confined to the electoral dominions of Saxony. In the extensive sense, as including the circles of Upper and Lower Saxony, it is bounded on the north by the Baltic Sea, Denmark, and the German Ocean; on the east by Poland and Silesia; on the south by Bohemia, Franconia, and Hesse-Cassel; and on the west by Westphalia, extending between the fiftieth and fifty-fifth degree north latitude, and between the eighth and eighteenth degree east longitude from London.

The circle of Upper Saxony, which lies to the east, includes in it not only the dutchy of Saxony, but the principality of Anhalt, the landgravate of Thuringia, the margravate of Misnia, Lusatia, the marquise and electorate of Brandenburg, and the dutchy of Pomerania, which are divided into many lesser districts.

The twenty-two states which compose this circle, taken in their proper order, are the elector of Saxony, the elector of Brandenburg, Saxe-Weimar, Saxe-Eisenach, Saxe-Coburg, Saxe-Gotha, Saxe-Altenburg, Saxe-Querfurt, the Hither and Farther Pomerania, Camin, Anhalt, Quedlinburg, Gernrodo, Walkenried, and Schwartzburg-Sondershausen, Schwartzburg-Rupoldstadt, Mansfeld, Stolberg, Barby, the counts of Reuffen, and the counts of Schonberg.

In this circle the elector of Saxony has always been the sole summoning prince and director; but ever since the electoral house of Saxony embraced the Romish religion, in order to qualify the princes of that house to wear the crown of Poland, it appeared dangerous to the electoral house of Brandenburg, that the direction of this circle, which is of the protestant religion, should remain on the former footing.

Saxony, in general, is one of the most fertile countries in all Germany; it in many places yields a rich increase of all kinds of grain and fruit; the inhabitants likewise cultivate hops, flax, hemp, tobacco, anise, wild-saffron, and woad. The minerals of this country are

of great importance, and the searching after, working, and exportation of them, employ a very great number of people. The porcelain earth near Aue is excellent. The terra figillata and fullers earth found in several places are extremely good. There is also a variety of fine coloured earth; besides which, Saxony yields various sorts of beautiful marble and good free-stone, serpentine stone, crystals, topazes, hyacinths, rubies, garnets, amethysts, sapphires, and opals; different species of agates, chalcedonies, cornelians, and jasper. Vitriol and allum are likewise prepared here, and Saxony also yields an earth of great use in the preparation of borax. Near Grosrich has been dug a transparent and opaque amber of different colours. Coal is dug here, and Saxony prepares a very beautiful sulphur: it also produces cinnabar and quicksilver, with antimony, bismuth, and arsenic. The mines of silver are extremely valuable, as are those of copper, tin, lead, and iron.

In many parts of Saxony is a good breed of horses, horned cattle, and sheep. Wild boars and venison are also extremely plentiful; but these must be hunted by none but the great.

The Elbe is the principal river of this country, and greatly promotes its trade. This river flows out of Bohemia, and, having traversed the whole circle of Misnia and a part of the electoral circle, enters the principality of Anhalt, and at last runs into the dutchy of Magdeburg.

The Black Elster, which flows out of Lusatia, passes through the circle of Misnia and the electoral circles, and discharges itself into the Elbe.

The Mulde, divides itself into two branches; but these uniting in the circle of Leipzig, falls in one stream into the Elbe, in the principality of Anhalt.

The Saale, rising in the principality of Culmbach, passes through a part of the dutchy of Magdeburg and the principality of Anhalt, and falls into the Elbe.

The other rivers are the Unstrut, which rises in the Eichsfeld, the White Elster, and the Pleisse.

These rivers, as well as the lakes and rivulets, yield a variety of fish; and in the White Elster are found pearl muscles that have beautiful pearls, some of them as large as a cherry-stone.



British Miles 69 to a Degree.
German Miles 15 to a Degree.



S E C T. II.

Of the Electorate of Saxony: the Disposition, Manners, and Religion of the People; with a concise Account of their Learning, Arts, and Manufactures.

THE Saxons, says the Baron de Polnitz, have capacities equal to any nation in the world, and are naturally magnanimous and averse to slavery. The men are well made, robust, agile, laborious, good soldiers, and artful courtiers: they are addicted to pleasure, more especially to gaming and the bottle: they love pomp and expence, are ceremonious, and affect, more than any other Germans, to imitate the French, especially in their fondness for new fashions and new acquaintance.

The women are extremely fair, and some of them have the finest faces in the world. They are generally well shaped, tall and slender, dance well, have a most genteel air, which they set off by a rich dress, and are extremely fond of ornaments; but seem somewhat affected, and talk with too much action. They are good-natured, gay and lively, passionately fond of dancing and merriment; and when they love, says our author, it is with all the heroic sentiments and constancy of a Cleopatra or a Clelia. Though they are fond of gallantry, they are averse to idleness; and, as they are very ingenious, amuse themselves with all sorts of work belonging to the needle, the shuttle, and the distaff.

According to the marquis d'Argens, the Saxons appear to be the most polite and most ingenious of all the Germans; at least they have the most happy way of expressing themselves; and all the Germans agree, that their language is spoke in Saxony with the greatest purity. The universities of this country abound with illustrious scholars, whose merit is allowed throughout Europe, and almost every town in Saxony is famous for politeness and the cultivation of the arts and sciences. Cranach, the famous Saxon painter, says our author, was not inferior to the great masters of Italy; and Handel, the prince of musicians, was born at Dresden. In short, the numerous and well-regulated institutions for the promoting of learning in the different parts of Saxony, facilitate the task of education, and promote the reception of the sciences.

The people have, however, been much oppressed, both by the ravages of foreign troops, and the oppressions of the late princes who filled the throne of Poland. Hence Mr. Hanway, on his passing through this electorate before the late war, observes, that the richness of the soil did not seem to diminish the poverty of the inhabitants. Hunting, says he, is the favourite diversion of the Saxon court; but by this diversion the industrious inhabitants are more distressed than the brutes. Above thirty thousand head of deer, says he, are said to range in the open lands and forests; and though they break into the corn-fields of the farmer, he dare not kill one, under the penalty of being condemned to the galleys. These, with the wild boars, are so great a nuisance, that the Saxons would gladly compound to support a body of eight thousand soldiers extraordinary, on condition of having these animals reduced to half their present number. In every town of any note fifty of the inhabitants keep watch, five every night, by rotation, with bells to frighten the deer, and defend their corn from these devouring enemies.

Among the other calamities, under which this country labours, the jealousy arising from religion, says Mr. Hanway, is none of the least. The established Lutheran clergy oppress the Calvinists, who are obliged to have not only their marriages and burials, but even their christenings performed by Lutherans; while both think themselves highly injured by the countenance given at court to the Roman catholics, imagining it a gross absurdity for a Protestant people to be governed by a Romish prince: for, according to the established constitution of Saxony, the Roman catholics can no more have a church in Dresden than their elector, without being of the Romish church, can be king of Poland. A chapel, however, is connived at, by which is understood a pri-

vate, or at least a plain and modest place of worship; but what is called the Romish chapel at Dresden, is a pompous structure, so richly adorned with statues and architecture, that art and expence seem to contend for the superiority.

The peasants of this country carry provisions a great distance to market in wheel-barrows, which are well adapted for that purpose both in height and other dimensions. The wheel is bound with iron, and is both larger and lighter than those used in England.

The useful and fine manufactures are very numerous in the electorate. Great quantities of yarn are spun, thread bleached, coarse and fine linen wove, together with ticking; and there are a variety of cotton, woollen, and silk manufactures; tapestries are wove, fine lace, edgings, ribbons, and paper are made. The porcelain of Meissen is famous throughout all Europe. Fine glasses and mirrors are made here, and out of the serpent-stone they form a variety of things. Iron is wrought into black and white plates in the greatest quantity; steel and brass are also made and worked here. Saxony has likewise its manufactures of gold and silver. A fine blue colour is made of cobalt with a mixture of arsenic. A great trade is carried on in wood and timber at Grimma, from whence a vast quantity of boards, chests, boxes, &c. are exported down the Elbe to Hamburg.

Salt is the only necessary commodity wanting in Saxony, and with this it is chiefly supplied from Halle, a city belonging to the king of Prussia. Possibly this inconvenience might be removed, if proper care was taken of the salt-springs, of which there are several that, under the management of skilful persons, would doubtless yield a sufficient quantity, both as good and as cheap as that imported from Halle.

S E C T. III.

The Titles and Arms of the Elector of Saxony; the Taxes laid on the People; and the Divisions of that Electorate.

THE court of Saxony has always been distinguished by its splendor, in which it seems little inferior to any court in Europe; but the reader will form a better idea of the pomp and grandeur of this prince, when we come to treat of his palaces, the curiosities deposited in them, and their splendid furniture. We shall here therefore content ourselves with giving the titles and arms of that prince, and the taxes raised for the support of the government.

The elector of Saxony styles himself duke of Saxony, Juliers, Cleve, and Berg, as also of Engern and Westphalia; arch-marshal and elector of the holy Roman empire; landgrave in Thuringia; margrave of Misnia, and likewise of Upper and Lower Lusatia; burgrave of Magdeburg; princely count of Kenneberg; count of the Mark, Ravensberg, Barby, and Hanau; and lord of Ravenstein.

The arms of Saxony are a garland of rue, or according to Zollman, an ornamental filateé for the head and hair, placed obliquely from right to left over eight, or, according to others, over ten fesses sable and or, ranged alternately above each other. On account of Thuringia, a lion marked with four transverse strokes argent and gules, drawn alternately, open jaws, an exerted tongue gules, and gripes projected or, and on the head a crown of the same, in a field azure. On account of Misnia, a lion sable, with an exerted tongue gules, gripes projected of the same, and a double inverted tail in a field or. On account of Juliers, a lion armed sable and argent, with a tongue exerted gules in a field or. On account of Cleves, in a field gules, an escutcheon argent, in the center of which are eight scepters conjoined or. On account of the Berg, a lion gules, crowned azure, in a field argent. On account of Engern and Westphalia, an eagle crowned or, in a field azure, with three hornets horns gules, in a field argent. On account of the palatine of Saxony, an eagle displayed or, and crowned with the same, in a field azure, as also an eagle uncrowned or, in a field sable. On account of Lower Lusatia, an

ox gules and courant, with a belly argent, in a field of the same. On account of Upper Lusatia, part of a wall or, trowelled sable, and built battlement fashion, in a field azure. On account of the mark of Landberg, two erect fesses in a field or. On account of the seigniory of Plesslein, a lion divided or and argent, in a field azure. For the county of Orlamunde, a lion sable crowned gules, and cloathed with rose-leaves of the same, in a field or. On account of the burgravate of Magdeburg, an escutcheon divided longitudinally downwards, in whose fore-field gules appears a semi-argent eagle crowned or, and in the hinder-field argent, four bars gules. For the county of Brene, three semi-circles gules, or the horns horns cantoned argent, in a field of the same. On account of the burgravate of Altenburg, a rose gules with seeds or, and painted vert, in a field argent. For the county of Eisenberg, three fesses azure, in a field argent. For the county of Ravensberg, three chevrons gules, placed above each other, and from below to the top fixed or conjoined to each other, in a field argent. For the county of the Mark, a fesse consisting of three chequers gules and argent, in a field or. On account of the Regalia, an escutcheon modelled or. For the county of Hanau, three chevrons gules, in a field or. For the princely county of Henneberg, a hen placed on a mount verte, and in the position to take wing, in a field or. For the county of Barby, two barbles crowned or, placed back to back, and beset on the sides with four small roses, in a field azure. On account of Munzenberg, a field divided cross-wise, in its upper part or, and in its lower argent. On account of Lichtenberg, a lion sable, in a field argent: and on account of the office of arch-marshal of the holy Roman empire, an escutcheon divided cross-wise, whose upper part is sable, and its under argent, the two electoral swords gules lying cross-wise over each other.

The customary taxes of Saxony are partly ordinary and partly extraordinary. The ordinary taxes are those which are granted every six years by the country: to this head belongs the land-tax; and the taxes upon liquors which arise from the imports upon white and brown beer, that is, two rixdollars for each vessel of the former, and one and a half for each of the latter; but the nobility and possessors of noble estates, and also the ecclesiastics, are, for themselves and families, freed from any imposts upon the liquor they consume at their tables. And also the flesh-penny, or flesh-tax, from which the nobility and clergy are also exempted.

The extraordinary taxes are usually the penny-tax, which rises and falls in proportion to the damage done by fires and storms; the ember-tax, and the excise, which is two-fold. The land-excise amounts to three-pence in the dollar out of the price of certain goods sold. The general consumption excise has been introduced into such towns and villages as are inhabited by handicraft tradesmen. Besides this last there are the poll and estate-taxes, stamped duties levied upon paper, cards, shoes, &c. also on the marriage of a new sovereign; and on other occasions it is customary to make a donation in money.

The mines also bring in a considerable revenue to the sovereign, which is paid in kind, or certain proportions of silver, tin, lead, copper, iron, and several sorts of minerals. Mr. Hanway observes, that the electors revenues amount to near one million five hundred seventy-five thousand pounds sterling; and adds, that the expences of the court are so great, that six thousand five hundred ducats are annually allowed for sweet-meats, &c. which is near twice as much as the king of Prussia allows for his table. Yet Saxony is said to owe forty millions of dollars; but his late majesty was so fond of curiosities, and particularly paintings, that our author was told, he gave half a million of dollars, intended for part of a payment due to the king of Prussia, for the duke of Modena's pictures.

As to the military force of this country, it is sufficient to observe, that there are usually maintained about twenty thousand regular troops, besides well regulated militia.

The whole electorate of Saxony is divided into circles, which according to their order of rank, are the

electoral circle or dutchy of Saxony, the circle of Thuringia, that of Misnia, that of Leipzig, that of Erzeberg, that of Vogtland, and the circle of Neustadt, with the two districts of Merseburg, and Naumburg-zeitz.

SECT. IV.

Of the Electoral Circle, or the Dutchy of Saxony, and the Circle of Thuringia.

THE electoral circle borders on those of Misnia, Leipzig, Thuringia, the principality of Anhalt, the mark of Brandenburg, and on Lusatia. Its greatest length as well as its greatest breadth, is estimated at about forty-seven miles. The country is not remarkable for its fruitfulness, a great part of it being sandy. The Elbe runs through a part of it, and between Gorf-dorf and Elster receives the Black Elster. Some tracts of this country are watered by the Mulde.

This circle contains in it twenty-four towns, three boroughs, four hundred and twenty villages, one hundred sixty-four noblemen's estates, and eleven prefectures, in which the most considerable town is the following.

Wittenberg, in Latin Witteberga, or Leucorea, is a fortified town in the prefecture of the same name, situated near the Elbe, and famous for the manufacture of coarse cloth, the wool of this country being remarkably good. Cloths are sent hither from all parts to be dyed, and the blues and greens, commonly called Saxon, are best dyed here. In this place is an university, in which are about seven hundred students; and here is the Sokoloff church, a building of about three hundred years standing, where Luther first preached the doctrines of the reformation; and in this church that great reformer was also interred, but has no other monument besides a brass plate with an inscription, except his original portrait at length, painted on wood, and well preserved since the year 1540.

The people here have a strong tincture of Romish superstition; among other instances of which the credulous say the devil visited Luther in the library which now belongs to the university, but that the reformer was so unpolite as to throw his ink-stand at him.

This town is not large, but fortified; the old citadel was formerly the electoral residence. In a large round tower, which stands by the university church, are kept the common archives of the electoral family. In the parish church belonging to the town, is held the general superintendency: there is here also a Latin school, which has six teachers. In 1547, this town was taken by the emperor Charles V. In 1640 it suffered greatly by fire, and in 1756 was taken by the Prussians, who broke down a bastion of the fortifications.

We come now to the circle of Thuringia, which forms the north part of the landgravate of that name. The country, which is well watered, yields good pasturage, and abundance of corn, particularly wheat, which is excellent, as also fine woods, and produces woad, saffor, and anise. It has a considerable breed of horses, horned cattle and sheep.

In some parts of the country swarms of field mice commit great ravages among the corn; for they not only devour a great quantity in autumn, but lay up large winter stores in their holes; so that the government, in order to extirpate these noxious animals, gives for every full grown mouse six pfennings, and three for a young one.

The forest of Thuringia, which is pretty extensive, affords no other grain but a few oats, so that the inhabitants are obliged to buy corn from their neighbours; however, they have great plenty of wood, which is sold at a very low rate.

In Thuringia are forty-seven towns, fourteen boroughs, six hundred seventy-four villages, three hundred noble estates, and thirteen prefectures, belonging to the electoral house of Saxony, the principal places of which are the following.

Weissenfels, in Latin Leucopetra, is a well built town, seated on the river Saale. On a white rock
above

above the town is a fine citadel called Augustusburg, which was the ordinary residence of the dukes of Saxe-Weissenfels; as also an arsenal, which was stripped by the Prussians in 1756; a town church, another church near what was formerly called the cloister of St. Clara; an hospital containing a small church; an academy erected out of the above-mentioned nunnery, and, from duke Augustus its founder, named Augusteum; a Latin school, and manufactures of silk and velvet. At the royal hunting house, which lies before Nickels gate, resides the provincial huntsmaster of the circle of Thuringia. In 1757, a considerable number of the troops belonging to this circle had posted themselves in the town; but were driven from thence by the Prussians; when, in order to facilitate their flight, they burnt down the large and spacious wooden bridge built over the Saale.

Langensalza, the capital of all the electoral Saxon Thuringia, is seated in the Salza, in a spot very fruitful in corn, and contains an ancient citadel, about nine hundred houses, two parish churches, one superintendency, whose spiritual jurisdiction is divided into the Upper and Lower circle; a Latin school, and some manufactures of stuffs. It carries on a good trade in corn, half silks, serges, and other commodities.

S E C T. V.

Of the Margravate of Meissen or Misnia, containing a Description of Meissen and Dresden, with the several Palaces, and most remarkable Curiosities, and an Account of the Fort of Konigstein, and its extraordinary Tun.

THE margravate of Misnia, or Meissen, is bounded on the north by the dutchy of Saxony; on the east by Lusatia; on the south by Bohemia; and on the west by Thuringia; and is about a hundred miles in length, and eighty in breadth. It is divided into fourteen prefectures, and contains forty boroughs, four market towns, one thousand three hundred ninety-three villages, and twenty sovereign palaces, the principal places in which are the following.

Meissen, in Latin Misena, is situated on the Elbe, where the rivulets of Triebisch and Meisne pour themselves into it; and from the last it takes its name. It stands partly on eminences, and partly in a valley. The bishopric, which was first founded in the year 948, belongs to the Lutheran church, and the chapter consists of a provost, a dean, a senior, a chanter, and five canons. In the cathedral are the monuments of several bishops, and on the high altar stand the statues of three margraves of Meissen, represented in the character of the Eastern magi bringing gifts to the infant Jesus. Of the old citadel, which stands on a mountain, the fore part, which belonged to the burgraves, and the hind part, which belonged to the bishops, are now become ruinous, and the center only remains, in which is carried on the celebrated manufacture of the excellent Misnian porcelain. This, however, is a large building, capable of some defence. Mr. Hanway tells us, that he had an opportunity of being convinced of the secrecy with which this manufactory is conducted; for there is no admittance into the works without an order from the governor of Dresden; nor are the workmen ever seen without the gates; they being all confined as prisoners, and subject to be arrested if they go without the gates: for this reason a chapel and every thing necessary is provided within. The workmen amount to about seven hundred, most of whom have not above ten German crowns a month, and the highest wages are forty, so that the annual expence is said not to exceed eighty thousand crowns. This manufacture being entirely on the king's account, he sells annually to the value of one hundred and fifty thousand, and sometimes two hundred thousand crowns, or thirty-five thousand pounds.

The churches in and near the town, besides the cathedral already mentioned, and in which is the burying vault of the princes, is a parish church, the cloister, or Franciscan church, the church of St. Afra, near the provincial school, and three burying churches belong-

ing to the head church of St. Afra, which is near the provincial school, and has many others united with it, both in the town and country, and together with the provincial school, is immediately under the upper consistory of Dresden, and the school called the Afraneum, which was formerly the Benedictine cloister of St. Afra; the number of scholars taught and maintained gratis, amount to one hundred and eighteen. There is also a town school. The bridge, which extends over the Elbe, is supported by stone piers; but the upper part is of wood, and it is observed, as a master-piece of art, that the middle arch, which is seventy-five paces wide, is kept together by a single wooden peg. The country in the neighbourhood of this town, produces a good sort of wine.

The country between Meissen and Dresden is extremely beautiful, consisting of a delightful mixture of corn-fields, gardens, meadow-lands, and pasture. The banks of the Elbe are adorned with a great number of vineyards, and the industry of the people have made them form the steepest hills into a number of terrasses covered with vines. Near Meissen the valley grows narrow, and some of the houses scattered along the banks of the Elbe are built on rocks, which rise perpendicular from the river, and form a very agreeable and romantic scene.

Dresden, the metropolis of this electorate, and one of the finest cities in Germany, is agreeably situated on the river Elbe, in the fifty-first degree twelve minutes north latitude, and in the thirteenth degree forty minutes east longitude from London, seventy miles north-west of Prague, and ninety south of Berlin, in the midst of a plain surrounded by lofty hills about two leagues distant, the nearest of which are converted into vineyards. As the city stands on both sides the Elbe, it is united by a stone-bridge six hundred and eighty-five common paces in length, and about seventeen in breadth, containing eighteen arches; but Mr. Hanway observes, that the passage over it being horizontal, takes off from that grand effect which a curve produces in these structures. There are several round projections with seats in them on each side of the bridge, and a fine iron balustrade all along. On the fifth pilaster on the right hand in going from the new city, the arms of Poland and Saxony are neatly cut in stone, supported by two statues representing Poland and Saxony, and on the opposite side is a brazen crucifix of curious workmanship. For the more convenient intercourse between the towns, a new bridge has been built consisting of nineteen arches, and over every pier are four pedestals with a stone urn upon each.

In this city are several squares and lofty stone buildings six or seven stories high, which make an elegant appearance, but are inferior in beauty to those of Berlin; besides, many of the streets are narrow. Near the entrance of the new city is an equestrian statue of king Augustus, erected on a lofty pedestal, and is said to be made by a common smith, and on that account is worthy of being admired, though it has many capital defects, particularly in the horse's head.

The place which affords the greatest entertainment to a curious traveller is what is called the green room, or the museum. This collection was begun by the elector Augustus, and placed in a green room of the royal palace, which name it still retains, though there are now several apartments painted green, and filled with these curiosities. The fee for seeing this museum is generally discharged with five or six guildens, or about fourteen shillings given the attendant who opens the doors; but the greatest part of it goes to the superintendant, or keeper of the museum. At the entrance, the shoes of all who are admitted are carefully wiped, in order to keep the place as free from dirt or dust as possible. All the apartments are floored with marble of different colours, of the produce of Saxony.

In the first apartment is to be seen a great number of small brass models of most of the famous statues and monuments that are extant, both antient and modern. Among these are an equestrian statue of Augustus II. king of Poland, of Frederic William the Great, after the famous statue in Berlin, of Lewis XIV. and the models of the most celebrated statues in Italy.

The second room is filled with curious clocks and clock-work, adorned with gold and silver. Among these is the representation of the Virgin Mary and Joseph, with the infant Jesus in the manger, and the shepherds with the Eastern magi performing their adorations to the Messiah, while the heavens seem to open with a surprising effulgence. Here is also a ship which sails round a table, while some of the sailors in it weigh anchor, and the rest are in continual action; and at the same time it performs a piece of music. The Japan work on the wall of this apartment is an exact imitation of inlaid work of jasper and other precious stones.

In the third room is a numerous collection of drinking-vessels and other curiosities in ivory, particularly a ship with all its sails, masts, and rigging.

In the fourth apartment the eye is dazzled with a multitude of gold and silver utensils, most of which are large goblets and other drinking-vessels. The pannels of this room are of looking-glass.

The fifth is a spacious room, in which are a great variety of precious stones, and curious vessels made of them. Here is a large table of jasper cut in relieve of onyx, chalcedony, and other gems, representing a young prince on horseback, preceded by the Virtues, pointing out to him the way to true glory; while the Vices, with looks full of rage and confusion, are flying from him. This is an antient piece which cost eighty thousand dollars. Here is a statue of Charles II. king of England; a large goblet set round with the most curious and costly antiques; the angel Michael vanquishing the devil admirably performed in wood, and cost in England, where it was made, two thousand five hundred pounds sterling. Here are likewise several figures consisting of gems and pearls naturally adapted to constitute the different parts, and so curiously arranged, that they appear to have been designed by nature for the places they occupy. Among these, what more particularly strikes the eye is the story of the prophet Jonah; the whale, the ship, the prophet, and the sea-shore being made of pearls properly arranged, and the rocks in the sea represented by very large gems. Another curious piece represents two persons carrying in a bason before them a number of small pearls: the bason and pearls are the work of nature, with very little assistance from art. Two other persons are carrying on a pole a large bunch of grapes, imitated to the greatest perfection with oriental emeralds.

The sixth apartment is surrounded with closets, in which are placed the electors of Saxony as big as the life in their proper habits. In the middle of this room is a clock in the form of a woman, which moves the head every minute from one side to the other.

The first object shewn in the seventh apartment is a tea-equipage, with a table, &c. all of gold enamelled, and set with diamonds, and cost forty-six thousand dollars. On a table an ell broad, and an ell and a quarter long, is represented the celebration of the Great Mogul's birth-day. The monarch is exhibited sitting on a throne, the grandees of his empire lie prostrate before him with their respective gifts, and the portico is crowded with his guards, elephants, and every thing belonging to the splendor of an eastern court. Dinglinger, jeweller to the court, and fifteen other ingenious artists under him, were ten years and eight months employed on this piece; for which he was paid eighty-five thousand dollars. The pillar in the middle of the room is adorned with beautiful basso-relievos of Arabian agate, and on it is an oriental onyx of an oval figure near a quarter of a Dresden ell in its longest diameter. In the golden fleece belonging to the order of knighthood is a diamond for which the king of Poland paid two hundred thousand dollars; it weighs a hundred and ninety-four grains and a half, and is placed between two diamonds, each of which is equal in size to a large nutmeg.

In the last apartment are, among other things, a clock of gold set with gems, and a jasper table with veins of crystal and amethysts. This jasper comes from Frieberg, only four miles from Dresden, and it is but a few years since the real value of the Saxon jasper was known, for the peasants formerly used this sort of stone, together with others, to inclose their fields; yet it is very beautiful, but extremely difficult to polish. The number of

curiosities in the above apartments is exceeding great; but some idea may be formed of this collection by the few that have been mentioned, and it is observable that the judicious arrangement of the several pieces adds a surprising beauty to the whole.

The palace is furnished in a most superb manner; the drawing-rooms are particularly worth seeing, on account of twelve pictures by Lewis Silvester, representing the rape of Proserpine, the metamorphosis of Acteon, with other fables from Ovid; and a piece representing the late elector taking leave of his father, at his setting out on his travels. The latter recommends his son to Pallas and Mercury. Behind the prince stands his governor; by his side is Prudence with a telescope in her hand, and several genii hold up maps of the countries which the prince was going to visit. The ceiling of the audience-room was also painted by the same hand. The looking-glasses in some of the apartments are between eight and nine feet high, and six and seven broad. The assembly-room for the royal family is hung with rich tapestry, representing the achievements of Alexander the Great.

Among the surprising quantity of plate kept in the plate-cabinet are four stands, each weighing four hundred and seventy-one marks, and twelve others that weigh nearly as much; two silver vases, each above five feet high, scarce to be fathomed by two men, weighing six hundred marks each; two pieces of the same fashion little inferior in weight; and eight cisterns with the vessels standing in them, each weighing eight hundred marks. The mark is eight ounces.

The common assembly-room is adorned with tapestry representing the battle of Hochstet. In the several apartments are many curious clocks, beautiful tables, rich cabinets, and other furniture; among which a foreigner should not omit seeing the confidants-table, a curious piece of mechanism, on which the elector dines privately with his confidants; for this table, with all its appurtenances, rises from the lower apartments into the upper, without one servant being seen.

There is another museum in the palace which contains a vast variety of curiosities. In the first chamber is a collection of prints, from the commencement of the art of engraving to the present time.

The second is the mineral-gallery, in which is the earth of the different countries in the world, and ores of every denomination.

The third contains petrifications, particularly of wood, animals, &c.

In the fourth chamber, which is a very large one, are different kinds of wood and vegetables; in particular there is a cabinet with three hundred and fifty squares as big as the palm of a large hand, run in flat as drawers, of so many different kinds of wood. In this apartment are also the pictures of a man and his wife, who lived near Tameswar; the man was a hundred and eighty-five years of age, and his wife a hundred and seventy-two.

In the fifth chamber is a small cabinet of skeletons, and other anatomical curiosities. The sixth contains the skins of a variety of animals stuffed. The seventh has the skins of fishes stuffed. The eighth has a great quantity of different kinds of shells. In the ninth is a cabinet of about six feet high, and four broad, every drawer of which has some natural curiosity in amber. In the tenth is a grotto with springs of water. In the eleventh are many curiosities in coral. The twelfth contains the skeletons of lions, bears, &c. of a prodigious size, and the stuffed skins of some extraordinary beasts, particularly of a horse, whose mane is said to be three ells and a half long, and his tail twelve ells and a half.

In another apartment at some distance is a model of Solomon's temple cut in cedar, as described in the Old Testament, with all its furniture.

The gallery of pictures is one of the finest in the world; part of the collection consists of a hundred capital pieces, which are said to be all originals, and to have cost half a million of crowns. Among these are the capital works of Raphael, Corregio, Rubens, and all the great masters. The whole collection consists of above two thousand pieces, and are valued at between two and three million of crowns.

The elector's gardens, though agreeable, are too level, and void of those natural beauties that are capable of being afforded by an equality of ground. A small palace is situated in them, which is approached by a grand avenue of a considerable length. A field for tournaments is in the front, and behind is a fine piece of water. The gardens which are on the sides, are adorned with a profusion of marble statues, many of them larger than the life. These shew the genius of Augustus I. the late king's father, who being entirely devoted to his amours, left them to after-ages, as monuments of his lasciviousness. The orangery, which is in another part of the city, has four hundred orange-trees of a very large size, and many exotics.

The Chinese palace, thus called from the taste of the building and the furniture, is situated on the Elbe, and commands a view of the bridge and the Romish chapel. The ornaments of the architecture, and the relieve of the frontispiece, are in the Chinese taste; but after all, it is far from being an elegant structure. It has fourteen rooms, in which are a great number of leopards, wolves, bears, monkeys, and other animals, as large as the life, made of porcelain, with elephants and rhinoceroses of the size of a great dog, and a prodigious variety of birds and fowl, with a curious collection of flowers, all of porcelain made at Meissen. The apostles near three feet high, are in white porcelain. There is also a representation of the crucifixion four or five feet high, with many other curious pieces; but what is more surprising, there are forty-eight China vases that appear to be of no use, and to be extraordinary only on account of their great size, and yet the elector's father was so charmed with them, that he purchased them of the late king of Prussia at the price of a whole regiment of dragoons.

The Turkish gardens and palace are situated in Plau-street. The first floor of the palace is adorned with many pieces of painting, representing the ceremonies used in the Turkish seraglio, with the baths, audiences, &c. in which all the great officers of state are dressed in their proper habits. In the second story are the pictures of several celebrated beauties that have made no little noise at the court of Dresden, all in Turkish dresses. The tapestry hangings and other furniture of this palace, are either the manufacture of Turkey or Persia, and several tables are set off with oriental curiosities; as knives made in Tartary, a Persian enamelled tea-equipage, and a large bowl of *lapis nephriticus*, which is called the *welcome*; and this bowl full of wine is to be drank off by the ladies on their arrival here; as a large bowl made of a Maldivia nut, is said to have been presented to the gentlemen by the cham of Tartary on such occasions. Here are also shewn silver cymbals, to which the Turkish women generally dance, and several other curiosities of the same kind.

The menagery is in old Dresden, and contains lions, tygers, leopards, lynxes, and several other animals; and at the elector's palace at Neustadt-ostra, near Dresden, there are kept a number of tame stags, which draw in a carriage, and when Mr. Keyser was there, one of them was used for the saddle. These generally set out with great spirit, but soon flag.

The palace of count Bruhl has been built at several times, and the apartments are elegant and richly furnished. They are adorned with lustres of porcelain in beautiful figures; the tables have a variety of tea equipages, and the figures of men and women, birds and beasts of porcelain. The drawing-room is pannelled with looking-glass, and his cabinet furnished with enamels and crayons. The house and gardens belonging to it are situated on the Elbe, near the bridge, and command a pleasant prospect. His library, which is in the garden, is two hundred twenty feet long, and well furnished with books: but what is most striking is the gallery of pictures, which, though it does not contain a fourth part so many as the royal gallery, is incomparably more magnificent. It is one hundred fifty-six ells long, and the paintings are shewn to great advantage, by being ranged only on one side, and fronted by lofty windows, that afford sufficient light to shew the minutest beauties of this excellent collection. The pannels between the

windows are of looking-glass, against which are placed statues and busts that have a grand effect.

The other remarkable buildings at Dresden are the opera-house; the assembly-house, and the royal stables, the outside of which is very grand; the arsenal, which was stripped by the Prussians in 1756, under which is the electoral cellar; the palaces of the electoral prince, and the other princes of that family; the electoral chancery office, the mint office, the foundery, the court dispensary, the royal foundation for Roman catholic boys and girls, the academy for painting, the palace of prince Lubomirski, the hotel de Saxe, and other magnificent palaces and buildings.

The places of religious worship are the church of the Holy Cross, which is the principal; St. Mary's, St. Sophia's, the garrison church, and the Roman catholic chapel, which is a curious piece of architecture. In the suburbs are the churches of St. John, St. Anne, St. James, St. Bartholomew, and the Lazar church.

About the year 1730, the number of houses in Dresden, including the suburbs, were computed to amount only to two thousand five hundred, and that of the inhabitants to little more than forty thousand, including the garrison; but in 1755, there were reckoned here about eighty or ninety thousand men.

In the city and its neighbourhood, many ingenious manufactures are carried on. The trade of Dresden is, however, very inconsiderable; the most important article is the silver brought in ingots every fifteen days from the mines near Friedburg, to the amount of about twenty thousand dollars, or three thousand five hundred pounds sterling. This silver is immediately coined into florins of sixteen grosch, which with respect to the current money of bats, driers, &c. is worth seven per cent advance, and is therefore, says Mr. Hanway, so speedily conveyed into the neighbouring territories to be coined again, that it is next to impossible to obtain, in the ordinary commerce of the people, change in this money for a single Louis d'or.

About four miles from Dresden, on the other side of the Elbe, is the royal palace of Pillnitz, which stands in a pleasant country, and is adorned with a great number of portraits of the most celebrated beauties of Saxony.

Five miles from Dresden is fort Konigstein, which stands on a rock, cut so steep, that it appears quite perpendicular, and in many places has projections in the manner of bastions, from whence the sides of the rock may be raked and defended. The ascent towards it is the least difficult, for which reason it is secured on that part by good works, and a triple row of cannon ranged one above another. Wood and other necessaries are drawn up by the help of cranes. The garrison consists of one hundred and fifty men; but on the first alarm from the governor, the neighbouring villages are obliged to furnish some hundreds more. This fort is always stocked with provisions sufficient to last many years. On the top is a large green area, a wood, and several gardens, in which are thirty-eight different kinds of forest and fruit trees, with pastures and land fit for agriculture. The fortress is provided with fine cisterns, or small ponds, as reservoirs for snow and rain water, in which are several kinds of fish for the governor's use; but the water drank by the garrison, is drawn up by a wheel from a well nine hundred Dresden ells deep.

One of the greatest curiosities to be seen at this fort is the tun which general Kyaw caused to be made here. Its length is seventeen Dresden ells, and its diameter at the bung twelve ells. It consists of one hundred fifty-seven staves, eight inches thick, and fifty-four boards for the heads. It holds three thousand seven hundred and nine hogheads, and upon one head of the cask is a Latin inscription to the following purpose:

"Welcome, traveller, and admire this monument,
 "dedicated to festivity, in order to exhilarate the mind
 "with a chearful glass, in the year 1725, by Frederic
 "Augustus king of Poland, and elector of Saxony,
 "the father of his country, the Titus of his age, the
 "delight of mankind. Therefore drink to the health
 "of the sovereign, the country, the electoral family,
 "and baron Kyaw, governor of Konigstein; and if
 "thou

“thou art able, according to the dignity of this cask, the most capacious of all casks, drink to the prosperity of the whole universe: and so farewell.”

The top of the cask is railed in, and affords room for fifteen or twenty people to regale themselves. There are also several kinds of welcome cups, which are offered to strangers.

This fortress is a place of confinement for state prisoners. It has an arsenal, and in a room called the hero's apartment, besides the old Saxon warriors, which the painter has drawn according to his own fancy, are the portraits of all the generals employed by the elector.

SECT. VI.

Of the Circle of Leipzig, with the District of Wurzen, and the principal places in each.

THE circle of Leipzig, including the district of Wurzen, is bounded by the Misnian and Ertzgebirg circles, by a part of the duchy of Altenburg, the bishoprics of Merseburg and Naumburg-Zeitz, and by the Thuringian and electoral circles. It contains thirty-two towns, nine hundred forty-seven villages, and consists of fourteen prefectures.

The principal city of this circle is Leipzig, which signifies the place of lime-trees, and is one of the finest and most celebrated towns in all Germany. It is situated in a pleasant and fertile plain on the Bleisse, in the fifty-first degree twenty-two minutes latitude, and in the twelfth degree thirty-four minutes east longitude, forty-six miles to the north-west of Dresden. It has several other rivulets in its neighbourhood, as the Barde, the Elster, and the Luppe. It is indeed said to be only eight thousand nine hundred fifty-four paces in circumference; but it has large and well built suburbs, with fine gardens. Between these suburbs and the town is a fine walk of lime-trees, which was laid out in the year 1702, and encompasses the city. Mulberry-trees are also planted in the town ditches; but the fortifications seem rather calculated for the use of the inhabitants to walk on than for defence. The walls have four magnificent stone gates, and the citizens maintain two hundred soldiers. The houses are very lofty, and have elegant fronts. The streets are clean, commodious, and agreeable; they are lighted in the night with seven hundred lamps, and the inhabitants amount to about forty thousand within the walls.

Leipzig has been distinguished during several ages for the liberty of conscience granted to all people. Hence the inhabitants have been industrious in the cultivation of knowledge and moral improvement. Here is an university which is still very considerable, with six churches for the Lutherans, theirs being the established religion, one for the Calvinists, and a chapel in the castle for those of the Romish church. The university library consists of about twelve thousand volumes, six thousand of which are folios. This library is open for the use of the public, from ten to twelve, on Wednesdays and Saturdays; and on the same days, but in the afternoon, free access is allowed to the magistrates library, which consists of about twenty-five thousand volumes, and contains cabinets of urns, antiques, and medals, with many curiosities of art and nature. The exchange is an elegant structure, and the ceiling of the great hall is well painted. The Appel gardens are planted with a great number of yew trees, and adorned with canals, water-works, and statues. In a structure erected in this garden is carried on a manufactory of gold and silver tissue, velvet, &c. The Bosen gardens are very large, but want that symmetry and beauty which appear in the Appel gardens; however, here is a fine orangery, and in a pavilion adorned with some paintings are to be seen a numerous collection of curiosities in the animal and vegetable kingdoms. In an inclosure within the garden are kept some white stags, of a different species from the common deer. The asparagus of Leipzig is large and delicious, the gardens here being reckoned the best in Germany.

All sorts of manufactures are carried on in this city, gold silver, silk, wool, and linen yarn being worked

here into all kinds of stuffs, velvets, stockings, cloths, and linens. There are also houses for the dying of silk, the printing of cottons, the making of tapestry, and the preparation of Prussian blue. The orphan-house is appropriated to the culture of silk. The people here are much famed for their painted cloths in imitation of tapestry.

Leipzig has three fairs, viz. on New-year's-day, Easter, and Michaelmas; but that of Easter is most considerable. To these fairs resort the Poles, Hungarians, Bohemians, Prussians, and indeed people from all parts of Germany; and likewise the English, French, Italians, and even Russians, who all bring the produce of their respective countries, which are bought up there and dispersed, by means of the rivers, to the most distant parts of the empire.

In the years 1631 and 1632 this city was taken by the Imperialists; in 1642 it was taken by the Swedes, and in 1745 and 1756 was garrisoned by the Prussians, to whom it was obliged to pay very considerable sums of money by way of contribution.

The neighbouring country being very pleasant and well cultivated, its fertility draws hither multitudes of larks, which are so very fat, and have so delicate a flavour, that the Leipzig larks are famous all over Germany; and what must appear very extraordinary is, that the excise on these birds produces six hundred thousand dollars, or about nine hundred pounds a year to the city, at a grosch or two-pence sterling for every sixty of those birds. The revenue accruing to the sovereign from the city of Leipzig is computed at four hundred thousand rixdollars, or seventy thousand pounds sterling a year.

The next town we shall mention is Grimma, which has an old ruinous citadel, and is divided into the Upper and Lower town, in each of which is a church with another for interments, and the hospital church of St. George, which lies before the bridge-gate. The prince's, or provincial school, has also a church of its own; besides which there is a town school. The inhabitants procure subsistence chiefly by their wood, cloth, and thread; the dealers in the latter frequent the fairs of Leipzig, their thread being exported far and near. This town was the first in all Saxony that imitated the English flannel.

Rochlitz is seated on the Mulde, in the prefecture of the same name with the town, and contains about four hundred houses. To the west it has a citadel, which stands on a high grey rock. It has three churches, and a good Latin school. In this town cloths, stuffs, and linen are made; and in a mountain near the town are some excellent stone quarries, the red stone in which is exported to a great distance. Marble, jasper, chalcedony, and other beautiful stones are also found here.

The district of Wurzen, though united to the circle of Leipzig, has its own regency, and several towns, the principal of which is Wurzen, which is seated on the river Mulde. The town is but small, but the suburbs, which are much larger, contain in them the old citadel, a cathedral church, that of St. Wenzeslaus, an hospital, and a Latin school. The beer of this town is reckoned equal to any in Saxony, and is exported in great quantities. Here are also many houses for the dying of cloth, several bleaching grounds for linen, and many of the inhabitants get their living by knitting.

SECT. VII.

Of the Circles of Ertzgebirg, Voigtland, Neustadt, Merseburg, and the Bishopric of Naumburg; with their principal Towns.

THE circle of Ertzgebirg is bounded by the circles of Leipzig and Misnia, as also by Bohemia, the Voigtland and Neustadt circles, and has its name from the mountains, which are rich in ore. On the searching and working of this ore and other minerals, and on some manufactures, the inhabitants depend for their subsistence, which they cannot here receive from agriculture. This circle, including the seigniories of the count of Schonburg, contains fifty-four towns, ten mine and market-towns,

towns, and seven hundred and sixty-one villages; and is divided into fifteen prefectures, the principal places in which are,

Freyberg, or Fridberg, the capital of the prefecture of the same name, and the principal mine-town belonging to the elector of Saxony, is seated on the Mulde, into which the river of Lufitz falls, after it has run through the town. Freyberg consists of about two thousand houses, and the number of its inhabitants, in 1725, was computed to amount to sixty thousand. It is surrounded with a double wall, each of which is defended by towers and out-works; but the inner wall has the greatest number. Round it also runs a lined ditch. The tract about the town is pretty mountainous, and yet is esteemed fertile. It has an upper mine-office, which has the direction of all the mines in the country. The citadel lies at a small distance from one of the gates, and is encompassed with a ditch remarkably deep, and has a church of its own. The other churches are the cathedral, near which is the electoral burying-chapel, St. Peter's church, St. Nicholas's, St. James, St. John's, and St. Bartholomew's. Each of the two last has an hospital belonging to it; here is also an academy, which has eight teachers, and in it is kept the public library. Freyberg has also a cannon and bell-foundry, and the inhabitants are employed in making fine Lyons lace and lace of Tombac; and near the town is a sulphur and vitriol-house. Its excellent beer is exported to a great distance. In 1318 it obtained the privilege, that all the carriers that go to Bohemia should be obliged to expose their wares to public sale for three whole days to the inhabitants of this town. The silver mine works in this neighbourhood are of great importance, and the most profitable in all Misnia. There are likewise mines of copper, tin, and lead; all which are said to bring in the elector a clear annual profit of a hundred and thirty thousand pounds sterling. In 1632 it was taken by the emperor, when the elector gave eighty thousand rixdollars to save unruffled the family monuments in St. Peter's church, the German princes being antiently buried in their robes, jewels, &c.

Zoblitz is a small town, where the inhabitants principally subsist by working the serpent-stone, which is found here, into pitchers, mortars, bowls, tea and coffee-cups, writing implements, boxes, pipes, caskets, candle-sticks, snuffers, tobacco-boxes, and also by trading in lace, yarn, and linen. The serpent-stone is dug just above the town; and farther to the east is found a red species, which is esteemed the finest, and is therefore considered by the sovereign as his property; together with a yellow, green, brown, grey, and black sort. In the electoral red quarry are found granates, and also asbestos of various colours.

Zwickau, one of the largest towns in this country, is situated on the river Mulde, and has a citadel separated from the town by a ditch. It has a church in the upper part of the town, another in the lower part, and a third in the lower suburbs. It has a good Latin school, in which is a library that contains above twenty thousand volumes; there is here also a superintendency, whose spiritual jurisdiction is divided into three circles, in which are fifteen boroughs and nine towns, with sixty-six churches in the country. This town has a manufacture of cloth, and a great number of cards are made here for the manufacturers who work in wool, cotton, &c. The trade carried on here consists in these articles, and also in leather, deals, iron, coals, marble, and corn.

The circle of Voigtland is bounded by that of Ertzgebirg, Bohemia, and the principality of Culmbach, and contains fifteen towns and three hundred and twenty-three villages, the principal place in which is,

Plauen, the capital of a prefecture of the same name, and of the electoral Saxon share in Voigtland; it is seated on the river Elster, and contains an old citadel, with one parish church, and another for interments; as also a Latin school and a superintendency, which has a spiritual jurisdiction over ten towns and thirty-nine churches. Here is a manufacture of cotton and cloth.

The circle of Neustadt is bounded by a part of the circle of Ertzgebirg, and the principalities of Altenburg and Saalfeld. It consists of three prefectures, in

which are seven boroughs, two market-towns, and two hundred and twenty-two villages; but the places in this circle are too inconsiderable to deserve notice.

The dutchy of Merseburg is environed by the circles of Leipzig, Thuringia, the county of Mansfeld, and the dutchy of Magdeburg.

The country is fertile, and produces a considerable quantity of corn, millet, and flax. It was formerly a bishopric subject to Magdeburg; but was secularized by the treaty of Passaw in favour of the house of Saxony. One of the dukes, who was administrator of it, having introduced Lutheranism here about the year 1562, it has been since granted as a portion to one of the younger sons, to whom it gives the title of duke, who, with the revenues of other districts added to this noble bishopric, is enabled to keep a very genteel court.

The chapter consists of Lutheran protestants of antient genuine nobility, these are sixteen canons major, among whom are six prelates and four minor canons.

The dutchy has its own regency, together with a peculiar chamber, college, and consistory.

It is divided into five prefectures, in which are one borough, seven towns, and two hundred and twelve villages.

The principal place of this dutchy is Merseburg, where the duke resides. It stands in a fine situation, amidst meadows and gardens, on the banks of the Sala, or Saal, ten miles to the south-east of Halle, and seventeen to the north-west of Leipzig. It is thought to derive its name from Mars, who was worshipped here by the pagan Saxons: within the liberties of the chapter stands the episcopal palace, together with the cathedral, a Gothic structure, in which is to be seen the magnificent tomb of the emperor Rodolphus of Swabia, who died after losing his hand in a battle fought with Henry IV. his competitor, and the burying-vault of the duke of Saxe-Merseburg. Near the cathedral is a library of very antient manuscripts. The town is well built, though not in the modern taste, and its walls and seven towers are of stone. Among the other buildings are the palace, an academy, the chancery, the chapter-house, the abodes of the canons, and the parish-church. It has two suburbs, in each of which is a church, and in one of them is an orphan-house, and a water-engine, by means of which water is conveyed from the Saale into the palace, the town, and suburbs.

The last district we shall mention in the electorate of Saxony is the secularized bishopric of Naumburg, which lies partly on the Saale and partly on the Elster. The former part is entirely surrounded by the circle of Thuringia, and the latter by Thuringia, the circle of Leipzig, and the principality of Altenburg.

The protestant chapter of Naumburg consists of twelve capitulars, six major prebends, and four minor; and the collegiate foundation of Zeitz, which is also protestant, has seven canons. This bishopric has its own regency, together with a peculiar college and consistory; the latter of which is filled up by the counsellors of the regency, in whom is likewise vested the choice of the superintendency of the foundation.

This bishopric contains three prefectures, in which are five towns, and about a hundred and forty villages: but the only places worthy of notice are,

Naumburg, the capital of the district. This city lies in a fertile tract near the Saale. It is under the jurisdiction of its council, and contains a small citadel, with three churches and a school. In the liberty is the cathedral, and the cathedral school. Its yearly fair, which begins on the twenty-ninth of July, enjoys considerable privileges.

Zeitz is a town seated on the Elster, and contains a citadel, which, from its founder duke Moritz, or Maurice, is named Moritzburg. It contains four churches, with a school, and is the seat of the regency and consistory. In this town is likewise a manufacture of cloth.

We here conclude our account of the electorate of Saxony, which composes only one of the twenty-two states into which Upper Saxony is divided, and shall now proceed with the rest.

S E C T. VIII.

Of the Mark or Marquisate of BRANDENBURG.

Its Situation, Produce, Rivers, and Canals. The Religion of the Inhabitants, and their Learning, Arts, and Manufactures.

THE mark of Brandenburg is bounded on the north by Mecklenburg and Pomerania; on the east by Poland; on the south by Silesia, Lusatia, the electorate of Saxony, the principality of Anhalt, and the duchy of Magdeburg; and on the west by the duchies of Magdeburg and Lunenburg.

This country is not every where fertile, some tracts being very sandy; notwithstanding which these lands, when properly cultivated, yield rye, small barley, and oats in abundance, and the corn is thinner shelled than that which grows in a fatter soil. The inhabitants also turn their sandy grounds to advantage by laying it out in vineyards and gardens, or planting it with pine-trees, which thrive well in these parts; but some of the circles are very fruitful, producing wheat, spelt, and large barley in plenty.

This country, under the government of king Frederic William and his son Frederic II. has acquired a very different form from that in which it antiently appeared. Agriculture is universally improved, large tracts of waste land have been cultivated, superfluous woods grubbed up, deep and large morasses rendered dry and fruitful, and a prodigious number of villages erected. In some of the circles millet, buck-wheat, and flax are cultivated; in others great quantities of tobacco, and in others again herbs used for dying. The woods furnish the inhabitants not only with fuel fit for domestic uses, but with great quantities of timber for house and ship-building, a great deal of which is exported to Hamburg, Holland, France, and other places. The woods are also of great advantage for carrying on their glass and iron-works; the making of charcoal, tar, and pot-ashes. Hence great care is taken to preserve those woods in a good condition, for the benefit of posterity.

The inhabitants also employ themselves in breeding of cattle, and particularly sheep, on account of the great advantage they receive from their wool, which enables them to carry on some profitable woollen manufactories; and therefore for the improvement of their breed of sheep, king Frederic II. has caused rams to be imported from Spain and England. The culture of silk is likewise carried on with good success, and is continually increasing; for notwithstanding the climate is in winter much colder than ours, silk-worms thrive, and produce a great deal of silk.

The principal minerals in the Mark are a fine porcelain earth, and all manner of colour-earths, together with allum, salt-petre, amber, and iron stone.

Of the rivers in this country are the Elbe, and the Oder, which may be esteemed the capital rivers of Germany. Besides these there are lesser streams, and many useful canals for the advantage of navigation. One of these canals, named Plauen, shortens the water-passage between Berlin and Magdeburgh about one half; it is eight thousand six hundred fifty-five perches in length, and at the bottom is twenty-two, at the surface of the water twenty-six, and in some places between forty and fifty feet broad, with bridges laid over it, at nine different places. There are also several inland lakes, some of which, in the middle Mark, have a communication by means of canals and sluices. The Elbe and the Oder abound less in fish than the Havel, the Spree, and several smaller streams.

The greatest part of the inhabitants are of the Lutheran church; the preachers belonging to which are ranged under sixty-nine spiritual inspections and their head, partly stiled inspectors, and partly also provosts. The royal and electoral house also now profess themselves of this church. The refugee Bohemians who are settled here are Roman catholics, but the French refugees are Calvinists; however, every inhabitant enjoys an unrestrained liberty of conscience.

The sciences are in high esteem, and greatly cultivated; for their improvement there are Latin schools, several seminaries, the university of Francfort on the Oder, and the academy of sciences at Berlin. The sovereign himself is the patron of learned and ingenious men; and he himself is a philosopher and a poet.

Numerous manufactures are carried on here, the greatest part of which were introduced by the French refugees. The inhabitants make cloths, and several sorts of woollen stuffs, as camblets, calimancoes, flannels, silk stuffs, velvets and tapestries, gold and silver lace, and leather. They prepare all manner of purified earths for colours, allum, salt-petre, gun-powder; and several sorts of wares are made of wrought and cast iron, steel, and brass. They likewise make large and excellent mirrors, and a very fine sort of porcelain. At Berlin are also excellent painters, statuaries, and engravers. Admirable things are also performed in the jewelling, goldsmiths, and enamelling way; fine mathematical instruments are also made; and the Berlin coaches are every where famous. By means of these arts and manufactures, a saving of large sums is made, and the money kept in the country; while the goods exported bring in return a prodigious quantity of gold and silver.

S E C T. IX.

The Royal and Electoral Titles, and Arms; the various Offices by which the Government is administered; the Revenues, and Power of the Elector; and the Number of his Forces.

THE royal and electoral titles run thus: viz. Frederic king of Prussia, margrave of Brandenburg, of the holy Roman empire arch-chamberlain and elector, sovereign and supreme duke of Silesia, sovereign prince of Orange, Neufchatel and Valengin; of the county of Glatz, Guelders, Magdeburg, Cleve, Juliers, the Berg, Stettin, Pomerania, the Cassubi and Wends, Mecklenburg and Crossen, duke; burgrave of Nuremberg, prince of Halberstadt, Minden, Camin, Wenden, Schwerin, Ratzeburg, East-Friesland and Mors; count of Hohenzollern, Rappin, the Mark, Ravensberg, Hohenstein, Tecklenburg, Lingen, Buren, and Leerdam; lord of Ravenstein, the countries of Rostock, Stargard, Lauenburg, Butow, Arlay, and Breda, &c.

The arms on account of Prussia are a crowned eagle sable, with trefoil-stalks or, on the wings, and the letters F. R. on the breast, in a field argent. On account of the mark of Brandenburg an eagle gules, weaponed or, with trefoil-stalks of the same on the wings, in a field argent. On account of the arch-chamberlain's office, a scepter placed palewise in a field azure. On account of the duchy of Geneva, a chess-table divided into five fields or, and four azure. On account of Orange, a belt or, with a blue hunting-horn. On account of Neufchatel, a pale gules beset with three chevrons argent, in a field or. On account of Magdeburg, a shield divided gules and argent. On account of Cleve, eight sceptres or, in a field purple; or according to others, united in a small shield argent, in which is seen a round ring. On account of Juliers, a lion sable in a field or. On account of the Berg, a lion gules crowned azure, in a field argent. On account of Stettin, a griffin gules, crowned or, and weaponed in a field azure. On account of Pomerania, a griffin gules, weaponed or, in a field argent. On account of Cassuben, a griffin sable, turned to the sinister side and weaponed or, in a field of the same. On account of Wenden, a griffin transversely marked gules and verte, in a field argent. On account of Mecklenburg, a buffalo's head sable, having horns argent and crowned gules, with a ring argent passed through the nose. On account of Crossen, in a field or, an eagle sable, with wings, tail and weapons displayed, and having on his breast a crescent argent, over which is seen a small cross of the same. On account of Jagerndorf, an eagle sable with a hunting-horn argent, placed on the breast, in a field of the same. On account of the burgravate of Nuremberg, a lion sable, with open jaws prepared for battle, a tongue exerted gules, weaponed and crowned, in a field or. On

account

account of Halberstadt, a shield divided argent and gules. On account of Minden, two keys argent, placed in form of a St. Andrew's cross, in a field gules. On account of Camin, an anchor cross argent, in a field gules. On account of Schwerin, a shield divided, in whose upper part is a griffin or, in a field azure, the under part vert, with an inclosure argent. On account of Ratzeburg, a cross waving and argent, in a field gules. On account of East Friesland, a crowned harpy or, with wings displayed, in a field sable, and four stars or, in the four corners of the field. On account of Mors, a fesse sable, in a field or. On account of Hohenzollern, a shield quarterly argent and sable. On account of Ruppın, an eagle argent, in a field gules. On account of the Mark, a fesse chequered gules and argent, in a field or. On account of Ravensberg, three chevrons gules and argent, placed over each other. For Hohenstein, a shield chequered gules and argent. For Tecklenburg, three hearts gules, in a field of the same. On account of Lingen, an anchor or, in a field azure. On account of Schwerin, an arm ornamented argent, projecting out of a cloud, and holding in its hand a ring, in a field gules. For Clettenberg, a hart sable, in a field argent. For Regenstein, a hart's attire gules, in a field argent. For Buren, a fesse argent pinnaced alternately on both sides, in a field gules. On account of Leerdam, two fesses gules, alternately pinnaced on each side, in a field argent. On account of the marquise of Ter Veer, a fesse argent in a field sable. For Rostock, a buffalo's head gules and crowned, a tongue exerted gules, and horns argent, in a field or. On account of Stargard, a shield divided gules and or; and on account of Breda, three small St. Andrew's crosses argent.

With respect to the orders of knighthood, we have already given an account of them in treating of Prussia.

With respect to the several offices by which the government is administered, they consist of the following, which are kept at Berlin.

I. The privy state-council, which assembles once a week. In this council all the privy ministers of state and war, as well as those who are in the provinces, have a seat and voice when they come to Berlin. In it are proposed matters of grace, important justiciary affairs are decided, and the vacant investitures conferred, those of the Silesian princes excepted, who are invested by the king himself from the throne.

II. The cabinet ministry, which take care of foreign state affairs, and consist of the privy ministers of state, war, and the cabinet, who are divided into two departments, of which one attends only to German state-affairs, or the concerns of the empire.

III. The general supreme directory of the finances, war, and domains, throughout the whole of the royal and electoral countries; under which are all the war and domain chambers. The king himself is president, and the heads of the six departments into which it is divided have certain privy finance counsellors under them; they are ministers of state and war, and act as vice-presidents, and directing ministers at the general supreme directory of the finances, war, and domains. Under four of these departments are divided the several parts of the king of Prussia's German dominions; the fifth takes cognizance of affairs relating to commerce, arts, and manufactures; and the sixth of the magazines, provisions, marching, quartering, salt-petre, and other affairs relating to the service.

IV. The spiritual department, which takes care of the church, the university, schools, and affairs relating to the poor, and has at its head a minister of state and war.

V. The general post-office, which provides every thing relating to the post throughout the whole of the royal and electoral countries, Silesia excepted.

VI. The supreme court, or tribunal of appeals, the highest justiciary college in all the royal and electoral countries, and to which appeals lie from the several regencies or governments.

VII. The chamber court, which decides all processes throughout the electoral Mark, and consists of two senates, the chief president of which, and likewise of the tribunal, is the great chancellor for the time being.

VIII. The war and domain chamber of the electoral Mark, which has the management of the farming out of the royal prefectures and mills, the care of the finances and domains, and in general of every thing that relates to the royal revenues arising from the electoral Mark of Brandenburg.

IX. The supreme war and domain chamber of accounts, which inspects the accounts of the several cash officers in the royal and electoral countries.

X. The supreme Lutheran consistory, which is employed in filling up the places of preachers and school-masters, and in examining candidates. This consistory is likewise consulted on the filling up of the theological chairs at the royal universities.

XI. The directory of the Calvinist church, which takes cognizance of the concerns of the several Calvinist churches in the royal countries.

XII. The war consistory.

XIII. The pupil college of the electoral Mark, which being appointed for the tutelage of minors, audits their accounts, and provides for the secure lodgment of their capitals.

XIV. The supreme mine-office.

XV. The general provision-office.

XVI. The general salt-chest and salt-factory.

XVII. The supreme medicinal college.

The French have an upper and under judicatory of their own, as also their own revision, tribunal, supreme consistory, and supreme directory, which is styled the *Conseil François*.

The sources of the royal revenues arising from the marquise of Brandenburg are the royal domain, with the forests, posts, mines, mints, duties on salt, stamped paper and cards, excise, imposts upon beer, and grinding, the bushel-tax, tolls, protection-money paid by the Jews, the contribution or tax on hides, land, and houses, &c. These several revenues are collected into different chests, and the sum total of the yearly revenues arising from the mark alone are estimated at about two millions and a half of crowns.

The power of the royal Prussian and electoral house of Brandenburg has risen under king Frederic II. to a height that has attracted the attention and astonishment of all Europe. This power is not so much founded on its extent of territory, which is much less than that belonging to some other European states, but on its excellent internal constitution, as well as on the great insight of its governor into the connection of the different parts of the body politic, and likewise on his own wise and indefatigable attention to the government of his people.

All the countries and states of this royal and electoral house do not exceed three thousand square German miles, and contain in them nearly five hundred towns. From the year 1750 to 1756 there were, one year with another, one hundred and sixty-six thousand five hundred and sixty-seven persons baptized, and about a hundred and twenty-five thousand three hundred and forty-eight deaths; whence, in order to find out the number of inhabitants, we need only to multiply the last of these sums by thirty-eight, which brings the number to four million seven hundred and sixty-three thousand two hundred and twenty-four. The whole of the royal revenues are rated at near twenty millions of dollars. The contributions of the subjects are invariably fixed, and at no time, not even in the most difficult conjunctures of war, are afterwards raised or renewed.

According to a complete list of the royal Prussian army in 1753, it consisted at that time of one hundred and forty-six thousand two hundred and fifty-seven men, which in time of peace requires the sum of ten million nine hundred and thirty-two thousand nine hundred and sixty dollars for their yearly maintenance, exclusive of the charges of mounting and remounting, levying and quartering, which may arise to about one-fourth more: so that the sum total of the money required for their maintenance one year amounts to nearly fourteen millions of dollars.

The discipline of these troops, as well as their expertness at their exercise, is not to be equalled. For their subsistence the several royal and electoral countries are divided

divided into cantons or smaller circles, out of which each regiment, and even each company, has a separate one to itself, out of which its recruits are to be drawn; for which reason the several regiments are always quartered in or near those cantons out of which they draw their recruits. In times of peace these troops have every year nine or ten months furlow granted them, in order to enable them to carry on their business as burghers or peasants.

The above-mentioned army has consisted of ten thousand three hundred and forty cuirassiers, eleven thousand nine hundred and thirty-eight dragoons, ten thousand one hundred and sixteen hussars, and one hundred and thirteen thousand eight hundred and fifty-six foot; among which were four thousand four hundred and twenty-three superior officers, and ten thousand and forty inferior ones. A regiment of cuirassiers consists of five squadrons, a regiment of dragoons of ten, and a regiment of hussars of the like number. A squadron of the two first contains one hundred and sixty-six men, and a squadron of the last one hundred and fourteen complete. A regiment of foot usually consists of two battalions, each of which is composed of six companies, that is one of grenadiers, and five of musketeers. However, two of the Prussian regiments consist of three battalions; these are the regiment of guards and that of Anhalt Dessau. A field battalion consists of eight hundred and sixty-four men, and a garrison battalion of seven hundred and twenty.

The Prussian soldiers are in general remarkable for the shortness of their coats, which seems at first view to proceed from a ridiculous frugality, yet is calculated for very wise ends. Their cloaths sit extremely close to their bodies, and are strengthened at the elbows with leather in the form of a heart, which prevents the necessity of patching an old garment. A Prussian soldier is never seen in rags; but all of them, with respect to neatness and the cleanliness of their persons, appear as gentlemen. The king's guards, and some other regiments, have new cloaths every year, but the rest of the army in general have new regimentals only twice in three years. The last king obliged the soldiers to wear white spatter-dashes both in winter and summer; but his present majesty, observing the inconvenience with which it was attended, gave his men black for the winter. In the same season their breeches are of woollen cloth, but in summer they are of white dimity, or linen, which are very light and clean. They all wear their hair queued, which is by this means easily kept in order; and they are always powdered when on duty. This not only serves to preserve the natural hair or wig, but gives the soldier a respect for his own person, and the rank in which he considers himself in some measure compensates for the smallness of his pay.

The Mark of Brandenburg is in general divided into the Electoral and New Marks. The Electoral Mark comprises in it the Old Mark, the Prignitz, the Middle Mark, and the Ucker Mark. These marks, or provinces, are again divided into circles, and over each is placed a land council. We shall begin with the Middle Mark, on account of its lying next the countries last described, and its containing the capital city, the seat of government.

SECT. X.

Of the Middle Mark of Brandenburg; with a particular Description of the Cities of Berlin, Brandenburg, and Potsdam; the Palace of Sans Souci, and other Places worthy of Notice.

THE Middle Mark is bounded by the Prignitz, the dutchy of Magdeburg, the Saxon Electoral circle, Lower Lusatia, the New Mark, the Ucker Mark, and the dutchy of Mecklenburg. This country has been greatly improved by the last and present king of Prussia, who have caused many marshy and unserviceable tracts to be drained and rendered fertile.

In several parts of this Mark the inhabitants apply themselves to the cultivation of vines; in others millet

and buck-wheat are produced in great quantities; woad, clary, and saw-wort are here cultivated, and in many places it succeeds well in the culture of silk. In some parts are considerable heaths and woods. This district has the advantage of having several fine canals dug for the benefit of commerce.

The Middle Mark is divided into eight circles, the principal places in which are,

Berlin, the capital of all the king of Prussia's dominions, and one of the largest, finest, and most populous cities in all Germany, consisting properly of five towns united under one town-council. In Berlin are several fine palaces, with other magnificent and superb buildings. The streets are for the most part broad, regular, straight, and some of them very long and elegant. There are also several large and beautiful squares, together with pleasant walks. There are twenty-five churches, fourteen of which are Lutheran, eleven Calvinist, and one Roman catholic; an academy of sciences, another of arts and painting, a college of anatomy and surgery, five seminaries, and two public libraries. In 1755 it was computed to contain five thousand eight hundred and twenty-six houses, and one hundred and twenty-six thousand six hundred and sixty-one persons, among which were six thousand five hundred and forty-one French, one thousand two hundred and fifty-three Bohemians, two thousand five hundred and ninety-five Jews, and twenty-six thousand three hundred and twenty-five soldiers who had wives and children.

This city is seated on the Spree, which passes through it in two principal branches, and is in the fifty-second degree twenty-eight minutes north latitude, and the thirteenth degree forty-four minutes east longitude, a hundred and fifty miles to the north-west of Prague, and is encompassed with agreeable gardens and vineyards. The entrance into Berlin is airy and elegant. In going towards the palace, on the new bridge, which is of stone, over the Spree, is an equestrian statue of Frederic William the Great, which is esteemed a piece of exquisite workmanship, and was erected by Frederic I. king of Prussia. Both the man and horse are of one entire piece cast at the same time, and cost forty thousand crowns. The elector is represented in a Roman habit, somewhat above the common size, on a pedestal of white marble, adorned with basso relievo, representing four slaves bound in chains to the corners of the base.

The king's palace is a magnificent structure of free-stone, begun by Frederic I. in 1699, and consists of four stories, with fine ceilings, large apartments, and superb furniture, in particular the quantity of silver every where seen is amazing, for the tables, stands, lustres, chandeliers, looking-glass frames, couches, &c. are said to be all of that metal. Mr. Hanway observes, that the apartments in the palace are adorned with silver in every shape; but these ornaments are so massy, that the fashion does not exceed seven per cent. so that four millions of dollars might with great ease be realized, if the exigencies of the state required it. Here are the pictures of Charles V. and his empress, the frames of which are of silver, each weighing six centners, or six hundred and sixty pounds; and there is a superb crown lustre of seventeen centners. There are also pieces of three, four, and five centners, and a grand music-gallery finely ornamented, all of silver; besides, one end of a large apartment, for about twenty feet high and as many broad, is richly furnished with gilt plate: yet all this is merely for shew, the court having other services of plate for use. This account of the treasures in this palace was written just before the late war, and it is not improbable that might induce his Prussian majesty to melt down some of it into specie.

The king's particular apartments are elegant; but have nothing extraordinary, the prevailing taste is white stucco and gilding. Several of the private apartments have tables, with pens, ink, and loose papers, which indicate the dispatch of business, more than the regularity and elegance one naturally expects to find in a royal palace. The hall has several good paintings, and the grand saloon is adorned with four pieces of tapestry, representing our Saviour driving out the money-changers, his washing the disciples feet, the miraculous draught of fishes, and

and his last supper. The throne in the audience-chamber is of velvet, embroidered with gold in a grand taste; but not loaded with ornaments. There is nothing extraordinary in the old quarter of the palace, except a bed of crimson velvet, which has above two hundred cyphers with electoral crowns, all set with pearls, and the chairs in this room are in the same taste. It is usual for persons of the royal blood to lie in this bed on the first night of their marriage.

The library is far from having a beautiful appearance; but all gentlemen have the liberty of reading there, from ten in the morning till two in the afternoon.

The king's stables are a spacious building, divided into two courts, and nine pavilions, at an equal distance from each other. The architecture on the outside is Gothic; but the inside is more magnificent, and very lofty and lightsome. The mangers are of stone, and the pillars of the stands of iron, adorned with his majesty's cypher gilt. Over the mangers are several large pictures of the finest horses bred in the king's studs. The back side of these stables projects towards the river, a slope being formed instead of a stair-case, by which they descend. Here are noble apartments for the master of the horse and the inferior officers, with large rooms over the stables, in which are deposited a great deal of rich furniture and harness; among which are the accoutrements of the horse on which Frederic I. rode at his public entry; all the ornaments of the bridles, the breast-leather, and crupper, as well as the bits and stirrups, being of gold, adorned with brilliants. These stables are said to have room for four hundred horses.

The arsenal is one of the noblest structures of the kind in Europe, and consists of four grand buildings, that form a spacious square, with four fronts almost exactly alike, and a handsome portico at the entrance of each. The lower story is of rustic architecture, with arched windows. Over the principal gate, which is in the middle, is the model of the king's grand-father in brass gilt, enclosed in an oval frame; the four cardinal virtues, of a gigantic size, are placed on pedestals on each side of the portico, and seem to look towards the picture, and over it is his majesty's cypher, supported by two men, and above it a large pediment covered with a beautiful basso relievo representing Mars, resting on a trophy, and looking at a couple of slaves chained at his feet. The first story is of the Corinthian order, and a balustrade runs round the top, with noble decorations of trophies and statues.

The inside of the arsenal is not less magnificent, the rooms of the upper story being full of arms ranged in great order; the lower rooms are stored with brass guns, and the walls and pillars that support the roof covered with cuirasses and helmets.

Behind the arsenal stands the house of the general of the ordnance, in which is contained the foundery, where a number of men are continually employed. There are several other arsenals in this city, where they keep field pieces, iron cannon, and every thing belonging to the train of artillery.

The opera house is an elegant modern edifice, the front of which is adorned with a noble portico, supported by six Corinthian columns, and in the architrave is wrote FREDRICUS REX APOLLINI ET MUSIS; above which is a pediment adorned with basso relievo and statues. The scenes are splendid, and in an elegant taste. It has three galleries, and is said to contain two thousand persons. The columns that support the roof are calculated to throw the whole into a grand saloon, and the orchestra consists of about fifty musicians. The opera is entirely supported at the king's expence, and rendered in some degree subservient to the ends of government. The extreme delight the king takes in music, and his great knowledge in that science, have carried this entertainment to a very high degree of perfection. In the upper galleries on each side of the stage are seated six trumpeters, who salute the queen consort when she enters the house or retires; but the king himself, who is superior to the rules of ceremony, will not allow this flattery to his own person.

In the suburbs the houses are generally of timber; but so well plaistered, that they seem to be of stone, and the

streets are broad, straight, and lightsome. Here was the residence of the queen mother, who was sister to king George I. of England. This palace is named *Mon Bijou*, or *My Jewel*; it is a small elegant structure, beautifully furnished, and has very fine gardens that lie open to the river.

About five miles from the city of Berlin, is the palace of Charlottenburg, which was founded by the king's grandfather, and his present majesty has finished it according to his own taste, which is extremely elegant. There is a range of about ten apartments well disposed, adorned with white stucco and gilding. The ball-room is worthy of the king who is said to have designed it: it has ten windows on each side, and besides the stucco and gilding, which are here richer than in the other rooms, it is adorned with busts, statues and large pier glasses. The gardens are laid out with taste, and the statues well disposed.

We shall now give some account of Brandenburg, a city from which the whole electorate takes its name; it is seated on the Havel, which not only divides the Old and New Town from each other, but separates the fort from them both, and likewise environs the New Town with a particular trench, on which a sluice has been erected. The Old Town contains about four hundred inhabitants, and the New Town about twice that number. They are both under one magistracy, and each contains two churches. The fort resembles a suburb, and in it is the cathedral church; the houses of the greatest part of the members of the chapter; and a riding school, in which young noblemen are instructed. The bishopric is secularized; but the chapter is still kept up, and consists of seven persons, who are the provost, the dean, the senior, the sub-senior, and three other canons. In 1755 king Frederic II. conferred upon it a peculiar distinction, and consisting of a chapter cross of gold enamelled with violet, terminating in eight points. There is here a small colony of French Calvinists, with a manufacture of cloth, fustian and canvas; and in this town a pretty good trade is carried on by means of the Havel.

Potsdam, which lies four miles to the south-west of Berlin, is agreeably situated on a branch of the Spree; it is of considerable extent, and the buildings neat and regular. The elector Frederic-William made this his seat, and in 1662 built the castle, which was afterwards enlarged by king Frederic I. and adorned with a fine portal. King Frederic William began to erect some costly additions to the town, for which purpose he caused several morasses to be filled up and built upon, with a canal fifty paces wide and two thousand in length, to be carried on from the Havel, through the center of the town, to a branch of the same river. This canal is planted on both sides with trees, and environed with well-built houses. King Frederic II. has raised the castle one story, enlarged it with two wings, and adorned it with magnificent apartments. The old houses in the neighbourhood of the castle are pulled down, and, instead of them, new, regular, and grand buildings have been raised for the owners at the king's expence. The apartments are remarkable for their elegance, particularly his majesty's writing-chamber and study: the last is partitioned off by balustrades of silver. The frames of the looking-glasses and the embellishments of the tables are of the same metal. The officers dine every day in a large apartment at the king's expence. His majesty here avoids the empty ceremonies of a court. The allowance of his table is but thirty crowns a day, fish and wine excepted, in which he is at no great expence. The king entertains at his table twelve persons: those of his ministers most in favour are first invited, with those of foreign princes, who happen to be at Potsdam, and his officers, even to an ensign, fill up the vacant places. The throne in the audience-chamber is richly embroidered with the arms of the house of Brandenburg, supported by two Herculeses. In one of the apartments are two curious figures in copper of a Chinese man sitting, and a woman of the same country holding an umbrella over his head. These figures, which are richly gilt, stand in an oval niche, lined with marble, and form a very convenient stove.

Before the castle is a large square adorned with Roman columns, in which the soldiers that lie here in garrison are daily exercised. The garden adjoining to the castle is beautifully adorned with water-works, gilding, and statues, which are large and elegant, particularly a Neptune and Amphitrite seated in a sea-car, in a large basin, opposite the east front of the palace. The stables are contiguous, and furnished with good English hunters.

In the market-place is a pyramidal obelisk of four sides, composed of variegated Silesian marble, seventy feet high, fixed on a pedestal of white Italian marble, at each corner of which is a small statue of the same; and on the center of each side stands a marble bust of the kings, from Frederic I. to Frederic II.

The town church, which is at a small distance from the castle, is a fine structure. The garrison church is large, and has a marble pulpit, under which is the monument of king Frederic William: it has a lofty and beautiful tower, in which is placed a fine set of chimes. The French church is a neat building, adorned with a cupola, and the church of the Holy Ghost has also a lofty tower. The council-house is a new building that has an elegant cupola. In a large orphan-house, founded in 1724, are maintained, clothed, and educated above two thousand soldiers children of both sexes; and belonging to it is one Lutheran and one Calvinist preacher. In this town is a foundery for arms, and a velvet and silk manufactory.

Near the town are a great number of vineyards, for the planting of which the elector Frederic William caused layers to be brought out of the best wine countries. In the park, which is adorned with vistas in the form of a star, stands a royal hunting-house, called the Star.

At a small distance from Potsdam is Sans Souci, or Without Care, a royal palace devoted to retirement. King Frederic II. soon after his accession to the throne, caused this palace to be erected on a desolate eminence, in a fine and grand taste, both within and without. This eminence is cut into six terraces, to each of which is an ascent of twelve steps, and against the walls upon each terrace are planted the best vine stocks, which are kept under glass-cases. On the upper part of this hill, which affords a view of the town, and its adjacent territories, stands the palace, which is but small, and only one story high; yet, on account of its regularity, elegance, and ornaments of sculpture and painting, is much admired: among these is to be seen the statues, from the cabinet of antiques, formerly in the possession of cardinal Polignac. In the center of the palace is a round hall lined with marble, adorned with magnificent columns and excellent paintings; but is particularly admired for the beauty of its floor, the marble of which is disposed in the form of flowers, after the Florentine manner, and strikes the eye very agreeably. On its top is a cupola, which supplies it with sufficient light. One of the apartments in this palace is wainscotted with cedar, ornamented with foliage of gold; and in this apartment is kept a small library. Behind the palace is a covered semi-circular passage, adorned on each side with columns. The palace is encompassed on three sides with gardens, which have several fine statues, particularly of a Venus drawing a net, and Diana with game; the pedestals of which are adorned with reliefs. These gardens, which do not extend above half an English mile in length, are terminated on the east end by an Egyptian pyramid embellished with hieroglyphics. They have, however, no gravel, and their sandy walks, in our author's opinion, rob them of half the beauty they might otherwise have.

Frankfort on the Oder is finely situated on that river, in the fifty-second degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the fourteenth degree fifty-three minutes east longitude from London. The Oder, over which there is a large bridge of timber, divides it into two parts. The streets are wide, the houses well built, and the market-place spacious. There is here a cathedral and two churches, one of which belongs to the Calvinists; and an university, the professors in which are partly Calvinists and partly Lutherans. There is here also an academy for

martial exercises, a Lutheran free-school, and another for the Calvinists called Frederic's school. This city was formerly one of the Hanse-towns, and had a very considerable trade, which is at present much decayed. The inhabitants deal chiefly in linen cloths and fells, which they send to distant parts of Germany by the Oder, and the canal between that river and the Elbe. However, it has annually three great fairs. This city has suffered various revolutions: it was put under the ban of the empire by the emperor Charles IV. and, to pacify him, the inhabitants were forced to pay him twelve thousand marks of silver. In 1631 the Swedes took it by storm, when they had the cruelty to put all the inhabitants to the sword, to revenge the massacre of two thousand Swedes, whom count Tilly, the emperor's general, had inhumanly put to death in the city of Brandenburg; but the place was restored to the elector by the peace of Westphalia.

SECT. XI.

Of the New Mark, the Ucker Mark, the Old Mark, and the Prignitz; with the most remarkable Places in each.

WE shall now proceed to the New Mark, which lies to the east of the country last described, and is a long tract of land, which to the west is separated from the Middle and Ucker Mark by the river Oder; to the north it terminates on Pomerania; and to the eastward on Pomerania, Poland, Silesia, and Lower Lusatia; being in its greatest length about a hundred and sixty-nine miles, and in its greatest breadth forty-seven.

The soil is for the most part sandy; but the circles of Konigsberg, Soldin, Friedeberg, and Arnswalde have good corn-lands. Near the rivers are luxuriant pastures; but the grass in many of them is coarse and rushy. It abounds in wood, but has a sufficiency of fruit, garden-plants, game, and fish. Some of the circles produce wine, and likewise yield great quantities of iron.

The New Mark contains thirty-eight towns, and, as the burials amount one year with another to about five thousand seven hundred, the number of the inhabitants may be estimated at two hundred and sixteen thousand. The Lutheran churches are divided into twelve inspections, and those of the Calvinists consist of five congregations. The New Mark has a regency of its own, which consists of a president, and four counsellors, two of whom are nobles, two commoners, one prothonotary, and four clerks. It has also its own particular consistory and criminal court of justice; as likewise a board of war, and a chamber of domains. Revisals and appeals indeed lie from it to the exchequer at Berlin; but it has been agreed, that it should determine in cases relating to the New Mark only by way of commission, and not as a superior court.

The New Mark consists of the town of Kustrin, of seven original circles, and of four incorporated circles.

Kustrin, the capital of the New Mark, is situated in the fifty-second degree thirty-five minutes latitude, fifteen miles to the east of Berlin. Its proper name is Koztryn, that is a Rush Basket, which is the name of a large lake that abounds with rushes, between this city and Sonnenburg, and from which it received this denomination. It is seated on the river Oder, which, a little above this city, receives it into the Warte. The adjacent country is marshy, on which account the approach to it on the side of the Middle Mark is by means of a causeway, that extends above three miles in length, and has no less than thirty-six large and small bridges: the approach also to one of the suburbs is over a causeway of seven bridges. Its situation therefore is very strong, and it is defended by good fortifications. Though the city is small, its suburbs are very extensive. Before the year 1758, there were in the town and fort about two hundred houses, an old mansion house, and a church, in which the Calvinists used to perform divine service; together with a Lutheran parish church, the garrison church, three arsenals, one salt house, and three magazines. There were also a church and two hospitals in the suburbs; but in the above year, the Russians setting the town on fire by means

means of bombs and red-hot bullets, it was reduced to a heap of ruins. The fortifications, however, held out against all their attempts, and on the approach of the king of Prussia, the Russians precipitately raised the siege.

The other towns in the circles just mentioned are inconsiderable, and we shall not trouble our readers with describing a number of places, none of which have any thing remarkable.

We shall now proceed to the Ucker Mark, which to the north and east is bounded by Pomerania, and the New Mark, being for the most part separated from the former by the Welse and the Rando, and from the latter by the river Oder; to the south and west it is bounded by the Middle Mark, and the duchy of Mecklenburg. Its greatest extent is about sixty-one miles in length, and fifty-two in breadth. This province was anciently called Uckerland, or simply the Ucker, which name is doubtless received from the lake and river Ucker. This lake, which is the largest in all the electoral Mark, extends about nine miles in length, and the river of the same name issues from it at Prenzlö.

The greatest part of this province is very fertile; for the inhabitants have so improved the soil, as to be able almost every year to export several thousand lasts of all kinds of grain, with which it particularly supplies Berlin. The parts adjoining to the rivers have good meadow grounds; but in other places the graziers is so inconsiderable, that a great number of horses and black cattle are bought up by the inhabitants in Pomerania and Poland. The country, however, abounds in sheep, which turn to good account. It also produces fruit, hops, and honey, with plenty of tobacco; but in some places the inhabitants are in great want of fuel, with which they are partly supplied from the neighbouring districts; but other parts abound in fine woods of oak, beech, and pine.

The principal court of judicature in the Ucker Mark, to which appeals lie from the towns and courts of the nobility, is held at Prenzlö. This court consists of a president and four assessors, two of whom are noblemen, and two commoners. The three first are constantly chosen out of the ancient families of the Ucker Mark, and of the two latter, one is always first burgomaster of Prenzlö.

The Ucker Mark is divided into two circles, in which are nineteen cities, besides castles and market-towns, and the villages are computed at three hundred seventy-five.

The principal place in this Mark is Prenzlö, the capital of the country, which is seated in a very fruitful plain, on the lake and river Ucker, and is large, well built, with straight broad streets, and is divided into the Old and New Town. The revenues arising to the corporation from the city mills, its several farms, and large woods, are considerable. There is a numerous French colony settled here, whose judge is invested with power over all the French colonies in the Ucker Mark. This city formerly contained three convents, two of which have been given to noblemen, and the third converted into an alms-house. It has at present six churches, that is, three parochial churches, in the Old City, one in the New City, a church of German Calvinists, and one of French protestants. Here is also a good Latin school, and the city carries on a very considerable trade in cattle, corn, and tobacco; for the last of which it is particularly famous, as it is also for its manufacture of cloth.

The next town we shall mention is Templin, which is situated on the lake Dolgen, and contains an ecclesiastical inspection. In 1735, it was totally consumed by fire, but has been re-built to very great advantage: its streets being now broad and straight, and its houses uniform. It has a spacious market-place, which forms a regular square, and it is one of the most beautiful towns in all the Mark. It carries on a large trade in timber, which is greatly promoted by means of a canal newly made, to form a communication with several bodies of water, particularly with the lake of Fahr, which is about seven English miles in length.

The Old Mark is bounded towards the east by the Elbe, which separates it from Prignitz, and the duchy of Magdeburg; on the south, and part of the west, by the latter; and on the other part by the duchy of Lunenburg, extending nine German miles from east to west, and eleven from north to south.

This country has in many parts a fat clay soil; but in some places is sandy or stony; yet in general it may be styled a fertile country; indeed considerable morasses and waste grounds have been rendered fruitful, by forming of ditches and canals, by which means their pasturage and breed of cattle have been considerably improved. This Mark is computed to have at present fourteen small towns, five hundred sixty-four villages, and ten manors.

The supreme tribunal of the Old Mark is seated at Stendal, and the provincial captain is president of that court. The principal towns in this district are,

Stendal, the capital of this mark, which is seated on the Uchte, in a plain surrounded on all sides by mountains. It is divided into four parishes, which have four principal churches, among which is the cathedral of St. Nicholas. The town-school is in a building that was once a Franciscan monastery. The cloister of St. Catharine was formerly supplied with Benedictine nuns, and that of St. Anne with nuns of the order of St. Francis. After the reformation these cloisters were preserved, but came over to the Protestant religion, and over each of them was set a Domina. This place was formerly one of the Hanse towns, and carried on a great manufacture of woollen cloth. The French refugees who have settled here, have since the loss of that trade, introduced several manufactures, and have a tribunal of their own.

Saltzwedel, is a town seated on the Jeeze, in a low and marshy soil, and consists of the Old and New Town, each of which has its separate limits, gates, churches, schools, and magistracy. In the Old Town is the church of St. Mary, in which was formerly a provostship; but it is at present the superintendency of the spiritual inspection of Saltzwedel. Two churches, both of which belonged to cloisters that formerly stood here, are in a good condition. The principal subsistence of the inhabitants consists in the brewing of beer, the making of linen cloth of various sorts, and the manufactures of serge, frieze, and stockings, and a brisk trade is carried on here.

The last division we have to mention in the marquise of Brandenburg is the Prignitz, which terminates on the Elbe and Havel, the duchy of Mecklenburg and the Middle Mark, and is ten German miles and a half in length, and seven and a half in breadth, and contains seven circles, in which are eleven towns, and two hundred forty-six villages. The principal places in this district are,

Perlberg, the capital of the province, is situated on the Stepenitz, which here divides itself into two branches, one of which passes by the town; but the other dividing itself again runs in two streams through the center of the town. Perlberg contains about three hundred and seventy dwelling houses. At the principal church resides the inspector of the spiritual inspection of Perlberg. Near the hospital of the Holy Ghost is a small church, with a peculiar preacher and catechist. The inhabitants draw their principal subsistence from agriculture and the arts.

The Havelberg is seated on the Havel, by which it is surrounded, and rendered an island, to which there is no other passage than by three draw-bridges. A long bridge leads to the cathedral, and the hills situated beyond the Havel. Here was an ancient bishopric founded in the year 946, and the last of the bishops was the elector Joachim Frederic, no bishop being ever elected to succeed in his place; but the chapter still continues, and on the members of it king Frederic II. conferred, in the year 1755, a peculiar distinction and chapter cross of gold enamelled with purple, terminating in eight points. On the right side of it is seen the Prussian eagle, and on the four corners the letters F. R.; but on the other side is a representation of the virgin Mary, the patroness of the chapter, with the infant Jesus. This cross is worn pendant at a white watered ribbon terminated with purple.

purple. To this foundation belong three manors. A great quantity of brandy is distilled in this town, and many stockings knit. Here are also many fishermen, and boats for the Elbe are built at this place.

SECT. XII.

Of the Dutchy of POMERANIA.

Its Situation, Produce, Rivers, and Lakes. The Number of the Inhabitants, their Religion and Government; with the Division of the Country.

POMERANIA is bounded on the east by Polish Prussia; on the south by Poland, the New Mark and Ucker Mark; on the west by the Dutchy of Mecklenburg; and on the north by the Baltic. Its length along that sea is about two hundred eighty-five miles, and its breadth from thirty-eight to sixty-one. It was formerly of a much greater extent, reaching eastward as far as the Vistula, and southward including part of the New and Ucker Mark; while to the west it took in a part of the present dutchy of Mecklenburg.

The country is level, and of the few hills in it, that of Chollenberg is the principal. The soil is, indeed, in some parts sandy, but in most places it is pretty close and good; so that the inhabitants not only raise a sufficient quantity of wheat, rye, barley, and oats, but export a great deal. They likewise cultivate buckwheat, vetches, turnips, peas and beans, to great advantage, and in some parts millet, flax, and hemp. It also produces a sufficient quantity of fruit, and foreign esculent plants would likewise thrive here. In several parts of the country are fine heaths and forests, and among the latter, several are covered with oaks. The wood of these forests is not only used for fuel and the building of houses and vessels, but also serves for making tar and charcoal.

Those parts of the country that are improper for tillage, are made use of for grazing, which is here very considerable. The geese of this country are famous for their largeness, and in general the dried Pomeranian geese, hams, sausages, and salmon, are esteemed the best in all Germany.

In Hither Pomerania are some mineral and salt springs. The largest river in Pomerania is the Oder, which the Pomeranians call the Ader. This river forms three lakes below Stettin, after which it discharges itself into the Frischen Haff.

The other rivers of note are the Reckenitz, which is the boundary of Pomerania towards Mecklenburg. The Peene, which comes from the dutchy of Mecklenburg, and at last, after forming two lakes, falls into the Baltic. The Ucker has its source in the Ucker Mark, and, being joined by the Rando, pursues its course into the Frischen-haff. The Ihna rises in the borders of the New Mark, and dividing into two branches, which are again united near Stargard, becomes navigable, and at last discharges itself into the lake of Dam. The Rega, likewise rises in the New Mark, and after becoming navigable, and receiving the Mulso, enters the Baltic. The Persante issues out of the lake of Pakuvet, becomes navigable at Belgard, and being joined by the Raduye, forms a pretty good harbour: it is remarkable that an island in the midst of this river affords rich salt springs. The Wipper rises out of the Gewipp, receives the Grabo, and then becoming navigable, discharges itself into the Baltic. The Lebe rises near Lauenburg, and near Lebe forms the lake of that name, which is about three German miles in length, and discharges itself thro' a narrow outlet into the Baltic.

Besides the above lakes there are many others, especially in Hither Pomerania, several of which are pretty large. These lakes, as well as the rivers, abound in fish, and particularly great quantities of salmon, which are dried and exported to distant parts.

The situation of this country on the Baltic is very advantageous for navigation, though the coast of Pomerania, especially about the Oder, is very dangerous. Amber is found on the coasts of Hither Pomerania, but not in such quantities as on those of Prussia.

With respect to the number of the inhabitants, a judgment may be formed by that of the burials, which, taken one year with another, have amounted to about twelve thousand; whence the number of the living may be computed at about four hundred and sixty thousand. The greatest part of the inhabitants are of the Lutheran religion, tho' in some parts there are Calvinists, and in others Papists. The Lutheran churches are under the inspection of provosts, who are subordinate to the general superintendants.

The whole dutchy of Pomerania consist of sixty-eight towns, which are divided into immediate and mediate. The former of these are immediately under the supreme tribunals of the country, choose their own magistrates, and the governing burgomasters of the three capital towns of every province sit in the diets of the country. On the other hand, the mediate cities are either under the king's agents or noblemen, take the oath of fidelity and allegiance to their lords and patrons, attend their courts, and have the processes of their townsmen on an appeal moved from their magistracy to the courts held by those agents, or the noblemen. Their magistrates are likewise appointed by their lords, and confirmed by the regency.

Mr. Busching observes, that the electoral-house of Brandenburg had the nearest claim to Pomerania, when the family of the dukes became extinct, in 1637; but, at the treaty of Westphalia, all the Hither Pomerania, with the principality of Rugen and Farther Pomerania, Stettin, Garz, Dam, Golnau, the island of Wollin, the Oder, and the Frischen-hoff, were assigned to Sweden; all the elector of Brandenburg had was the remainder of Hither Pomerania, with the diocese of Cammin, which was changed into a temporal principality. Sweden likewise obtained the reversion of the Brandenburg part of Pomerania, on the failure of the male line of that house. But the crown of Sweden by the northern war, and the peace of Stockholm in 1720, lost the greatest part of Hither Pomerania, ceding for ever to Frederic William king of Prussia the city of Stettin, with the whole country between the Oder and the Peene; as also the islands of Wollin and Usedom.

The crown of Sweden appoints a governor general, who resides at Stralsund, over Swedish Pomerania; and in that city is kept the regency, war-office, and court of appeals; but the highest court of appeals in Swedish Anterior Pomerania is held at Wismar.

The Prussian regency has its seat at Old Stettin, where are likewise kept the war and domain-offices, with the civil and criminal court of justice for both the Pomeranias. The whole revenue of both the Swedish Pomeranias amounted in the year 1753 only to one hundred and twenty-four thousand rixdollars, though Prussian Pomerania annually brings in the sum of eight hundred thousand.

With respect to the division of Pomerania into Anterior and Ulterior, or Hither and Farther Pomerania, it has not always been the same; but at present the country situated between the Reckenitz and the Oder is usually filed Anterior; as the country between the Oder and Polish Prussia bears the name of Pomerania Ulterior, and consequently the Oder must be considered as the boundary between them. We shall begin with Pomerania Ulterior, on account of its being situated to the east, and its being subject to the prince part of whose dominions we have last described.

SECT. XIII.

Of Pomerania Ulterior, and that Part of Pomerania Anterior which is subject to the King of Prussia; with a concise Account of the principal Towns contained in each; and of the Islands Usedom and Wollin.

THE Farther Pomerania, including the principality of Cammin, belongs entirely to Prussia, and contains a considerable number of towns, the principal of which are the following:

Stargard, also called New Stargard, the capital of all Farther Pomerania, is seated on the Ihna, by means of which it has a free communication with the Baltic, in

in the midst of a country that produces plenty of corn; is an immediate town, large and well built. The church of St. Mary is thought to have the highest roof in all Germany; besides this, there are several other churches belonging to the Lutherans, and the German and French Calvinists. There is here a college founded in 1631, and a free-school kept in a suppressed convent; and it has several good manufactures. This town was taken by the Russians in the year 1758.

Cammin, a sea-port town, seated on the eastern mouth of the river Oder, opposite to the isle of Wollin, in the fifty-fourth degree ten minutes latitude, and the fifteenth degree two minutes east longitude. This place was always in mean circumstances, till it became subject to the Prussian government, when it rose to such prosperity as to make a very good figure, and to have handsome suburbs. This is chiefly owing to its navigation, fishery, and agriculture. The bishopric of Cammin was, by the treaty of Westphalia, changed into a temporal principality, and given to the electoral house of Brandenburg; it was at the same time agreed, that on the decease of the canons then living, the electoral family should be at liberty to abolish the chapter; but this chapter still subsists, and is kept at the town. Near the cathedral stands a school, besides which Cammin contains a provostship and a foundation for ladies.

The principality of Cammin derives its origin from the suppressed bishopric of that city; for at the peace of Westphalia the bishopric was converted into a temporal principality of the empire, and this intitled the electoral house of Brandenburg to a seat and vote for this principality both in the circular and imperial diets. The most remarkable places in this principality are,

Colberg, an immediate and well fortified town, seated on the Persante, which, at a small distance, falls into the Baltic, and forms the convenient harbour of Munde. This town is the metropolis of the principality; it is pretty large, and, from its woollen and linen manufactures, its trade with Poland, and its numerous shipping, is in a flourishing condition. It has a collegiate church, to which belongs a provost, a dean, a chanter, and rector; with a religious foundation for young ladies in the building that was formerly the ducal palace: it has also three other churches, and a Latin school. In the neighbourhood are caught a great number of salmon and young lampreys, and in a meadow surrounded by the Persante are some salt springs: little salt, however, is made on account of the scarcity of fuel, which the inhabitants convey hither by means of the Persante, at a very great expence. In 1758 this town was bombarded by the Russians, but without effect.

The last town we shall mention in Farther Pomerania is Coslin, which is seated ten miles to the east of Colberg, on the river Nisebec. In the times of popery here was an image of the Virgin Mary, which drew hither many pilgrims. In 1504 Coslin was entirely destroyed by fire, and in 1718 the greatest part of it was again consumed; but since this calamity it has been rebuilt to advantage, particularly the large square market-place, which is very handsome, the houses being all two stories, and of an equal height. In the center stands a stone statue of Frederic-William, erected in 1724, according to the inscription, in grateful remembrance of the royal munificence displayed in rebuilding the town.

The principal places in Anterior Pomerania subject to the king of Prussia are the following:

Stettin, Stetin, or Old Stettin, is seated on an eminence near the river Oder, which is here divided into four branches, and stands in the fifty-third degree thirty-six minutes latitude, and in the fourteenth degree ninety-six minutes east longitude. This city is large, handsome, well fortified, and the capital of the Prussian Anterior Pomerania; as also the residence of the regency, both for the Anterior and Ulterior Pomerania. It has a college of physicians, with a board of health, a chamber of commerce instituted in 1755, a royal seminary, and a general superintendency of the Hither and Farther Pomerania. It has a castle, in which the above colleges meet, and an arsenal; together with the church of St. Otten, which was formerly collegiate; the cathedral of St. Mary, to which belong very considerable estates; five parish churches, a French Calvinist meeting, and a mass-house.

It has also a dock for the building of ships, with a court of admiralty, and has not only various manufactures, but the inhabitants carry on a very great foreign trade. It exports salt and fresh fish, naval stores, as planks, masts, and other wood, for building and fuel; pipe-staves, clapboards, canvas, dimity, flannel, linen yarn, and cloth; starch, arsenic, glass, antimony, lapis caliminaris, madder, pot-ash, soap, tobacco, honey, wax, rosin, corn, and many other articles to England, Holland, France, Spain, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Prussia, Dantzic, Mecklenburg, Lubec, and Hamburg. It is, in short, the centre for exchanging the commodities of Poland and Germany with those of the Baltic.

Anclam is seated in a fertile country on the river Peene, having on the one side of it marshes and meadows, with a dyke of stone above a mile in length, and on the other deep moats and walls. This town contains two parish churches, enjoys a good trade both by land and water, and has prospered greatly under the Prussian government. In 1757 and 1758, it fell several times into the hands of the Swedes: for the other side of the river being within the Swedish territories, the centinels of that nation are posted very near it. It is the capital of a circle to which it gives name, that is near three German miles in length, and contains seventeen villages. To it belongs Anclam ferry, on the Frischen Haff, where is a fort, to which all the ships that pass by pay a toll.

The island of Usedom, which commands the navigation of the Peene, the Ucker, and the Oder, is bounded on the north by the Baltic; on the east by the streight called the Swin, which separates it from the island of Wollin; on the south by the Frischen Haff; and on the west by the Achter water, which is famous for its plenty of fish. This island is about five German miles in length; but in some parts is very narrow, and where widest is only between three or four miles broad. It is seated in the fifty-fourth degree north latitude; and contains the following places. Usedom, a small immediate town, that has an old castle. Penemunder-Schanze, situated on the north point of the island, which it entirely commands. The Swin-Schanze, on the south east part of the island, which was destroyed by the Swedes in the year 1757; but a new town has since been built. The island also contains several villages.

The island of Wollin, is bounded by the Baltic Sea on the north; by a streight called Wollin-Water, or Diveno to the east; by the Frischen-Haff to the south; and by the passage of the Swin on the west. This island is frequently in danger of being overflowed, and the sea winds are continually throwing up against it drifts of sand. It is about twenty English miles in circumference, and produces excellent cattle, with plenty of game and fish. On this island stands Wollin, an immediate town, situated on the waters to which it gives name, and has a bridge over it leading to Anterior Pomerania. There are also ten or twelve villages on the island.

S E C T. XIV.

Of the island of Rugen, and the rest of that part of Anterior Pomerania subject to Sweden, with the principal Places contained in each.

THE island of Rugen is seated in the Baltic, about two miles and a half from the continent, and was antiently celebrated for the courage of the Rugii its antient inhabitants, from whom it takes its name. It formerly extended as far to the east as Ruden, which is now at three leagues distance; it being parted from it by a violent tempest in the beginning of the fourteenth century, when the sea drowned a great part of the island. It is, however, still thirty miles long, and nearly the same broad; but so full of creeks and peninsulas, that scarce any part of it is above three miles from the sea; and one creek on the east, runs almost through to the west side: but the peninsulas are so guarded by rocks, as to be no longer in danger from inundations.

The soil here is so fruitful in corn, that this island is called the granary of Stralsund, some thousand lasts being annually shipped from hence for that city. There are likewise bred abundance of cattle in the island, which likewise yields prodigious plenty of fish; but is supplied with fuel from Pomerania, though some places afford turf.

Rugen contains twenty-seven parishes, which are divided into four provostships. The principal town in the island is Burgen, which is situated in the middle of it, and is the seat of the provincial court of justice, a prefecture, and a provostship: it is likewise the residence of a governor, and the place where the nobles hold their assemblies. In it is a protestant convent for young ladies, consisting of a prioress and eleven sisters. This convent has likewise two curators belonging to it, who are nobles, one of whom is always the governor. This town has frequently suffered by fire, particularly in the years 1715, and 1726.

Near this island there are several others, particularly Ruden, which is situated amidst shoals and sand banks, and has a castle. The island of Unmanz, which lies to the west of Rugen, and the island of Hiddensee or Hiddenso, which also lies to the west of Rugen, and is about ten miles in length, though in most places it is not above two miles broad. The soil is sandy, and affords little corn.

We shall now return to the continent of Swedish Pomerania, the principal place in which is,

Stralsund, the capital, which is a free city, that lies on a strait of the sea opposite to the island of Rugen, in the fifty-fourth degree twenty-six minutes latitude, and the thirteenth degree twenty-two minutes east longitude. It derives its name from the narrow Sund or Strait that lies between it and the little island of Danholm, and is very strong, it having very good fortifications. On the land-side are bulwarks and fish-ponds two musket-shot in breadth, besides large ditches and marshes, only passable by four causeways, from four gates all fortified. It has an excellent haven, where ships come up into the very heart of the town; so that it has had a considerable trade both by sea and land. Here are great quantities of honey, wax, tar, pitch, rosin, hides, tallow, linen, and a good sort of canvas, which is made here. The streets are broad, and the houses pretty uniform. This city is the residence of the king's governor general of the regency, and is the place where the states of Swedish Pomerania hold their meetings. It has also its own consistory and a seminary. Among its citizens, who form a numerous body, are many substantial merchants. In 1714 Charles XII. king of Sweden, ennobled its magistracy, and in 1720 king Frederic I. extended this honour even to the members of the council. It was formerly one of the principal Hanse-towns; but it has suffered greatly by the ravages of war. In 1628, it held out a siege against the Imperialists under general Wallenstein; but in 1678, was so furiously bombarded by Frederic William elector of Brandenburg, that it surrendered on the third day of the siege, after the destruction of about eighteen hundred houses; and in 1715 was taken by a combined army of Russians, Danes, and Brandenburgers.

SECT. XV.

Of the Principality of ANHALT.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Produce, and Rivers: the Religion of the Inhabitants; the States of the Country: with a concise Account of the Princes of Anhalt, their Titles, and Arms.

THIS principality is bounded on the north-east by the mark of Brandenburg; on the east by the electorate of Saxony; on the south by Misnia; on the south-west by the county of Mansfeld; and on the north-west and north by the duchy of Brunswick, the principality of Halberstadt, and the duchy of Magdeburg. It is remarkable that at Haderholz, near Heidelberg, the territories of Brunswick, Anhalt, and Stolberg meet in such a manner, that the three sovereigns may sit at the same table, and each be in his own dominions. This principality is sixty-six miles in length, and in breadth about eighteen, though in some places more.

On the forest of Hartz the air is fresh and healthy, but rather too cold. The harvest is later than in other places, but the plains enjoy a milder air, though in some places they are not so healthy as in the high lands. The soil is various: for in the districts of Cothen and Bernburg the earth is compact and fat, and particularly fertile in wheat and barley; while the light and sandy countries of

Deßau and Zerbst are adapted to rye; but they have some tracts of a firmer texture. Tobacco is also planted in the country of Deßau; the land every where produces not only plenty of culinary and other herbs, but also fruits; though on the Hartz the latter never arrive to their proper ripeness. Here are likewise hop-grounds and vineyards; but the former answer better than the latter. In Cothen and Bernburg fuel is scarce; but Zerbst and Deßau are plentifully provided with it, particularly the Hartz, where are fine woods of oak, beech, poplars, elms, limes, &c. and in general it is a fine sporting country. The mines in the Hartz yield silver, copper, lead, iron, sulphur, vitriol, coals, allum, salt-petre, and other minerals.

The graziery in this principality also varies according to the difference of the soil, and the rivers yield excellent fish.

The rivers of Anhalt are the Elbe, which traverses the center of this principality; the Milde, or Mulde, which runs into the Elbe; the Saale, into which the Wipper discharges itself; the Seike, which falls into the Bude, while the last discharges itself into the Saale and some others. The lake of Gaterleben, which was nine miles in length, and in some places about four broad, has been drained, and converted into corn land and pastures.

Christianity was introduced into this country in the ninth century, and the Reformation began to take place in the diocese of Gernrode in the year 1521, and spread itself with a swift progress over the whole country. The possessions belonging to the monasteries were employed in augmenting the revenues of the alms-houses and churches, in the founding of schools, and the establishment of stipends and exhibitions. The whole country professed Lutheranism till the year 1596, when the Calvinist religion was introduced, and the several churches, both in the towns and villages, in the patronage of the sovereign, were filled with Calvinist ministers. The parishioners, however, were allowed to enjoy their own opinion, and both the nobles and their vassals were permitted the free exercise of the Lutheran worship. By virtue of a compact made in 1679, the Lutherans are allowed to erect new churches. The Zerbst line, with the greatest part of its subjects, professes Lutheranism; but the three other lines are of the church of Calvin, which is the established religion in their respective territories.

In the whole principality are nineteen towns, and two boroughs. For the instruction of youth in literature, the towns are endowed with Latin schools, and there is an university at Zerbst which belongs in common to all the princes of Anhalt.

The states of the country are composed of the nobility, who are very numerous, and likewise of the towns: out of the former are chosen a sub-director and three provincial counsellors, who, with the four senior burgomasters of the four residentiary towns, form the lesser committee. The great committee consists of twenty persons, that is twelve noblemen and eight burgomasters, two out of every residentiary town. Besides these there is a commissioner of the revenue, who is assisted by a secretary and syndic. The diets are assembled in the name of the four several princes of the house of Anhalt, who also direct the proceedings. They generally meet in the residentiary town, where the senior of the princely house resides, though upon occasion another place may be chosen.

The four reigning princes of Anhalt are all descended from the same family, who consider Joachim Ernest II. as the founder of the present house of Anhalt, who dying in 1586 left seven sons, of whom the third and fourth died without heirs, and Augustus IV. lived in retirement at Plotzkau, without requiring any part of his father's lands; but the four other brothers divided their father's territories into four parts, prince John George I. obtaining Deßau, prince Christian I. Bernburg, prince Rodolphus Zerbst, and prince Lewis Cothen. The son of the last of these princes dying in 1665 without heirs, his share of the country was by the other three lines conferred upon Leberecht and Immanuel, sons to the above-mentioned prince of Plotzkau, who, on their side, ceded Plotzkau to Bernburg. The right of primogeniture takes place in all these four lines.

The titles of these sovereigns are, princes of Anhalt; dukes of Saxony, Engern, and Westphalia; counts of Ascania;

Afcania; lords of Bernburg and Zerbſt. The Deſſau line likewise inſerts in its titles the lordſhip of Gropzigk, and the Zerbſt line thoſe of Zever and Kniphaufen.

The arms for Anhalt conſiſt of nine fields: in the dexter chief point is argent, a bear, with a collar, ſable and or, and a crown or, placed paſſant, on four turrets gules, on a wall with a gate, ſignifying the antient bearings. In the ſecond are five pales ſable, for the lordſhip of Barenſtadt. In the third chequée argent and ſable. In the fourth chequée or and gules, denoting the county of Walderſee. The fifth argent an eagle counter-changed, the claws and bill or, winged with a ſemi-circle of the ſame in a field argent; as likewiſe five pales and a wreath of rue, in a field or, and in this field the Saxon and Brandenburg arms are mutually quartered, to expreſs their common origin. In the ſixth azure, are two bendlets from the left to the right for the county of Warmſdorf. In the ſeventh an eagle argent, in a field azure for the county of Mulingen. The eighth is pure gules, and termed the bloody banner, or bloody ſhield, with the regalia coat. In the ninth is a bear ſable, with a collar argent, ſtanding on a wall gules, with a gate ſable, and three battlements gules, to denote the lordſhip of Bernburg.

Since the year 1689, when the dutchy of Saxe Lauenberg became vacant, the houſe of Anhalt having a claim to it, have quartered three other ſhields with their arms: firſt the arms of Saxony, conſiſting of five pales, with a wreath of rue, to denote the dutchy of Saxony. The ſecond an eagle diſplayed and crowned or, in a field azure, for the palatinate of Saxony. The third three beetles horns or, a ſemi-circle gules, in a field argent, for the antient county of Bree. The Zerbſt line alſo bears three particular ſhields, a lion or, for the lordſhip of Zever; a lion ſable, in a field or, for the lordſhip of Kniphaufen; and a hound's head, with a collar or, placed between two wings argent, in a field azure, for the bailiwick of Walter-Nienburg.

All the four reigning lines enjoy collectively for the principality of Anhalt, both in the college of princes at the diet of the empire, and in the diets of Upper Saxony, only one vote; but the antient abbey of Gernrode intitles them to another in both thoſe aſſemblies.

Each of the reigning lines has its regency, exchequer, and conſistory. The annual revenue of the whole principality of Anhalt to the four reigning lines, is eſtimated at between five and fix hundred thouſand rixdollars.

We ſhall now give a particular deſcription of the principal places in the ſeveral parts belonging to each line: and ſhall only firſt obſerve, that, according to a very good author, the people of theſe four little independent sovereignties, in the opinion of the Saxons, live in the land of milk and honey; the princes poſſeſs lands ſufficient for their expences, and the taxes laid on the people are very inconfiderable. The ſecurity with which a perſon travels in this part of the world is very extraordinary. The people are ſober, and the duties of morality are taught not only by the miniſters, but by parents; whence thefts and robberies, in time of peace, are hardly known.

S E C T. XVI.

The principal Places in the Principalities of Deſſau, Bernburg, Cothen, and Zerbſt.

AS we have already deſcribed the country of Anhalt in general, and given ſome account of the conſtitution, nothing remains but to take notice of the principal places in the four ſeveral diviſions ſubject to its four princes, and we ſhall begin with Anhalt-Deſſau, which is divided into ſix bailiwicks; the principal places in which are,

Deſſau, the reſidence of the prince, which is ſituated in a delightful plain on the river Mulde, which, at a ſmall diſtance from the town, runs into the Elbe. It conſiſts of the town particularly called Deſſau, the New Town on the north ſide, the ſuburb called the Sand, another before the Mulde gate, and the Water Town on the other ſide of the Mulde. Beſides the prince's palace, which is a ſtately building, it has two Calviniſt churches, and one belonging to the Lutherans, with a grammar ſchool, an orphan houſe, and two alms-houſes. There

are here ſome good manufactures of cloth, ſtockings, and hats. In 1467 this town was entirely deſtroyed by fire.

Oranienbaum, a regular and pretty little town agreeably ſeated on the ſpot where formerly ſtood a village. Henrietta-Catharine, princeſs of Orange, and conſort to John-George II. in 1686, built a ſuperb villa of ſtone at this place, and named it Oranienbaum; which, with the other buildings belonging to it, is ſurrounded with a moat. Its garden is extremely beautiful. She afterwards raiſed the village to a town, and permitted new houſes to be built on a regular plan with the former.

To the houſe of Anhalt-Deſſau belongs alſo a conſiderable tract of land in the kingdom of Prussia.

Anhalt-Bernburg contains eight bailiwicks, the principal places in which are,

Bernburg, the capital and reſidence of the prince. This city is ſeated on the river Saale, or Sala, over which it has a handsome bridge of free-ſtone. This is a place of great antiquity, and conſiſts properly of three diſtinct towns. On the land ſide it is encompassed with walls and moats, and, beſides its magiſtracy, has a governor appointed by the prince, who preſides in the ſupreme court of juſtice. In the Old Town ſtands two churches, with a ſchool, the town-houſe, and the prince's ſecretary-office. A part of Bernburg, called Vordenburg, ſtands on a hill on the other ſide of the Saale, and is reckoned the third part of it, though it is under a diſtinct magiſtracy, conſtitution, and privileges. The church in this part ſerves both for the caſtle and court. The caſtle is one of the moſt antient, and at the ſame time the moſt celebrated fortrefs in the principality of Anhalt. It ſtands on a high rock, and is ſurrounded with a deep and lined moat; and below it runs the Saale, on which ſtands the noble ſtone sluice erected in 1696 by prince Victor Amadeus. The Auguſtine convent in this place was, at the Reformation, converted into an hospital and poor-houſe. To the north of the New Town lies the ſuburb of Waldau, in which is one church.

Hartzgerode derived its name from its being ſituated at the entrance of the foreſt of Hartz. Both the walls and houſes are built of a motley kind of marble, in which this country abounds. On its eaſt ſide prince William, in 1601, erected a new town, which, in 1705, was called Auguſtenſtadt; and oppoſite to it is a ſuburb called the Liberty, which has an hospital at the end of it. On the north ſide is the New Mine Town called Wilhelmſtadt.

Wilhelmshof, a houſe and farm belonging to the prince, lies in the foreſt not far from Hartzgerode: it is an elegant ſtructure, moſt delightfully ſituated. The building was compleated in 1582, and conſiſts of two ſtories. Farther in the foreſt, on a high and ſteep mountain, are to be ſeen ſome ruins of the antient caſtle of Anhalt, which are now overgrown with buſhes.

The abbey of Gernrode was originally a free temporal convent for ladies, founded in the year 960, and richly endowed: but the houſe of Anhalt reſuming it in 1624, it was confirmed in its poſſeſſions by the treaty of Weſtphalia; and by virtue of it, is intitled to a ſeat and voice among the prelates of the Rhine, both in the imperial diet, and that of the circle of Upper Saxony. The abbey itſelf is converted into a manſion-houſe. The town of Gernrode was at firſt only a village; but, on the additions made to the wealth of the abbey, the inhabitants, whoſe number increaſed, obtained ſeveral immunities and privileges. Divine worſhip is performed in the abbey church, that belonging to the town being for the moſt part uſed only at funerals.

The prince reſides in the palace of Schaumburg, which is ſituated in the circle of the Upper Rhine.

The principality of Anhalt-Cothen conſiſts of four bailiwicks, the principal town in which is,

Cothen, the reſidence of the prince, is ſituated on the little river Zitaſ, and conſiſts of the Old and New Town, which were incorporated in 1620. It is a conſiderable place, the inhabitants amounting to about fifteen thouſand. They have three churches, a Calviniſt and Lutheran orphan-houſe, and each has a free ſchool; among the other public buildings is an hospital. In this town the prince of Anhalt-Cothen has a palace. He keeps a body of two hundred and fifty men, who are well clothed; and

and his revenues, according to Mr. Hanway, are computed at one hundred and sixty thousand dollars.

We now come to the principality of Anhalt-Zerbst, which contains seven bailiwicks, the principal places in which are,

Zerbst, the residence of the prince, and the largest and handsomest town in all Anhalt. The prince's palace is very magnificent. In the town are two Lutheran churches, one belonging to the Calvinists, and an university common to all the princes of Anhalt, which has three Calvinist and one Lutheran professor; besides which here is also a Lutheran and Calvinist school. The beer brewed here, with its manufactures of gold and silver lace, are very profitable articles, though the first was formerly more esteemed than it is at present.

The prince of Anhalt Zerbst is also proprietor of the lordship of Zevee, in the circle of Westphalia.

We shall conclude this section with a concise account of the abbey and town of Quedlinburg, and the abbey of Walkenried.

The abbey of Quedlinburg was founded between the years 932 and 936, by king Henry I. and enriched by his cousin Matilda; but in 1539 embraced Lutheranism. It at present consists of four dignitaries, viz. the lady abbess and three others, distinguished by the titles of provost, dean, and canon. The abbess is a princess of the empire, and at the diet enjoys both a seat and voice on the bench of the prelates of the Rhine, as she likewise does in the diets of Upper Saxony.

The arms of the abbey are two carving knives or, placed in a saltire cross, with handles of the same in a field gules.

Antiently the house of Anhalt held the patronage or government of Quedlinburg as a fief from the abbey; and it afterwards continued a long time hereditary in the house of Saxony, by which it was at length transferred to the house of Brandenburg for the sum of three hundred thousand rixdollars; and, by virtue of an agreement concluded in 1574, between the elector Augustus and the abbess Elizabeth, no abbess, nor any other dignitary, is to be chosen without the knowledge of the patron.

The town of Quedlinburg, which belongs to the abbey, is situated on both sides the Bode, and has a court of justice dependent on the abbey, with a particular magistracy divided into two councils. The abbess, with the chapter, lives on a hill at the cathedral of St. Servatius. In the town are six churches, and the hospital of the Holy Ghost; and without the town is the hospital of St. Anne, and a college that was formerly a Franciscan monastery; and near the town stands also the church of St. Wipert.

Here is also the free abbey of Walkenried, which was of the Cistercian order, and possessed of several estates; but in 1546 the abbot introduced the Lutheran doctrine and service; but, at the peace of Westphalia, the patronage of the abbey was abolished, and it was rendered an hereditary fief, which is now subject to the prince of Brunswick Wolfenbüttele.

S E C T. XVII.

The Principalities of Saxe Weimar, Eisenach, and Gotha; with the principal Places in each.

SAXE WEIMAR, which lies in Thuringia, extends along the Ilm, which, after traversing the whole length of this principality, loses itself in the Saale. Its length, taken in its utmost extent, is about twenty-six miles, and its greatest breadth twenty-three; but considerable parts of this principality are detached from the main body.

The duke of Saxe Weimar has two votes, both in the diet of the empire, and in that of Upper Saxony.

The principality is divided into thirteen bailiwicks, the principal towns in which are the following:

Weimar, or Weymar, the capital, and the residence of the prince, is seated in a valley by the river Ilm. The new palace, called Wilhelmsburg, is a very noble building, and contains the duke's valuable library, a cabinet

of medals, and a gallery of painting; and in it is a whispering-gallery, like that of St. Paul's, in London. The old castle, which has a bridge before it, is called the Red Palace. The town church has always for its minister the superintendant-general of the principality, and contains the hereditary vault of the princes. The second parish church is that of St. James; and here is a seminary founded by duke William Ernest.

In the neighbourhood of this city is Belvedere, a seat of the princes, built by duke Ernest Augustus, which has very beautiful gardens, and a very fine greenhouse.

The principality of Eisenach, which is subject to the duke of Saxe Weimar, also lies in Thuringia, extending chiefly along the Worra and the frontiers of Hesse. The face of the country is mountainous and woody, and it bears so little grain, that the inhabitants are obliged to be supplied with a great deal of it from other places. However, the neighbourhood of Jena and some other tracts yield wine; it has also mines of copper, iron, vitriol and allum, and some salt-springs.

The inhabitants are Lutherans, and the duke of Saxe Weimar sits and votes in the diets of the empire and Upper Saxony as prince of Eisenach.

This principality is divided into nine districts, the principal towns in which are the following:

Eisenach, the capital of the principality, is seated on the Nesse, which here receives into it the Horfel. The prince's palace is a noble building. Here are the various colleges for the different branches of the government; besides an academy, a seminary for divans, and an orphan-house.

Jena, a town, situated on the Saale, or Sala, which washes it on the east and south sides. It lies in a pleasant vale, among hills that produce a great quantity of wine. The town forms an oblong square, and is surrounded with moats, walls, and high towers. There is here a celebrated university, in which is a very valuable library, an observatory, and physic-garden. There are several churches, and without the town are four suburbs: to the west lies a suburb before St. John's-gate, in which is a church and an orphan-house; eastward is a suburb before the Sala-gate; and northward is a suburb before the port, in which are the prince's gardens, ball-room, and other edifices; and to the southward lies a suburb without the Lober-gate. A delightful row of trees has been planted round the moats from the Lober to the Sala-gate, and from thence to the port.

The principality of Saxe Gotha, which lies to the southwest of that of Eisenach, abounds in grain and fruit; and in the southern division, which takes in a part of the forest of Thuringia, are several mine-works.

The rivers that rise in this principality are the Leina, which falls into the Nesse; the Apfelftatt, which runs into the Gera; the Nesse, which has its source in the territory of Erfurt, and traversing the principality of Gotha from east to west, discharges itself into the Werra, after it has received the Horfel, which also rises in this principality.

Gotha contains seven cities, five towns, and two hundred churches.

The established religion is that of Lutheranism, with respect to which, and the instruction of youth, there are some excellent regulations; particularly an inspector travels through the country, and makes enquiry into the state of the churches and schools.

The duke maintains two regiments, consisting of eight hundred men: of these one is quartered in the principality of Gotha, and the other in that of Altenburg. He also keeps a guard of a hundred and sixty soldiers, with a body of artillery.

The principality of Gotha is divided into twelve bailiwicks, the principal places in which are the following:

Gotha, the capital of the principality, is seated in a vale near the Leina, in the fifty-first degree twelve minutes latitude, and the tenth degree forty-one minutes east longitude. Canals, lined with stone, are drawn from that river through all the streets of the city, which is one of the best and handsomest towns in all Thuringia. Within the walls are nine hundred and six houses, besides many others

others which stand on the ramparts; and there are large suburbs. It has an hospital for the soldiers, with two schools for their children, and in the largest of the barracks the cadets are instructed in the several branches of the military art. Here is likewise a foundery for cannon and bells. Within the town is the bailiwick house, with two churches, a seminary, an alms-house for widows, and an orphan-house. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in woollen manufactures, as also in wood and beer, and besides the profits arising from agriculture, receive considerable advantage from its being the thoroughfare from Leipzig to Upper Germany.

On a hill above the town stands a fortified castle or palace, which affords an extensive prospect over the fertile plain. Here the sovereign, who is brother to the present princess dowager of Wales, and is one of our knights of the garter, keeps a splendid court. In this palace is a well provided armoury, with a very valuable library, which consists of about thirty thousand printed volumes, and two thousand manuscripts, and in the apartments belonging to it are the portraits of several persons eminent for their birth, high station, or learning. The cabinet of medals is said to be, next to those of the emperor, the king of France, the dukes of Florence and Parma, one of the most valuable in the whole world. The museum at Gotha is far from being contemptible. It contains a number of onyxes set in different kinds of work, which are valued at sixty thousand dollars, among which is one of admirable beauty, representing a man sitting with a spear in his hand, and a woman standing by him. The image of Lewis XIV. is to be seen here, cut out of a single amethyst. Here is a silver elephant on a pedestal of agate, with the caparisons of gold set with emeralds and diamonds; and among a multitude of other curiosities, are two or three earthen vases painted by Raphael, and a large copper bowl enamelled with black and white, ascribed to the same artist, which cost the duke ten thousand dollars. Here is also a good collection of pictures, the most remarkable of which are Paul Rubens, his mistress, and his disciple Vandyk, all painted in one piece by Rubens himself, a book in which Brugel the elder has exquisitely painted sixty-one portraits of persons of distinction, and a screen of seven large leaves, on which is painted by the same Brugel the most remarkable passages in the New Testament. Here is also a ring, in which is set a most curious watch. Among the works in ivory, are Augustus king of Poland on horseback, and fourteen hollow balls turned one within another. Here is a marshal's staff and a flageolet made of the cinnamon-tree; and a staff on which the passion of Christ is engraved with surprising minuteness; a landscape made entirely of corolines; the elevation of a palace, all of garden seeds, arranged with the nicest art; a gondola and crown both made of cloves.

There are also in the palace a church, in which is a very fine chapel, a mint, a laboratory for fire-works, and adjoining to it is a beautiful garden.

Without the gates is also Fredericsthal, a kind of banqueting-house, which is well worth seeing. Among the paintings in this last palace, is a large piece, representing the czar Peter on horseback, conducted by Mercury, Neptune, Fame, Courage and Plenty, with several other figures offering him gifts; and also a family history piece in four compartments, the first representing the carrying off the Saxon princes Ernest and Albert; the second, their rescue; the third, their magnificent reception at their return; and the fourth, the execution of the robbers.

The garden of the palace is small; but well laid out in walks, water-works, and parterres, adorned with busts and statues; among which are some good copies of the most celebrated pieces of antiquity. At the end of the garden is a delightful grotto, the pavement of which is variegated marble dug near Coburg; and the ceilings and walls are embellished with shells, ores, and figures in glass work. In the apartment of the second story are some curious paintings of flowers and vegetables. On one side of the grotto among several small jetteaus is the image of Neptune, and on the other that of Thetis.

Between Fredericsthal and the castle is a fine orangery, or green-house, kept in excellent order, where among a number of exotics are to be seen coffee and strawberry-trees.

S E C T. XVIII.

Of the Principalities of Saxe-Coburg, Altenburg, and Querfurt, with the most considerable Places in each.

THIS principality lies to the south-east of the forest of Thuringia, but belongs to Upper Saxony; to the north it terminates on the county of Schwartzburg, to the eastward on the diocese of Bamberg, to the southward on that of Wurtzburg, and to the westward on that of Henneberg. It is forty-three miles long, and sixteen where broadest.

The soil is mostly fertile; in the valleys along the rivers are fine pasture grounds, and the principal employment of the inhabitants consists in grazing and the breeding of cattle; it also produces a great deal of flax, and in the neighbourhood of Koningsberg are vineyards. The forests afford timber and wood for fuel. There are also mines of silver, copper, and iron; and there are here found pit-coal, gypsum, alabaster, and marble.

The river Itz or Itsch, which rises in the forest of Thuringia, traverses the country from north to south, and after receiving several little rivers, discharges itself into the Mayn. The Steinach, which has also its source here, and falls into the same river; and the Werra, which likewise rises in this principality, and flows into the county of Henneberg.

The inhabitants are almost all Lutherans, except a few Calvinists at Hildburghausen, where they have the free exercise of their religion. The people are employed in agriculture and trade, and the country produces such plenty of corn, that it has more than sufficient for home consumption. Its most usual exports, however, are black cattle, fatted sheep, and wool. The inhabitants of Sonnenberg deal in slates, hones, and gun-flints, wooden ware, pitch and pot-ash. The other towns pursue different occupations, and the whole country is provided with all manner of necessary artificers.

The principality of Coburg formerly belonged to the counts of Henneberg; but by marriage became annexed to the house of Saxony, and at length devolved to duke Ernest the Pious, the founder of the present line of the family of Gotha, who divided it among his sons; whence it comes at present to be divided between the houses of Saxe-Saalfeld, Saxe-Meinungen, Saxe-Hildburghausen, and Saxe-Gotha.

In the whole principality are ten cities and six towns, the principal of which are the following:

Coburg, the capital of the whole principality, and the residence of the duke of Coburg-Saalfeld, is situated in a valley on the Itsch, in the fiftieth degree thirty-two minutes north latitude, and the eleventh degree twenty minutes east longitude. It is defended by a strong castle on a neighbouring hill, where Luther chiefly resided during the diet at Augsburg in 1530. Both the town and suburbs are walled in, and the latter are larger than the former. The prince's palace called Ehrenburg is in the town, and contains the archives of the principality. The town is likewise the seat of the several offices of the government belonging to the house of Saxe Coburg-Saalfeld, as the privy-council, the regency, the treasury, and the consistory, and in the market-place stands the chancery. Here are four churches with a seminary called *Casimirianum*, from its founder duke John Casimir; a town school, a gold and silver manufactory, and one of porcelain. Without the town is an hospital, in which is a small church.

Hildburghausen, the residence of the duke of that district, is situated on the Werra, and contains many handsome houses, most of which are not only regular, and of an equal height, but the streets are broad and straight. In the market-place stands the town-house, in which the regency, treasury, and consistory have their meetings. Here is also a Lutheran church, to which is

annexed the superintendency of the principality of Hildburghausen, and the Latin school. In the old town is also the duke's palace, which is a large regular building, begun by duke Ernest in 1685, and in its church is a burial vault belonging to the family. In the New Town is a Lutheran and Calvinist church.

The principality of Altenburg borders to the west on the upper principality of Schwartzburg, and the principality of Weimar; to the north on the circles of Thuringia and Leipzig; to the east, on the circle of Leipzig and the lordship of Schonberg; and to the south on the circles of Ertzgebirg and Neustadt.

The soil is very fertile in corn, and also abounds in good pastures, whence grazing is carried on, and there is a large breed of horses. The country likewise produces plenty of wood, and the mines yield copper, cobalt, vitriol, and other minerals. The principal river is the Pleisse.

The religion of the country is Lutheranism, and the churches and schools are ranged under several superintendencies, over which is placed a general superintendent, who resides at Altenburg. The states of this principality are divided into those in the Altenburg, Saalfeld, and Eisenberg circles, and consist of the nobility and towns of these three districts, who have their principal meetings at Altenburg.

The chief towns in this principality are the following.

Altenburg, antiently named Pleiss, the capital of the principality, is subject to the duke of Saxe-Gotha. It stands high on an uneven spot of ground, and the castle, which is seated on a rock, is famous in history for being the residence of the former electors and dukes, and from hence the young princes Ernest and Albert, who were afterwards the founders of the two principal lines of the Saxon house, were carried off in the year 1455; but the princes were recovered, and those who had taken them executed. In the town is a stately building, in which the secretary's office is kept, and where the regency and consistory hold their meetings; two churches, one of which is a superintendency. Here is also a house for the education of young ladies of decayed families, a public seminary, a house belonging to the knights of the Teutonic order, a museum and library, and an orphan house.

Saalfeld, a pretty handsome town, seated on the river Sala, in a beautiful situation, amidst hills and meadows. This town and its district is subject to the duchy of Coburg Saalfeld. The palace here was begun by duke Albert, and for some time honoured by being the residence of the Saalfeld line, till on their acquiring a share of the principality of Coburg, they removed thither. In this town are three churches, and a good grammar school, with some manufactures of cloth of gold, and silk stuffs, and a smelting and vitriol house. On an eminence near the town stands the once celebrated and rich Benedictine abbey of St. Peter, whose abbot was a prince of the empire, and had both a vote and seat in the diets, and the privilege of coinage. The lands belonging to this abbey are converted into bailiwicks, and belong to the family of Altenburg.

We shall now give a concise account of the principality of Querfurt, which belongs to the duke of Saxe-Weissenfels, and is surrounded by the county of Mansfeld, the diocese of Merseburg, the districts of Freyburg, Wendelstein in the circle of Thuringia, and by part of the territories of Eisenach. The principal places in this principality are,

Querfurt, a charter town, seated on the little river Weite. It is very small, it having only about five hundred houses; but it has large suburbs, and is defended by a castle seated on a hill.

Heldrungen, a small town seated near the Unstrut, which is the seat of a superintendency, and had formerly a strong castle. But it is of little purpose to enumerate towns that have nothing worthy of notice.

S E C T. XIX.

Of the Principality of SCHWARTZBURG.

The Situation of its two separate Parts; their Produce, Rivers, Government, Arms, and the principal Places belonging to each of the reigning Princes.

THE principality of Schwartzburg has its southern, or upper part, separated from the north, or lower part, by an intermediate space of six German miles; the former being surrounded by the principalities of Coburg, Altenburg, and Eisenach, with the territory of Erfurt; and the latter by the circle of Thuringia, the electorate of Saxony, and the counties of Stollberg, Hohenstein, Eichsfelde, and the territory of Mulhausen.

This principality has several beautiful and fertile parts, remarkably fruitful in all kinds of grain, esculent vegetables, and fruit; other places afford tolerable wine; and the forests of Thuringia and the Hartz are of considerable advantage to the country, from the great quantity of timber annually cut down and exported. These forests likewise abound in deer, wild boars, and other game; and the rivers and ponds yield a great variety of fish. There are here likewise mines of silver and copper, and in some places are dug a very beautiful red and white alabaster.

The principal rivers in the upper principality are the Schwartz, which issues out of the forest of Thuringia, beyond the castle of Schwartzburg, and at length falls into the Sala. The Ilm rises in the forest of Thuringia, as does also the Gera. In the lower principality are the following rivers: the Helme, which discharges itself into the Unstrut; the Wipper, which rises at Eichsfelde, and also falls into the Unstrut; and the Helbe, which discharges itself into the same river.

In the whole principality are twelve boroughs, ten market-towns, fifteen castles, and about a hundred thousand persons. The princely houses and their subjects are of the Lutheran religion.

The princes of Schwartzburg are invested by the emperor with the office of grand master of the horse to the empire, and they are also huntsmen of the empire; but this title is enjoyed by other German princes. Their full titles run thus: Princes of Schwartzburg, and of the four counts of the empire; counts of Hohenstein; lords of Arnstadt, Sonderhausen, Leutenberg, Lohra, and Clettenberg.

Their arms are quarterly per pale four transverse beams or, and azure, containing for Schwartzburgh a lion; for Arnstadt an eagle sable, in a field or; for Hohenstein chequée argent and gules; for Leutenberg a lion passant or. The middle shield is argent a stag gules, or sable, for Lohra; beneath it argent a pitch-fork, and a curry-comb gules, in token of the office of master of the horse. In the center of the whole, on a particular shield, is the imperial spread eagle, with the sceptre and monde, and on a small shield on its breast is the imperial crown, denoting that in the fourteenth century Gunther, count of Schwartzburg, was elected king of Germany.

In 1713 the two principal lines entered into a perpetual compact and union, by which the division of the princely house into that of Sonderhausen and Rudolstadt was confirmed, and the reigning princes of both lines were, in 1754, introduced to sit and vote in the college of princes.

Each reigning prince has an actual privy-council, and by the division of the Schwartzburg lands between the two ruling lines, each of them is to maintain two courts of regency; that is, the prince of Schwartzburg-Sonderhausen one at Sonderhausen, the other at Arnstadt; and the prince of Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt one at Rudolstadt, and another at Frankenhausen. Each has also its counsellors at law and regency, who are absolutely independent of each other, and only subordinate to their own prince; but, by agreement, appeals, though with some limitations, are carried from the Schwartzburg regencies at Sonderhausen and Frankenhausen, to the elector of Saxony's

Saxony's regency at Dresden, and those from the regency of Arnstadt to that of Saxe Weimar.

Each prince has likewise his colonel, captain, and lieutenants for the management of military affairs; and when the empire is engaged in a war, the house of Schwartzburg, together with the count of Reussen, furnishes a regiment of six companies, amounting to a thousand men.

The territories of Schwartzburg-Sonderhausen are divided into thirteen bailiwicks, the principal places in which are the following:

Arnstadt on the Gera, a river which a little above divides itself into two branches. This town has a handsome stone bridge of six arches over the river, and of late the buildings in the town, both public and private, are much improved. Here is likewise an antient residentiary castle, with a church, and near it a palace for the prince's dowager, erected in 1732, with three churches, a provincial school of eight classes, a regency, a consistory, and exchequer. On the Gera are erected some brass and iron-works, besides several mills; and near the town is a house for the making of saltpetre.

Sonderhausen is a town seated on the Wipper, which at this place is joined by the Beber. On an eminence without the town stands the palace, where the ruling prince of the house of Sonderhausen usually resides. The front of this palace is new, and besides many other fine apartments, splendidly furnished, is a most superb saloon called the Giant's-hall. The garden here is laid out in a most beautiful manner. In the armoury stands an image of Pustrich, one of the Wendish idols, cast in a black shining metal, and hollow within. The body, which is every where large, is towards the belly an ell and a quarter round, and capable of containing above a common pail of water. Its head is also of a disproportionate size, with a round hole instead of the mouth, and another on the crown. The right hand rests on the head, and the left in his lap; but the middle of the left arm is broken off, and the legs are mutilated. Sonderhausen is the seat of the regency, and has a consistory and a court of justice.

The territories of Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt are divided into fifteen districts; but some of them the prince of this family holds jointly with the count of Stollberg. The principal places belonging to the former are the two following:

Rudolstadt is seated on the Sala, and has near it a castle, which stands on an eminence, in which the princes of Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt usually reside. This castle was destroyed by fire in 1735, but has been since rebuilt. Here are held the regency, consistory, and exchequer courts; and in the town church is to be seen the burial-place of the princes. Here is also a superintendency, and a seminary of divines founded in 1745 by prince John Frederic, and in honour of him called *Fredericianum*.

Frankenhausen is seated on a branch of the Wipper, which passes through the town, and stands in a fine fertile country, on the side of a mountain that forms a part of the Hartz, and to the north separates its district from a tract called the Golden Vale; indeed the town is on all sides environed with woods and mountains. It has a regency, and among the public buildings are the prince's palace, in which is a chapel. There are also two churches within the town, and two more without the gates. The school is within the remains of a Cistercian nunnery. The salt-works of this place are some of the most antient and famous in all Germany, and so considerable, that the town owes its prosperity entirely to them. There are a great number of salt-houses: the salt is drawn up in leathern buckets by means of large wheels, which are turned by the river Wipper; and in the Upper Town stands a fort originally built for the protection of these works.

S E C T. XX.

Of the County of MANSFELD.

Its Situation, Produce, Rivers, Lakes, and principal Towns.

THE county of Mansfeld borders on the duchy of Magdeburg, and the principalities of Anhalt and

Halberstadt; and extends thirty-three miles in length, and fifteen in breadth.

It is in general very mountainous, yet affords not only pasturage, but good corn-land, and has large woods, chases, vineyards, and fisheries. There are here mines of a kind of a blackish glittering sort of slate, which when smelted, yields much copper and silver, a quintal of the best sort containing five pounds of pure copper; but a quintal of the worst yields only two pounds. From this copper a great deal of silver was formerly extracted, and a great number of dollars coined. This slate is also remarkable for having the impressions of various animals, especially of fishes, as herrings, perches, and pikes.

In this country are likewise two considerable lakes, which, though they stand near each other, and have even a communication, the water of the largest is quite salt, while that in the other is perfectly fresh and sweet. They both abound in fish, on which account the inhabitants of the villages along their banks subsist by fishing; and they also afford an inexhaustible number of snipes, wild geese, and other water fowl, some of which are shot and others taken by the net. The Sala is the northern boundary of this country, where it receives the Salze, which issues from the above salt lake, together with the Schlenze and other smaller streams. The other rivers are the Wipper, the Eine, and the Weite.

Part of this country is under the sovereignty of Saxony, and part subject to the king of Prussia, who enjoys the title of count of Mansfeld.

The number of towns in the whole county amounts to seven. The prevailing religion is that of Lutheranism, and there are sixty-six parochial villages; the clergy belonging to them are divided into eight deaneries, the administration of which and the several parishes is lodged in the general superintendent of the county.

The titles of the count of Mansfeld are, prince of the holy Roman empire, Mansfeld, and Fondi; noble lord of Heldrungen, Seeburg, and Schraplau; and lord of the lordships of Dobrzhisch, Neuhaus, and Arnstein.

The arms for Querfurt are argent party per fesse gules; for Mansfeld, six lozenges, disposed in two rows gules; for Arnstein, sable, an eagle displayed, with the bill, legs, and claws or; and for Heldrungen, azure, a lion rampant or, with a crown of the same, a tongue exerted gules, and a reversed tail, gules and argent chequée in a bend.

The principal towns in this county are those which follow:

Eisleben, the capital of the county, is seated in the fifty-first degree thirty-nine minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree fifty-six minutes east longitude. It is remarkable for the great number of its brew-houses, and for the copper-mines in its neighbourhood, which were formerly in such good condition, that between the towns of Eisleben and Mansfeld there were at least thirty smelting-houses, which generally produced above a thousand tons of copper in a year; and every ton contained near two hundred ounces of silver; and though at present several good shafts are overflowed with water, and the ore is neither so rich in copper, nor yields so much silver as formerly, yet these mines turn to good account. In the town is a castle, with three parish churches, a grammar-school, a mine-office, a consistory, a general superintendency, and about a thousand houses. It is very populous, and the center of all the trade and business of the whole county, every thing designed for sale being brought hither; whence its exports to the Hartz and into Thuringia are very considerable.

This place is famous for having given birth to Martin Luther, who also died here. Among other relics of that great reformer is shewn in the great church of St. Thomas, his pulpit, which, from the extreme veneration entertained for it, is only preached in three times a year; that is, on the anniversary of Luther's birth-day, the day in which he died, and the opening of the catechetical lectures. There is here also shewn the wooden bedstead on which Luther lay, which is here pretended to be of such extraordinary virtue, that whoever carries a bit of it about him will never be troubled with the head-ach, and a tooth-picker made of it infallibly secures a person from the tooth ach. "The Swedes, says Mr. Keyssler, who
"are

“are very fond of being thought the genuine sons of Luther, carried away as many pieces, said to be cut from this bedstead, and a table that belonged to Luther, as would have made several tables and bedsteads. As this afforded great satisfaction, so it yielded no small profit to those who shewed these relics; for a very small part of the gratuities they got on this occasion, was sufficient to buy such another lucrative bedstead.” Our impartiality would not permit our suppressing so extraordinary a circumstance, though we are sorry to find any of the followers of that reformer so weak and so wicked as to countenance such gross superstition, which every rational protestant must condemn, and which Luther himself, were he living, would censure with the utmost warmth and indignation.

The city of Mansfeld is situated five miles to the north-west of Eisleben, and is very small. Its castle, which is seated on a high rock, was formerly both a fortress and the residence of the counts of Mansfeld; but the forepart of it only remains, the rest, together with the walls and bastions, being blown up in the year 1674.

SECT. XXI.

Of the County of WERNIGERODE.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, Government, and principal Towns.

THE county of Wernigerode is situated partly on the Hartz, and borders on the principalities of Blankenburg, Brunswick, and Hildesheim; and is only about fifteen miles in length and ten in breadth.

One part of the country is mountainous, and the other level. The hills form a kind of amphitheatre, rising gradually behind each other. The most distinguished of these is Great Brocken, which some esteem the highest mountain in all Germany. No trees, or scarce any small shrubs, are to be found on its summit, which frequently remains covered with snow till Midsummer, and in some of the northern parts even longer. Out of this mountain issues the Ilse, with the Great and Little Bude, and also the Ecker. The mountains afford very valuable plants, with berries of all kinds, particularly cranberries, great quantities of which are preserved by the inhabitants. Oak and beech are less common here than firs and pines, though great care is taken in planting and keeping up the forests.

The plains are very fertile in all kinds of grain, pulse, turnips, flax, culinary herbs, fruit, and other vegetables. As the meadows and pastures are very rich, great numbers of cattle are bred here, and the country likewise abounds in all manner of beasts of chase and wild fowl.

This county also abounds in iron, lead, cobalt, free-stone, lime-stone, marl, and clay for bricks and pots.

The county is very populous, and the language of the inhabitants, who are of the Lutheran religion, is Low German. They export corn, oatmeal, all kinds of berries, timber, and brush-wood; as also deals, oil, fine oxen, venison, hogs, fish, chalk, saltpetre, gunpowder, cast and wrought iron, wrought copper, which is imported rough, paper, cloth, stuffs, and brandy.

This county is a fief of the king of Prussia, though a part of it belongs to the count of Stollberg. The king, as sovereign of the country, levies the excise in the town of Wernigerode, though one-tenth of it goes to the count. His majesty also taxes the country, and raises soldiers. Appeals lie from the count's regency to the revenue court at Berlin; and yet the count has the jurisdiction of the mines, chaces, stores, and coinage; as also in criminal, civil, and church affairs. His regency, to which appeals are brought from the inferior courts in the town and country, consists of a secretary, a director, and counsellors. These, with the addition of three ecclesiastical counsellors, form the consistory. The revenue court consists of a director, counsellors, assessors, and other officers, who, with the addition of forest and mine officers, form the forest and mine courts. The revenue of this county is computed at the annual sum of fifty thousand rixdollars.

The principal towns in this county are the following: Wernigerode is situated at a small distance from the Ecker, which receives into it a rivulet that runs through the town. It has a castle seated above the town on a mountain, which has been so greatly improved by count Christian Ernest, that it has not one waste spot. This castle he has adorned with a large and valuable library; and here likewise are kept the archives of the family. About this stately seat lies a park, which was walled in by the above count, and finely planted both with fruit and forest trees. In it, near the castle gate, is a row of houses for the count's domestics, together with a well-built orphan-house and new stables, with many single houses for the count's attendants. In the park is a summer-house called the hermitage, which stands higher than the castle itself. Near the park is a most beautiful parterre, with a fine green-house, in which is a large saloon; and just by is a magnificent palace, in which lives the countess Frederica Charlotte of Hohenlohe-Ingelfingen. A vista of limes leads from the park to the count's kitchen-garden and orchard, which lie near the town, and both the road and foot-way to the castle are planted with rows of trees.

The town itself consists of three parts, the Old and New Town, and the suburb of Noschenrode. In the Old Town are only four hundred and thirty houses, three churches, two alms houses, a palace belonging to the count, the offices belonging to the government, a Latin school of five classes, and several mansion houses belonging to the nobility. The New Town contains only about two hundred houses, a parish church, and an alms-house, while the suburb contains about one hundred and fifty houses, one church and a school.

Several great fires have happened here, particularly in the year 1751; but the greatest part of the houses have been rebuilt with stone.

To the corporation belong very large woods, out of which the burghers are allowed timber for building, with a certain quantity of wood for fuel. The trade of the townsmen chiefly consists in manufactures of cloth and woollen stuffs, brewing, distilling, and agriculture.

Drubec is a large and beautiful village, the inhabitants of which are esteemed the richest farmers in all the country, and are fond of being called the men of Drubec. At this place is an antient foundation, consisting of an abbess and five canoneses, who may be either of noble or trading families. To this foundation belongs a church, besides which there is another in the village.

Isenburg is a large open town, which was antiently walled. It has a castle seated on an eminence, which was formerly the residence of the counts of Stollburg, and near the castle is a large park, in which is the mansion-house of Leiningen, thus named from the consort of count Christian Ernest of the house of Leiningen. The chief trade of the place arises from the iron works and flatting mills belonging to the count.

SECT. XXII.

Of the Dutchy of MAGDEBURG.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers; the Religion of the Inhabitants; the several Offices of the Government; the Revenues of the Prince, and the principal Cities of this Dutchy.

WE now come to the circle of Lower Saxony, which is bounded on the north by the dutchy of Sleswic and the Baltic; on the east by the circle of Upper Saxony; on the south by the same circle, and a part of the circle of the Upper Rhine, and on the westward by the circle of Westphalia and the German ocean.

The states belonging to it are those of Magdeburg and Bremen, Zell, Grubenhagen, Calenberg, Wolfenbottle, Halberstadt, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Mecklenburg-Gustrow, Holstein-Gluckstadt, Holstein-Gottorp, Hildesheim, Saxe-Lauenburg, the archbishopric of Lubec, Ratzeburg, Blankenburg, Ranzau, Lubec an imperial city, Goslar, Mulhausen, Nordhausen, and Hamburg.

We

We shall begin with the dutchy of Magdeburg, which is surrounded by the Mark of Brandenburg, the dutchy of Brunswic, the principalities of Halberstadt and Anhalt, the county of Mansfeld, and the electorate of Saxony, extending sixty miles from east to west; but its breadth is very unequal.

The country belonging to this dutchy is for the most part level. It has some good corn lands, and produces fine cattle; but several circles are sandy, marshy, and over-grown with woods. In some parts there are pit-coal, while in others fuel is scarce. The salt springs are here so rich, as to be able to supply all Germany with salt.

The Elbe passes through a considerable part of the country, and the river Havel forms its eastern boundaries between Brandenburg and this dutchy. Here rises the Aller, which discharges itself into the Elbe. The other rivers are the Saale, or Sala, which here receives the Elster, and afterwards discharges itself into the Elbe, the Ohre, and the Bode.

The established religion of the inhabitants is Lutheranism; but a great number of French and German Calvinists have settled here, and the popish religion is tolerated at Magdeburg and Hall. The Lutheran parishes amount to three hundred fourteen, and the pastors to three hundred and fifty-three. These parishes are divided into sixteen inspections, under the direction of as many inspectors, subordinate to a general superintendent. The German Calvinists are possessed of seven churches, and have eleven ministers; the French have six congregations, to five of which are ten ministers; but those at Calbe are subject to a German pastor; and at Hall is a synagogue of Jews.

Magdeburg contains manufactures of woollen cloth, linen, stuffs, stockings, oil-skin, leather, parchment; and particularly exports large quantities of starch, flour, and all sorts of grain.

In the diet of the empire the king of Prussia, as duke of Magdeburg, sits and votes between the elector of Bavaria and the elector Palatine.

The arms of the dutchy are party per pale, gules and argent.

The dutchy has its own regency, who in 1714, were removed from Hall to Magdeburg, and consist of two senates. The war and domain chamber manage all the concerns of the domain and finances, with the excise, contributions, &c. but each chest is kept separate, under its distinct office. In the towns the excise and other branches of the revenue are under the direction of persons styled tax counsellors. The consistory is composed of the members of the regency, the general superintendent, and some lay and ecclesiastical counsellors. Its power is limited to the Lutheran churches, while the Calvinists are subject to their supreme directory, and the French are under the direction of the French supreme consistory at Berlin.

The princes revenues arise chiefly from the domains, taxes, and military chest. In the domains are included the king's profits arising from the salt-works at Hall, and other places, with the duties on salt; the neat profit and tythes of mines, confiscations, fines, farms belonging to bailiwicks, navigation-farms, sluice money, tolls by land and water, forest rents, payments for mastage, and the like. Out of these taxes are paid the king's officers in the dutchy, the expences of the royal buildings, sluices, tillage, repairs of highways, and other disbursements. The surplus is paid into the general domain chest. The tax and military chest receive the country contributions, with the forage and subsistence money for the country cavalry, the excise laid upon goods consumed, the provincial excise, and other incomes, all which are afterwards paid into the general military chest, or remitted to the several regiments in the country for their subsistence. The contributions, and other revenues belonging to the tax chest, are collected in every circle by circular receivers, to whom they are remitted every month by the under receivers in the small towns and villages, of which every provincial counsellor has the controul in his respective circle. The

annual revenues of the sovereign from this dutchy, amount to above eight hundred thousand rixdollars.

The dutchy is divided into four circles, the most considerable places in which are,

The city of Magdeburg, which is the capital of the dutchy, the seat of the provincial regency, the consistory, the war and domain office, and one of the principal trading towns in all Germany, is seated on the Elbe in the fifty-second degree sixteen minutes latitude, and the twelfth degree nine minutes east longitude. It is strongly fortified, and has among other works a citadel, seated on an island in the river Elbe, which is joined to the city and the country by two bridges. The city is well built, particularly the broad street, which has a grand appearance; but the principal beauty of the town consists in its cathedral square, which is adorned with large elegant houses, and the area of it well paved. The Lutheran cathedral, dedicated to St. Maurice, is a superb structure in the antique taste; it is two hundred and eight German ells in length, and of the same height; its breadth is fifty-five ells, and the whole building, which consists entirely of free-stone, is richly adorned with sculpture, particularly there is a basso relievo of the wise and foolish virgins, a fine porphyry font, an altar in the choir of different kinds of marble, and in the front of the choir is a fine marble statue of St. Maurice.

Among the other public edifices are the king's palace, which was antiently the residence of the bishops, the armoury, the governor's house, and the guild-hall. Here is also a Lutheran convent, which was formerly a monastery of Premonstratensian monks, dedicated to Our Lady, and has a school or seminary. The Lutherans have also six parochial churches, and the Calvinists consist of three congregations, German, French, and Walloon. To the seminary, which belongs to the town, are ten professors, and the Calvinists have a Latin school. Here is also an alms-house, an hospital, and an orphan-house, all maintained at the king's expence.

In this town is a variety of manufactures, particularly of all sorts of woollen cloths and stuffs, half and whole silk stuffs, cottons, linen, stockings, leather gloves, black and yellow tobacco, roll tobacco, snuff, &c. The city is also remarkable for its large magazines of merchandize brought from Hamburg, on the Elbe, which is very rapid, in flat-bottomed boats, and from hence sent by land to Leipzig, and other parts. Indeed its situation on the Elbe, and its being on the road between Upper and Lower Germany, is of great advantage to its trade.

This city has frequently suffered by the ravages of war. Charles V. put it under the ban of the empire for rejecting the *Interim*, and charged Maurice elector of Saxony, with the execution of it, who after a siege which lasted from the sixteenth of September 1550, to the ninth of November 1551, took it by capitulation, in which it was stipulated, that the emperor should be reconciled, and the ban revoked. In 1629, it was blockaded by the Imperialists for the space of twenty weeks. But the most dreadful calamity of this kind, was in the year 1631, when the Imperialists under count Tilly besieging it in form, and taking it by storm, it was sacked and burnt, except the cathedral, some adjacent houses, and a few small cottages of fishermen; so that, according to some authors, sixteen churches and chapels, many of them covered with lead, and one with copper, were reduced to ashes. Tilly had the infernal barbarity to order his soldiers to spare neither age nor sex; and they too well obeyed the commands of their inhuman general, by ripping up women with child, murdering infants in the sight of their parents, and ravishing the helpless virgins in the very streets, while many of these, to escape violation, ran into the Elbe, and others into the fire; in short, the slaughter was so great, that though the number of the burghers was before computed to amount by the lowest computation to twenty thousand, not above four hundred escaped. In the beginning of the year 1632, the Imperialists withdrew, and the Swedes taking possession of the city, began to rebuild

rebuild it; but when it was reduced to some order, it was again blockaded in 1635, by the troops of Brandenburg and Weimar, and in 1636, besieged and taken by capitulation by the Imperialists and Saxons, on which the Swedish garrison withdrew.

The city of Hall is seated on the Saale or Sala, and contains a thousand and sixty-three houses that pay taxes, besides its public edifices; and the inhabitants of the town and suburbs are computed at thirteen or fourteen thousand, without including the students and the garrison. The town is divided into four parts, named the Maria, the Ulrich, the Nicholas, and Maurice quarters. Mauriceburg was antiently a castle; but the greatest part of it now lies in ruins; however, the chapel is in the possession of the French Calvinists. The Lutherans have three parish churches, and the German Calvinists have the cathedral and another church; the Papists are likewise permitted a chapel for the private exercise of their religion, and the Jews have a synagogue. The celebrated Frederician university was formed out of an academy of martial exercises. The public hall belonging to this last building is in the weigh-house, as is also its library, which consists of upwards of ten thousand volumes, and on the parade is an anatomical theatre. The nunnery for ladies was founded in 1702, for the reception of one abbess and nine ladies of the Calvinist religion, by Godfrey Zena, secretary to the regency of Magdeburg. The Calvinists are possessed of two hospitals, exclusive of an almshouse for the French Calvinists.

The vale of Hall, which consists of the lowest part of the town, and lies on the Saale, has four rich salt-springs, with ninety-six boiling houses. Besides the common trades, there are here carried on various manufactures, as those of fine brown and white leather gloves, worsted and silk stockings wove, flannel, frieze, light stuffs, fustian, printed flannel and linen, tobacco-pipes, porcelain, great quantities of starch, powder, gold, silver, and silk ribbons after French and other patterns, and beautiful red and yellow Turkey leather.

Close to the north side of Hall is the town of Neu-markt, which seems one of its suburbs, though in reality it is not. It consists of about two hundred eighty-three houses, has its own magistrate, a parish church, and a small school.

Glauche, another town, lies also so near the walls as to seem a suburb to the city, and contains about three hundred and thirteen houses, with several vineyards: it has its own magistrates, and contains one parish church, with a school. But the most remarkable public buildings here are the orphan-house, which is esteemed one of the most noble and useful foundations in all the Prussian dominions, with the royal pædagogium, and the widows-house. In the above orphan-house is a valuable dispensatory, a laboratory, and a considerable trade is carried on in books. To the orphan-house also belongs a spacious library, a museum, and an excellent printing-office, the latter founded by the baron Canstein, in which the whole Bible, the New Testament, and Psalter are always kept standing; and these books, of all sizes, are sold at this printing-office at very low prices.

SECT. XXIII.

Of MECKLENBURG.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. The Religion of the Inhabitants, their Trades, Exports, Government, the Divisions of the Country, and the Places most worthy of Notice.

MECKLENBURG is bounded on the north by the Baltic; on the east by Pomerania; on the south by Brandenburg; and on the west by the diocese of Lubeck, the principality of Lunenburg, and also by Lauenburg and Ratzburg: but geographers differ greatly in their accounts of its extent; which is, however, about a hundred and thirty miles in length from east to west, and in some places eighty in breadth from north to south.

With respect to the nature and goodness of the country, the Mecklenburghers themselves disagree. It, however, contains many large and small lakes from four to ten miles in length, and from four to seven in breadth. There are here likewise some large and desolate heaths, moors, and fens; a great part of the country consists of a sandy soil, but, according to Cluverius, the very worst of these sandy tracts produces excellent rye; when they lie fallow there cannot be better sheep-walks; and when they are well tilled and dunged, they yield wheat and barley. The country is interspersed with delightful eminences; pleasant and profitable woods. Several fens have been drained and improved into arable and pasture land. The commons and meadows are in most parts not at all inferior to those of Holstein and Pomerania; and grazing is so considerable, that the inhabitants export some thousands of cattle. Indeed, it must be acknowledged, that by art and labour the face of the country is capable of being greatly improved; for the marquise of Brandenburg, which lies contiguous, and bears a great resemblance to this country, shews that their marshy and sandy wastes may be converted into a fertile and pleasant country. The lakes and rivers abound in fish, more particularly in eels and craw-fish. The country has also some salt springs, with mines of copper, iron, and allum.

With respect to the rivers of Mecklenburg: the Elbe washes the borders of this country to the south-west, where it is joined by the Elde, which here issues from the lake of Plauer; and into that river flows also the Stor, which proceeds from the lake of Schwerin. The Reckenitz rises in this country, and forms the limits between Mecklenburg and Pomerania, after which it discharges itself into the Baltic. The Tollense issues out of the lake of the same name, and joins the Pena. The Warno rises in the center of this country, and, after receiving the Milnitz and Nebel, forms a lake and harbour at Rostoc, and falls into the Baltic. The Radegast rises at Stellingen, and having run by several towns, is called the Stopenitz, under which name it crosses the lake of Dessau; and having united its stream with the Drave, discharges itself into the Baltic. The Havel flows from the lake of Barn, and flows into the mark of Brandenburg.

Mecklenburg has only one harbour on the Baltic, which is that of Rostoc; but it would be easy to make another at Neu-Bucko, and a third at Ribnitz, the advantages attending which would abundantly over-balance the expence.

This country is divided into two dutchies, and the inhabitants of both are Lutherans, whose churches and schools are here divided into six rural superintendencies, and under the superintendents are provosts. There are also some congregations of Calvinists, and in Schwerin the papists are permitted the private exercise of their worship.

The country has woollen manufactures, tanners, leather-dressers, and people of other trades; but their number is not sufficient to supply the country. The exports of the inhabitants consist of cattle, butter, cheese, corn, flax, hemp, hops, several kinds of wood, and also honey and wax. In both dutchies are forty-five great and small cities, three convents belonging to the nobility and states of the country, and five hundred and ninety-four manors. In the year 1628 the number of farms belonging to the sovereign were one thousand and one, those of the nobility amounted to seven hundred and twenty-seven, and those of the convent to seven hundred and sixty-eight.

The peasants are under villenage, but the nobility are free, and enjoy very considerable privileges.

The states are composed of the nobility and towns. In 1523, the nobility and commons of the two dutchies of Schwerin and Guffro entered into an indissoluble compact of union, which has been acknowledged and confirmed by the sovereigns, and consists both in a conjunction of the provinces, and in that of the states of which each is composed; it being agreed, that all the free inhabitants of both dutchies, including the whole of the Stargard circle, should enjoy an equality in rights, privileges, and immunities; be governed by the same laws,

laws, and in all cases and exigencies should daily aid and assist each other in council and action.

The government of the whole country of Mecklenburg was formerly under one prince; but duke John, who died in 1592, leaving two sons, Adolphus Frederic and John Albert II. they divided the country between them, by which the former obtained the part belonging to Schwerin, and the latter that belonging to Gustro; while the town of Rostoc, with its university and hospital, and the monastic lands, remained in common: but the line of Gustro becoming extinct in 1695, duke Frederic William of the Schwerin branch laid claim to the sole inheritance of that dutchy, but was opposed by Adolphus Frederic, duke of Strelitz, his father's younger brother. However, this contest was decided at Hamburg in 1701, by an agreement that the principality of Gustro should be added to that of Schwerin, and that duke Adolphus Frederic, besides his dutchy of Strelitz, should also hold the principality of Ratzeburg, with the lordship of Stargard, the antient commandaries of Miro and Nemero, and a yearly pension of nine thousand dollars. At the same time the right of primogeniture and the lineal succession were established in both houses, and the agreement ratified by the emperor. These two lines of the dukes of Mecklenburgh still subsist, and her present majesty, Charlotte queen consort of Great Britain, is the sister of Adolphus IV. the present duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz.

The titles assumed by both the dukes, are duke of Mecklenburg; prince of Wenden, Schwerin, and Ratzeburg; count of Schwerin and the county of Rostoc; and lord of Stargard.

Their arms are party per pale two bends divided into six fields. The first is or, a buffaloe's head gardant gules, crowned with horns argent, with a ring of the same through its nostrils, for Mecklenburg. The second is azure, a griffin or, for Wenden. The third party per fesse barry of two azure, with a griffin argent, and a lozenge purpure. Both these are said to be the arms of Rostoc. The fourth is gules, a cross wavy argent, for the principality of Ratzeburg. The fifth gules, an arm cloathed argent, and bound with a ribbon of the same, issuing from a cloud, and holding up a ring or, with a stone infixed, for the lordship of Stargard. The sixth is or, a buffaloe's head sable, with a crown or, and horns argent, panting and placed oblique. There is also an escutcheon, party per fesse, gules and or, for the county of Schwerin. The electors and margraves of Brandenburg likewise use the title and arms, because, on the extinction of the male stem of the dukes of Mecklenburg, that dutchy falls to the house of Brandenburg.

The annual revenues of the Schwerin line amount to three hundred thousand rixdollars per annum, and those of the duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz to about a hundred and twenty-six thousand. No payment is required for the maintenance of the duke's troops, either of the nobility or states, the duke defraying all the expence of the military establishment out of the fixed annual contributions. The nobility and their vassals are also exempted from quartering and maintaining the militia, as the municipal towns are from quartering the horse. The towns, however, quarter the foot, and pay service-money.

The two dutchies are divided into three circles, that of Mecklenburg, that of Wenden, and the circle of Stargard.

The Mecklenburg circle forms the dutchy of Schwerin, which consists of the antient dutchy of Mecklenburg, the county of Schwerin, the western part of the principality of Wenden, and a small part of the lordship of Rostoc; the principal places in which are the two following towns:

Parchim, the capital of this circle, is seated on the river Elde, which here divides itself into two branches, and in several parts run east and west through the town, which, though it has the name of a capital, is very inconsiderable, and has only two parish churches.

Schwerin, the usual residence of the dukes of that line, is situated on a pleasant lake that abounds in a variety of fish, and, besides surrounding the greatest part of the town, originally gave name to it. This town is nearly square, and consists of three parts, which are named Schwerin, the New Town, and the Moor. The duke's palace stands on an island in the lake, where it is defended by fortifications, and has a communication with the town by means of a bridge. Some parts of it command a most delightful prospect. The paintings in this palace are very valuable, and the gardens are laid out in a fine taste. The town has frequently suffered by dreadful fires.

The circle of Wenden contains the eastern, and greatest part of the principality of Wenden, with the lordship of Rostoc, and the largest part of the dutchy of Gustro.

Gustro, the capital of the circle of Wenden, is seated on the little river Nebel, thirty-five miles to the north-east of Schwerin, and is one of the largest and most pleasant cities in the whole country, as also the seat of the chief courts of judicature and a superintendency. In this town is a good palace belonging to the prince, with a most elegant garden; and in the church of this palace is the vault of the ducal family. Gustro likewise contains a cathedral, and a parish church.

Rostoc, a free imperial city, and the largest in both dutchies, is seated on the Warna, at the mouth of which it has an harbour, and stands twelve miles to the north-west of Gustro. It has fourteen wide and long streets, besides smaller, and many thousand handsome houses. It properly consists of three parts: the Old, New, and Middle Towns. The first stands on an eminence towards the east, and contains the churches of St. Catharine, St. Peter, and St. Nicholas; the two last of which are parochial. In 1677 most of this part was destroyed by fire, but has been since rebuilt with greater regularity. The Middle Town is separated from the former by a branch of the Warna, and contains St. Mary's church, a stately structure, in which are preserved the entrails of the celebrated Grotius, who died here in 1645. Here is also the church of St. John, a library, and the council-house. In the New Town is St. James's church, which was formerly collegiate; the church of St. Michael, and that of the Holy Cross, which has a convent for young ladies, natives of Rostoc. In this part is also the university, which has twenty-four professors, to whom the dukes annually pay the sum of three thousand florins, and the town five hundred, towards their salaries. Here is also a public free-school.

Among the peculiarities belonging to this city, the inhabitants are said to boast of their having seven gates, seven large streets that center in the great market, seven bridges over the Warna, seven doors to St. Mary's church, seven towers to the town-hall, seven great bells belonging to the town clocks, which chime at certain hours, and seven vast lime-trees in their common garden.

The magistracy consists of three burgomasters, one syndic, twelve aldermen, one secretary, and a prothonotary. This city has a mint, and the right of coining gold, silver, and copper. Both the civil and criminal jurisdiction are vested in the magistracy, though with right of appeal to the two supreme courts of justice. This city is seated in the fifty-fourth degree twenty-six minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree eighteen minutes east longitude; and carries on a considerable trade.

Wismar, a town seated on a bay of the Baltic, formerly belonged to the dutchy of Schwerin, but at the peace of Westphalia was ceded to the crown of Sweden. It has a good harbour, and is one of the best and largest towns in these countries; for it has six churches, a particular consistory, a grammar-school under the direction of eight masters, and is likewise the seat of a Swedish court of justice. It was formerly a Hanse town, and had the privilege of coining money. This town has been frequently taken and retaken.

S E C T. XXIV.

Of the Dutchy of HOLSTEIN.

Its Situation, Extent, the Face of the Country, and its Produce. The Religion, Trade, and Commerce of the Inhabitants. Of the Dukes of Holstein, their Titles, Arms, and Order of Knighthood: their Revenues, Courts of Justice, and principal Towns; with a particular Description of the free Cities of Hamburgh, Altena, and Lubec.

THE dutchy of Holstein is bounded towards the north by the dutchy of Sleswic and the Baltic, which is also its eastern boundary; towards the south by the dutchy of Lauenburg, the territories of Lubec and Hamburg; and on the west by the Elbe, which separates it from the dutchy of Bremen, and by the German ocean. Its extent from east to west is about ninety miles, and from north to south about sixty.

Its situation between the Baltic and German ocean exposes it to frequent storms, which indeed purify the air, but oblige the inhabitants to be at great expence to secure themselves from inundations, by raising lofty and strong dykes, and keeping them in constant repair. The districts where these dykes are necessary being in the low lands near the German ocean, and the mouth of the Elbe, they consist of excellent marshes that produce wheat, barley, peas, beans, and particularly rape-seed; and also afford a fine breed of cattle, that are much larger and stronger than those in the champaign country; and, besides the native cattle, a great number of heifers are brought here to be fattened. The middle part of the country indeed mostly consists of sand and heath, yet affords good pasture for sheep. In these parts the fern is mowed, and in winter is strewed in the cow-houses. The districts which border on the Baltic, and consist of champaign land, are very fruitful. The beef, veal, mutton, and lamb, are very fat and palatable. The breed of horses is on the decline, but this country still affords some that are very beautiful, and are sold for two or three hundred rixdollars. Holstein likewise abounds in poultry, wild-fowl, and game of all kinds.

The German ocean, with the Baltic, the rivers, the lakes and ponds, furnish the inhabitants with great plenty of a variety of fish. In this country are fish-ponds of a very singular nature, which for two or three years abound with pike, carp, lampreys, and perch; but every third or fourth year are drained, and the fish sold; after which the pond is for some years sown with oats, or used as pasture land, and then again laid under water and stocked with fish. This is said to be a most lucrative piece of oeconomy.

Here are no hills that deserve the name. The principal inland rivers are the Eyder, the Stor, and the Trave, the last of which, among other streams, receives into it the Pennau, the Schivenstin, and the Schwartau.

The inhabitants are generally fair, handsome, strong and brave, and so just and true to their words and promises, that in the neighbouring parts of Germany the Holstein faith is become proverbial. They are fond of good cheer, and the great affect a splendid equipage and retinue.

The established religion is Lutheranism, and the churches are under the inspection of provosts, subordinate to the general superintendents who preside over the king's share in the dutchies of Sleswic and Holstein, and over those of the prince within his part of the latter; and these churches are visited every year by the superintendent of the ruling prince. At Gluckstadt and Altena are churches belonging both to the Calvinists and Papists, and at the latter, among other sects, the Menonites are possessed of two churches. At Kiel is a Greek chapel for the Russians, and at Altena, Rendburg, Kiel, and Gluckstadt, the Jews are likewise permitted the exercise of their religion.

This country has several manufactures, particularly in the towns of Altena and Gluckstadt, but these might be greatly enlarged. Its advantageous situation for commerce, from its bordering on the Baltic sea and the German ocean, and its having the advantage of navigable

rivers, are not properly improved. Its exports are grain, malt, groats, starch, buck-wheat, peas, beans, rape-seed, horned cattle, sheep, swine, horses, venison, poultry, cheese, butter and fish.

This country is divided between the duke of Holstein Gottorp and the king of Denmark. Duke Adolphus, second son to Frederic I. was the founder of the Gottorp line, by bequeathing his share in the dutchies of Sleswick and Holstein to his sons, of whom only the third duke John Adolphus had issue. This prince introduced the right of primogenitureship, and dying in 1616, his son duke Frederic III. had for his successor duke Christian Albert, who was also succeeded by his son duke Frederic IV. whose son Charles Frederic in a second marriage espoused Anne the eldest daughter of Peter I. emperor of Russia; but was soon after dispossessed of all his territories. This prince dying in 1739, his son duke Charles Peter was in 1743 declared great duke of Russia, on which he assumed the name of Peter Feodorowicz, and in July 1762, ascended the throne of Russia; but was soon after deposed by his wife, and this was presently followed by his death, when his young son, who was born in 1754, was declared great duke of Russia, and also duke of Holstein-Gottorp, of which country prince Frederic Augustus of Holstein-Gottorp is appointed administrator during the young duke's minority.

The king of Denmark, on account of his share in this country, styles himself duke of Holstein, Stormar, and Ditmarsh; and all the dukes of Holstein and Sleswick style themselves heirs of Norway, dukes of Sleswic, Holstein, Stormar, and Ditmarsh, and counts of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst.

The arms of the duke of Holstein consist of five fields, and an escutcheon. The first of these is a lion crowned or, holding in his paws a bent halbert argent, for Norway. The second or, two lions passant azure, for Sleswick. The third gules, a nettle-leaf expanded and divided into three parts argent, with an escutcheon party per bend gules and argent, having round it three nails argent, placed between the three parts of the nettle-leaf, for Holstein. The fourth is gules, a swan argent, crowned or about the neck, for Stormar. The fifth is azure, a horseman armed or, with his sword drawn, and a horse argent, caparisoned sable, for Ditmarsh. The escutcheon is quarterly, the first and fourth or, barry gules, for Oldenburg; and the third and fourth, a cross wavy or, for Dolmenherst.

Holstein has an order of knighthood called that of St. Anne, which was founded in 1735, by duke Charles Frederic. The ensign of this order is a red cross enamelled, on the right side of which is the word ANNE written in a cypher, and on the left the letters A. I. P. F. also in a cypher, which are explained by the subscription: *Amantibus Justitiam, Pietatem, Fidem.* This cross is worn pendant at a red ribbon edged with yellow, sloping from the left shoulder down to the right side.

The king of Denmark from his share in the dutchy of Holstein, enjoys both a seat and voice in the college of the princes of the empire, and his vote is called that of Holstein Gluckstadt. The grand duke of Russia has also his seat and voice in the same college, which is called that of Holstein-Gottorp. Both under the same titles also sit and vote in the circle of Lower Saxony, and together with Meckenburg present, in their turn, an assessor for this circle in the aulic chamber.

The principal revenues of the sovereigns arise from their domains, and several imposts on their subjects, as the contribution, which is a kind of land-tax, paid monthly by the towns, manors, bailiwicks, and convents, according to the quantity of lands they possess; which alone annually brings into the military chest of each sovereign a hundred thousand rixdollars; stamped paper, toll on horses, black cattle, the fishery, &c.

As to the military force kept up in this country, the king of Denmark usually keeps here some regiments of foot, and one of horse. With respect to the duke's military force it amounts, according to Mr. Busching, to only about eight hundred men.

The king of Denmark appoints a stadtholder over his part of Holstein, and every sovereign has his colleges of state.

state. At Gluckstadt is held the king's regency-office, which is composed of the stadtholder, who is always president, a chancellor, a vice-chancellor, five counsellors that have salaries, and three secretaries, one of whom is always keeper of the records: this court is held four times a year. The other courts are,

The supreme bailiwick court, which on the rising of the chancery court, is held by the members of the regency office. This court receives appeals from the lower bailiwick courts; but from these superior courts no appeal lies, except to the king. Ever since the year 1754, the regency court has had the supreme authority in the trial of criminals.

With respect to inferior courts, the several causes in the towns are tried by the magistracy, from whose sentences appeals lie to the court of regency. Every town has likewise a petty court of its own, that takes cognizance of criminal causes, defamatory words, small debts, and the like, and from these an appeal lies to the magistracy.

It is remarkable, that the nobility and convents in the dutchy of Holstein, with their tenants, are subject to a joint government, to which every Michaelmas the king and duke alternately succeed. The person in whom the directory is lodged, after previous notification to the other sovereign's office of regency, issues forth orders and citations to the provincial court in both their names; but always gives precedence to the king's. The law affairs of the subjects are usually carried first before the joint Quartal court, which is held six weeks before the session of the provincial court, and is, as it were, a preparative to the next provincial court, for the greater dispatch of affairs which are brought to it, when thought necessary, by letters patent under the seals of both sovereigns. This court is alternately held at Kiel and Gluckstadt, the directory is under the ruling sovereign for the current year. The court is composed of four of the king's counsellors, and the like number of the princes, who must all be nobles, also of four men of letters for each sovereign, assisted by a chancellor, who is alternately appointed by the sovereign. Its other members are a secretary from each prince. In this court the causes of the prelates, nobility, and pastors in the churches of the nobility, have their first hearing, and hither likewise are brought all appeals from the courts of the nobility and convents.

We shall now proceed to describe, first, the principal places in the king of Denmark's share in the dutchy of Holstein.

We shall begin with Gluckstadt, called in Latin Ty-chopolis, a town and fortress situated in the district of Stormar, on the Elbe, which here receives into it a small river, called the Rhein. This town is regular and well built; and the market-place opens into the main streets. This town was built in the year 1620, on a waste ground called the Wilderness, by the permission of Christian IV. who in the patent, gave orders that it should be named Gluckstadt, or the Fortunate Town, conferring on it at the same time many privileges. The adjacent country being hollow and marshy, a stone causeway of near four miles in length has been carried along it, and on the land-side the town may be easily laid under water. It has a harbour, adjoining to which is a basin for the reception of vessels; but there being no springs here, the greatest part of the houses have cisterns for the receiving of rain; and those which are without such conveniences, are obliged to use the harbour water, or that of the new moat. Here is the seat of the king's regency, and the offices and courts connected with it. Both the palace congregation and the garrison frequent the town church; the Calvinists have a church of their own, the Papists a chapel, and the Jews a synagogue. The town has several times been besieged, but has never been taken.

Itzehoa, an antient and handsome town, seated on the river Stor, and divided into the Old and New, the latter of which is partly surrounded by the main stream of the Stor, and partly by a canal drawn from it, which separates it from the Old Town. In this part is St. Laurence's church, which is a stately edifice, and near it a convent for ladies of noble birth. Here is also an

alms-house, which has a chapel. In the New Town is St. Nicholas's chapel, the town-house, and a Latin free school.

Rendsburg, a fortified town on the river Eyder, seated on the confines of Germany. It consists of three parts. The Old Town stands on an island in the Eyder, and it was formerly contested whether this island belonged to the dutchy of Sleswic, or to Holstein. The town consists of six hundred houses, and is generally well gar-risoned. In it is the royal armoury, the carriage-house, and the granary, which are large buildings. It has two parish churches, one in the Old Town near a Latin free school, and the other in the New Town. It has its own consistory, and is the seat of the king's general superintendents over Holstein and the bailiwick of Rendsburg. It has a commercial college, established here in 1738 by Christian VI.

Ploen is a town almost environed by a great and small lake: it is divided into the Old and New, the last of which belongs to the bailiwick of Ploen, and in the former is a parish church and a Latin school. Without the Lubec gate is a suburb. The ducal palace here, which was rebuilt by duke Joachim Ernest, stands high, and commands a beautiful prospect. To the westward of this palace, and adjoining to the stable, a garden has lately been laid out, with a park, at the end of which is an hydraulic machine for the conveyance of water to the palace. On one side of it is a spacious kitchen garden, and in an island farther up the lake is a delightful pleasure garden. This town has been four times entirely destroyed by fire.

The duke of Holstein Gottorp's part of this dutchy is about half as large as that which belongs to the king, and brings in a revenue of two hundred thousand rix-dollars.

The principal town in this territory is,

Kiel, the capital of that part of Holstein, subject to the duke, which is situated on a bay of the Baltic, and has a convenient harbour. It is well built, and contains the prince's palace and the state colleges. Besides the town church here is one belonging to the palace, with a convent church, and a chapel at the farther end of the suburbs. It has also an university, founded in 1665 by duke Christian Albert.

We shall now give a particular description of those cities of Holstein which are neither subject to the king of Denmark nor to the duke of Holstein Gottorp, and shall begin with Hamburg, which was formerly the metropolis of all Holstein, till it became a free imperial city. It is seated on the north side of the river Elbe, which there forms a commodious harbour, in the fifty-third degree sixteen minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree thirty-eight minutes east longitude from London. It is seated partly on islands, and partly on the continent, and has a territory that extends twelve miles round, in which are several large villages and fine seats. Its streets are for the most part pretty spacious, and some of them make a grand appearance; but several are very narrow, and there are many lanes. The houses, which are built with brick, are very high, and those in the broad streets make a handsome appearance. This is the second of the Hanse towns, and one of the principal among them. It is not only naturally strong, but is as well fortified by art as a place of its magnitude can well admit of. It is nearly circular, and five or six miles in circumference. The walls and other fortifications that lie open to view, are planted with rows of very high trees, so that on that side of the walls next Altena, none of the houses can be seen. It has six gates, and three entrances by water, namely, two from the Elbe, and one from the Alster. The wall is defended by twenty-three bulwarks, besides other outworks, and a very deep ditch. A noble line with other works run from the largest basin of the Alster to the Elbe, about half a mile above the town; and on the other side of the basin below the town, is the Star-sconce, a fortification so strong, that in 1686, the king of Denmark with all his army could not take it, after a six weeks siege.

The number of houses in Hamburg are said to amount to about thirty thousand, and it has six large market-places. The churches are antient, large, and handsome

structures;

structures; but are open thoroughfares all day long, and in some of them are booksellers shops. Here are six lofty steeples, some of which are covered with copper, though the frames are only of timber. The great spire of St. Peter is the highest, that of St. Michael's is four hundred feet high. St. Nicholas's is supported by large gilt globes. St. Catharine's has a noble front, adorned with statues in niches, and the steeple is formed of several lanterns diminishing to the last, which supports a spire like that of St. Bride's in Fleet-street, London; but is much taller: round the middle of this steeple is a gilt crown, and its organ, which is said to be the best in Europe, has six thousand pipes. The spire of the cathedral, with the tower on which it is supported, are near three hundred and sixty feet high; and though it is secularized, it has a dean and chapter, who with the cathedral and several houses belonging to it, are under the immediate protection of his Britannic majesty, as duke of Bremen. Besides these there are five other very large churches, and eight chapels of ease.

Hamburg has an university, well endowed and furnished with six professors. The senate-house and town-hall form an antient, large, and noble structure. The exchange, which is built opposite to it, is a fine building, but inferior to that in London. The British resident and company have a handsome hall. The emperor and several princes of Germany have their own post-houses; but that for England and Holland is the only one that can be said to belong to the public. Here is also an opera house, chiefly for the residents and other foreigners, of whom there are some from most of the trading kingdoms in Europe. This city is celebrated for its care of the poor; for they have here an hospital for orphans which has a revenue of between fifty and sixty thousand pounds a year: they have sometimes above three hundred infants abroad at nurse, who, when able to dress themselves, are taken into the house: the boys, if they shew extraordinary abilities, are maintained at the university, the rest are put out to trades; and the girls, after they can read, spin, knit, &c. are sent to service. There are also a large hospital for poor travellers that fall sick, and another for the relief of maimed, antient, and decayed seamen, where care is also taken of the widows and children of those who lose their lives in the service of the public. In another about a hundred and fourteen poor, old, blind, and dumb people are maintained. There is likewise St. Job's for the venereal disease; and a pest-house. Besides these hospitals there are many smaller for poor widowers, widows, orphans, &c. and a great number of free schools; with two work-houses, where rugs and coarse kerseys are manufactured, with which those confined are clothed. In one of them, such as have not performed their task are hoisted up in a basket over a table in the hall while the rest are at dinner, that they may be tantalized with the sight and smell of what they must not taste. Here are likewise societies for making good losses by fire.

Hamburg, from its situation, has all possible advantages for foreign and domestic trade, and therefore merchants from all the trading nations in Europe resort thither, and their goods are sent up the Elbe into the heart of Germany: the ships come up to their doors to lade and unlade, and this city has such advantages from its port, its rivers, and canals, that can no where be exceeded in Europe; for, besides the Elbe, which enters the German ocean below the town, a canal is opened into the river Trave, for the sake of a communication with Lubec and the Baltic sea, without going round the coast of Jutland, and the difficulties and expence which attend passing the Sound. Hence its trade is very considerable; for the Elbe, and the many navigable rivers that fall into it, after taking their course through some of the richest and most trading parts in Germany, furnish this city with the produce and manufactures of Austria, Bohemia, and Upper and Lower Saxony. By the Havel and Spree it trades with the electorate of Brandenburg; and by a canal from the Spree to the Oder, its commerce is extended into Silesia, Moravia, Poland, and almost to Hungary.

The principal merchandize exported from Hamburg, especially to Great Britain, are linen of several countries, great quantities of linen yarn, tin plates, brass, steel,

and iron, wire, corn, kid-skins, pipe-staves, clap-boards, and other timber.

The chief articles which the Hamburgers import from abroad are woollen manufactures from England, the value of which from Yorkshire alone, and generally shipped from Hull, is computed to amount to above a hundred thousand pounds a year; with English stockings, and other goods, amounting to a very great sum. The English merchants make a very extraordinary figure here; they form a body that has several privileges, and have a church and minister of their own. The Hamburgers also trade very considerably into Livonia and Russia; and for the goods they send into the north part of the empire, and into Poland, they have a return in linen yarn, fine flax, honey, wax, aniseed, linseed, oil, drugs, &c.

Above two hundred English ships enter this harbour every year, and a great number come from Spain, Portugal, and Italy. This city has a great share in the Greenland whale-fishery, having commonly fifty or sixty ships employed in this trade, whence they are able to export great quantities of oil and whale-bone; but from their great trade upon the Elbe they are obliged to buy more of these articles from the Dutch, than their own ships can supply them with. In time of war they fit out ships of force to convoy their merchantmen; and they are strong at land as well as sea, they having a constant garrison of near two thousand men, and being able to arm twelve or fourteen thousand.

Besides the beer brewed here, great quantities of which are exported, they have erected several manufactures, particularly weaving of damasks, brocades, velvets, and other rich silks, calico-printing, and sugar-baking.

The government of this city is vested in the senate and three colleges of burghers, and is a mixture of the aristocratical and democratical form: the principal persons of the republic are vested with almost every act of sovereignty, while the management of the finances is solely entrusted to the burghers. They are governed by their own magistrates, have no seat or vote in the general diet of the empire, and are only subject to the general laws of the Germanic body. They are, however, under the protection of the emperor, to whom they pay annually eighty thousand crowns.

The common prison in this city for malefactors is in the hangman's house. After sentence is pronounced, which is always on Friday, and the execution on the Monday following, they are carried not to a dungeon, but to a handsome upper room, where they are allowed a good bed, with all reasonable comforts suitable to their condition, and are constantly attended by one of the city clergymen, a duty which they are all obliged to perform by rotation. As no criminal can be put to death without his pleading guilty, they have five degrees of torture in order to extort a confession, and these are applied one after another in proportion to the strength of the evidence in support of the charge or accusation. The degree of the torture is lodged in the breast of the judges, who are always present with a clerk in order to take down the confession, at a table with a curtain drawn round it; so that they can hear and speak to the poor tortured wretch without being eye-witnesses of the cruelty, and can either relax or increase the torture according to the strength and other circumstances of the sufferer. It will not be improper here to observe, that among the several convents of this city, all of which have been secularized and are now Lutheran, one of them is obliged by its foundation to offer a glass of wine to every malefactor that is carried by it to execution.

Few or no beggars are to be seen in the streets of this city, which is partly owing to their being picked up by the beadles, who have a reward for it, and carry them to the house of correction, and partly to the manufacture of knit stockings, worsted being carried by the parish officers to the habitations of the poor, and also wool to be carded and spun; these fetch their work from thence every Saturday, and pay them what they have earned. A curious piece of work here intitles an artificer to the freedom of his company, a benefit that can no otherwise be obtained but either by servitude, by marrying a freeman's widow or daughter, or else at a very great expence.

The merchants of Hamburg are courteous, but too ceremonious and full of compliments; and though very frugal in their own houses, yet are extremely liberal when they treat strangers. They are fond of having gardens at the city gates. Coaches here are very numerous, though the crookedness and narrowness of many of the streets renders them inconvenient, and there is hardly a merchant or even considerable shop-keeper without one. The hackney-coaches are also very numerous. The common carts are only a long pulley to a sort of truckle upon an axle-tree, between two wheels, drawn not by horses, but by a dozen or more men, who are linked to these machines with slings across their shoulders, and drag along a weight of two tons.

Among the other peculiarities, the ladies are attended to church not by a footman, but by a servant-maid, with a book hanging by a silver chain upon one arm, and, if the weather be very cold, with a brass stove upon the other.

Both strangers and natives of the best fashion spend their time at an odd kind of tavern kept in a cellar, or vault, which has a prodigious stock and a great vent for old hock, &c. and brings in a considerable revenue to the state, it being under the management of a deputy, put in by a select number of the magistrates.

Altena is a considerable town seated in a most delightful country on a high shore of the Elbe, not above a cannon-shot to the west of Hamburg. It contains about three thousand houses, and upwards of thirty thousand inhabitants, with two Lutheran churches, and the same number for the German and Danish Calvinists, with a fifth for the French Calvinists, a sixth for the Papists, and two Menonite churches, besides those belonging to other sects, who are allowed the free exercise of their religion: the Jews are also very numerous, and have a large synagogue, but pay two thousand ducats a year as protection-money. Here is a royal seminary, to which the town-school is united, an orphan and poor-house, and an anatomical theatre, with three docks for the building of ships. Among its ornaments is the mall, which, being planted with four rows of trees, forms an agreeable walk. This town has a variety of manufactures, and its trade is far from being inconsiderable.

The origin of its name is thus accounted for: deputies from Hamburg, in a remonstrance to the king of Denmark against building it too near their city, frequently made use of the words *Dat is all te nae*, or That is too near; the king taking particular notice of the three last monosyllables, said banteringly to the deputies, he could not excuse himself from going on building it; but that to oblige them he would call it by the name they had given it. This town is famous for the calamities it suffered in 1712, when count Steinbock, the Swedish general, after defeating the king of Denmark, appeared before Altena, and sending a message to advise the inhabitants to retire with such of their effects as they could carry off, the magistrates came out in a body, and falling at his feet, offered him fifty thousand rixdollars to spare the town. Steinbock insisted on two hundred thousand: this they were ready to comply with, and only begged time to go to Hamburg for the money; but the general would admit of no delay; so that the inhabitants were obliged to leave the place, the mothers with their infants at their breasts, the sons with their aged fathers on their backs, others groaned under loads of household furniture; while all bewailed their fate with dreadful cries and lamentations. While they passed out the Swedes stood ready with flaming torches in their hands, and, before they were all gone out, entered the town and set fire to all parts of it, which burnt about two thousand houses, with several fine magazines, and the popish church; some old men, women, and infants also perished in the flames; but they spared the Lutheran and Calvinist churches, with about eighty houses that lay on the side next Hamburg. The Swedes, in justification of this barbarous proceeding, pretended that magazines of provisions and stores were preparing here for the Russians and Saxons, and that it was done by way of reprisal for the burning of Stade, and other cruelties committed by the Danes and Russians in Bremen and Pomerania. But it ought to be remembered, that the Danes had besieged

Stade in form, and that its destruction proceeded from their bombs; while Steinbock acted the part of a cruel incendiary against naked walls, and a poor defenceless people. What completed the ruin of Altena was the raging of the plague at the same time in Holstein; so that the Hamburgers were forced, for their own preservation, to shut the gates of the city against their distressed neighbours, many of whom perished through cold and want. The king of Denmark, however, relieved them as far as possible, and supplied them with materials for rebuilding their town, which, by the help of charities, has been done in a beautiful manner, and is at present a finer and more pleasant town than ever, it being the market for the sale of goods brought by the Danish East India company from the Indies.

The last place we shall mention in Holstein is Lubec, the chief of the Hanse towns. This city is seated at the confluence of several rivers, the largest of which is the Trave, upon which it has a harbour. It stands fifteen miles to the south-west of the Baltic, and thirty-eight from Hamburg, in the fifty-fourth degree thirty-one minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree forty-two minutes east longitude.

This is a large, rich, populous, free, and imperial city, about two miles in length, and upwards of a mile in breadth. The city stands on the two sides of a long hill of moderate height, the eastern part extending down the declivity towards the river Wackenitz, as the western does towards the Trave. It is environed with walls, towers, false brays, wide moats, and strong ramparts, which being planted with trees, form a very delightful walk. The houses are all of stone, but old fashioned, and the streets, which are pretty straight and lofty, are for the most part steep; but others at the bottom of the hill have a canal running through the middle, with rows of limes on the sides. The churches are magnificent, and amount to about twenty, besides the cathedral. It has several large market-places, and handsome public buildings, particularly the town-house, which is a superb structure, and has several towers. On the ground-floor is the hall of audience, which is well furnished, where the senate assembles, and in this structure are the archives of the Hanse-towns. Here is also a fine exchange. The collegiate church of St. Mary is a noble pile, richly adorned with images and pictures; among the last is one called the Dance of Death. This structure is supported by tall pillars, each of one stone, and has a very lofty spire covered with gilt lead. The nunnery of St. John has an abbess or domina, a prioress, and twenty-two conventualists, and has its own church and chaplain. The convent of St. Mary Magdalen was, at the time of the reformation, converted into a poor house, which has also its particular church and chaplain. In the suppressed convent of St. Catharine has been founded a grammar school of seven classes, and in that building is a public library. The convent of St. Anne has been converted into an alms-house, and house of correction, both which are handsome buildings under excellent regulations. Here is also an hospital dedicated to the Holy Ghost, an orphan house, a small-pox hospital, and many other charitable foundations.

The corporation consists of four burgomasters and sixteen counsellors, who may be either men of letters, patricians, or tradesmen. The burghers consist of twelve companies, each of which has a vote in the public deliberations. An alliance still subsists between Lubec, Hamburg, and Bremen, and under the title of Hanse-towns they negotiate treaties of commerce with foreign powers.

The principal home commodity, besides corn, is their beer, which is highly valued, and much of it exported.

The bishopric of Lubec is a small territory, that has been enjoyed by protestant princes ever since the year 1561, when Lutheranism was established in this bishopric, and it has devolved as an inheritance to a younger son of the duke of Holstein Gottorp, styled duke of Holstein Eutin, from his usual place of residence about five miles from the city; but he has since been raised to the throne of Sweden. This territory extends about sixty miles in compass, containing several small towns, and one hundred and three villages.

S E C T. XXV.

Of the Dutchies of Saxe-Lauenburg, Bremen and Verden, and the Principality of Lunenburg-Zell. Their Situation, Extent, Produce, Government, and principal Towns.

THE dutchy of Saxe-Lauenburg is environed by that of Holstein, the diocese of Lubec, the principality of Ratzeburg, the dutchies of Mecklenburg and Lunenburg, and the four countries, as they are called. The face of the land of this dutchy is for the most part level, and the soil, according to its different goodness, is divided into wheat-land, barley-land, sand and heath. Dr. Busching observes, that in general it requires much labour to make the corn that is sown yield five or six fold; it, however, produces large quantities of flax; great advantages are also made of its woods, and, in good seasons, the mastage of the oak and beech turns to a considerable account; but grazing, however, seems most adapted to the nature of the country, and consequently to be most profitable.

The inhabitants are of the Lutheran religion, and in the whole dutchy there are only three boroughs and one market-town; though the inhabitants amount to about thirty-six thousand souls, manufactures are but little known here. The exports of the country amount annually to about a thousand lasts of rye, four hundred and fifty pound of cheese, seven thousand stone of wool, timber, and wood for fuel, to the amount of twenty thousand rixdollars, a considerable quantity of butter, and some fish.

The king of Great-Britain is entitled, on account of his possessing this dutchy, to a seat and voice in the college of the princes of the empire. But though Saxe-Lauenburg is dependent on the privy council at Hanover, it has its own particular regency, which consists of the chief governor for the time being, and three regency counsellors. It has also its own tribunal, which is composed of a judge, two provincials, and two counsellors at law, with the like number of assessors, who are not in the sovereign's service. The principal places in this dutchy are Ratzeburg and Lauenburg.

Ratzeburg is a strong town, nine miles to the south of Lubec, seated on an island, in a large and deep lake of the same name, from whence a river issues, by means of which boats go to Lubec with goods and passengers. In the year 1693, the Danes bombarding this place, laid it in ashes; but since that time the streets have been regularly built after the Dutch manner. In the market-place stands the regency office, where is also held the chief court of justice and the consistory. Near the lake to the north-west of the town, where boats go off to Lubec, is a delightful walk of limes and ash trees, named Belvedere. One part of the town belongs to the principality of Ratzeburg in Mecklenburg Strelitz: the bridge on that side is above four hundred paces long, and the rebuilding of it cost at least ten thousand rixdollars, Lubec money; but the town is to keep it in repair.

Lawenburg, or Lauenburg, a small town, situated on a hill near the Elbe and Steckenitz, twenty-five miles to the south of Lubec. Several of the houses are built so low, that the upper story lies level with the streets, while the ground floor of others is some ells higher. This town subsists by shipping, and its trade in corn and wood. It is also a great thoroughfare for goods brought up the Elbe to Lubec. Here is a toll on the Elbe, the produce of which is very considerable, and in the town formerly stood the duke's palace, which was erected on an eminence. One wing of this palace still remains, and in it is held the court of the bailiwick of Lawenburg.

We now come to the dutchies of Bremen and Verden; the former terminates to the eastward, on the principality of Lawenburg; to the south-eastward on that of Verden; to the southward on the Weser; to the westward on the same river; and to the northward on a territory belonging to the city of Hamburg, and the river

Elbe. Its dimensions are variously given; but some authors make it sixty miles in length, and fifty in breadth.

The country is very level. The Elbe and the Weser, by which the greatest part of it is environed, receive into them several other rivers; as for instance, the Oste, Schwinge, and the Luke, discharge themselves into the Elbe, and the Weser receives into it the Geeste, the Lesum, the Rodau, and the Wiedau.

The banks of the Elbe, the Oste, and the Weser are bordered with very rich marsh-lands, and in some places the country produces extraordinary plenty of grain and fruit. For the preservation of these marsh-lands against inundations, the dykes and dams are kept in constant repair at a great expence, under the inspection of officers appointed for that purpose. Great numbers of cattle are bred here: the heaths are also covered with sheep, and the breeding of bees is much followed. In some places is dug a kind of free-stone, and in others great quantities of turf, which is exported to Bremen and Hamburg, and used in the brick-kilns and glass-houses. These countries also yield a great deal of flax.

The established religion of the inhabitants is Lutheranism, and in the dutchy of Bremen are one hundred and eleven churches, with one hundred thirty-seven pastors. The supreme inspection of the churches of this dutchy, and of Verden, is vested in a general superintendent. As to the Calvinists, they form seven congregations in the dutchy of Bremen.

The only manufactures here are the making of cordage, linen and woollen cloth, kerseys, and other woollen stuffs.

The dutchy of Bremen was formed out of an archbishopric, which was subdued by the Swedes in 1644; but at the peace of Westphalia in 1648, they returned it as a dutchy and fief of the empire. In 1675, the duke of Brunswic and Lunenburg, in conjunction with the bishop of Munster, over-run the country. The conquerors thought of sharing the dutchies of Bremen and Verden between them; but Sweden kept the whole to herself, except a small part, which was restored to the duke of Brunswic and Lunenburg. During the northern war, these dutchies were reduced by the Danes; but in 1715, king Frederic IV. transferred them to the elector of Brunswic, in lieu of the sum of seven hundred thousand rixdollars, and afterwards Sweden likewise ceded them to that elector; for which the king received a million of rixdollars.

The elector of Brunswic, as duke of Bremen, bears the arms of the archbishopric, that is, Gules two keys in a saltire argent, with a small cross argent in chief.

The dutchies of Bremen and Verden are jointly under the following colleges: the regency, which consists of three counsellors, and is subordinate to the privy council at Hanover; and the chancery, which is composed of three counsellors of the regency, a director, and certain judiciary counsellors, and takes cognizance of criminal and other causes. In the high court of justice sit all the members of the chancery, with seven assessors, who are nominated by the states of each dutchy. To this court of justice all civil cases requiring a judicial decision are subject, as also the officers of the sovereign in affairs in which the prince is concerned, together with the nobility and the magistrates of the towns. From this tribunal appeals are carried to the high-court of appeals at Zell.

The chief branches of the revenues of the elector are those of the domain bailiwicks, excise, stamp-duty, &c. The principal town subject to the king of Great-Britain, as duke of Bremen, is

Stade, which is seated on the Schwinge near the place where that river flows into the Elbe. This town is the seat of the regency of the dutchies of Bremen and Verden, as also of the chancery, chief court of justice, and consistory. It contains three churches, and a Latin school. Stade was formerly a place of considerable trade, and from the year 1586 to 1612 had an English staple, which was removed to Hamburg; but by a concurrence of misfortunes it is now greatly declined. This city has been frequently taken and retaken, but in 1757 his late majesty king George II. caused great improvements to be made in the fortifications.

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We shall now give a particular description of the imperial city of Bremen. It is seated on the Weser, which divides it into the Old and New Town, but both of these are joined by a large bridge, and a smaller one that extends over a little branch of the same river. In the year 1744, all the buildings and inhabitants were numbered, when the Old and New Town, exclusive of the suburbs, contained four thousand seven hundred and seventy-eight houses, with five hundred and sixty-five other edifices, as store-houses, brew-houses, and the like, four thousand and ninety-nine married couple, that is one thousand five hundred and eighty-nine Calvinists, one thousand seven hundred and seventy-two Lutherans, eighty-one Papists, two hundred and eighteen widowers, one thousand two hundred and thirty-nine widows, two hundred and thirty-three single men, who were house-keepers, and three-hundred fifty-nine single women house-keepers.

The Old Town, which is the largest and most populous, is divided into four parishes, according to the four capital churches belonging to the Calvinists, viz. of our Lady, St. Ansgarius, St. Stephen, and St. Martin. In this part stands the cathedral, which belongs to the dutchy, and is frequented by the Lutherans. Under its choir is the lead-cellar, remarkable for the undecayed bodies that lie there. Here is also the convent of St. John with its church, the celebrated academy of the Calvinists, with its spacious library, the armoury, the hospital, in which is an anatomical theatre, the work-house, and other public buildings. Under the large bridge of the Weser is a water-wheel, which works an engine that raises the water by which the city is supplied, as in London, by pipes laid under the streets; and at the other end of this bridge is an ingenious fulling-mill.

In the New Town is St. Paul's church, which belongs to the Calvinists, and in the suburbs are two more. The New Town consists chiefly of gardens and little pleasure-houses belonging to the principal merchants, and other inhabitants of the Old city; it has larger and more regular streets than the latter, and most of them are planted with rows of limes and wild chesnuts. The Calvinist is the established religion, it being professed by the whole body of the corporation, though with respect to numbers they are nearly equalled by the Lutherans. The corporation is composed of four burgo-masters, and twenty-four counsellors, or aldermen. The merchants and tradesmen have their elders; but these have no share in the government of the city. The garrison consists of about six hundred men. Here are several manufactures, and the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade.

Verden is bounded on the east and south by the dutchy of Lunenburg, on the west by the Weser and the dutchy of Bremen, and on the north by the dutchies of Bremen and Lunenburg, extending both in length and breadth about twenty-eight miles.

This dutchy consists chiefly of heaths, and high, dry land, as also of forests; but there are good marsh-lands on the rivers Weser and Aller. The latter waters almost all the southerly, but the Weser only a part of the westerly boundaries of the country, and this last receives also the Aller. The other principal river is the Wumme, which rises on the borders of Lunenburg, traverses the dutchy from east to west, and receives into it the smaller rivers that rise here.

The inhabitants are Lutherans, who have the same consistory with the dutchy of Bremen, and one and the same general superintendent.

Verden was formerly a bishopric founded by Charlemagne; but John Frederic the last bishop was of the royal house of Denmark, and afterwards became king of Denmark and Norway, under the name of Frederic III. At the peace of Westphalia in 1648, the crown of Sweden obtained the bishopric as a dutchy, and in 1712, the Danes invading Bremen, the inhabitants of Brunswick-Lunenburg possessed themselves of the dutchy of Verden, on account of the plague raging in the former. In short, in the year 1715, by virtue of the alliance concluded at Wismar, both Bremen and Verden were ceded by the king of Denmark to the electoral house of

Brunswic-Lunenburg; and this cession was made by the crown of Sweden in the year 1719.

This dutchy has the same regency as that of Bremen, and contains several towns, the principal of which is

Verden, seated on the Aller, a river that divides itself into two branches, the smaller of which lies near the town. It is situated twenty-six miles to the south-east of Bremen, and has four churches, which are the cathedral, the church of St. Andrew, which lies near it, that of St. Nicholas, and that of St. John. There is here also a Latin school.

The dutchy of Lunenburg-Zell is bounded by the river Elbe, which on the north separates it from Holstein and Lauenburg; on the east by the marquisate of Brandenburg, and on the west by the dutchies of Bremen and Westphalia, it extending about a hundred miles in length, and seventy in breadth.

The soil is various, for along the Elbe, the Aller, the Zetze, and some smaller rivers, are fruitful marsh-lands; but other parts of the country consist of barren sand, others of heaths, others of turf, and others are swampy. The worst parts of the country are towards its center, through which lie the main roads; but a traveller is not from thence to form an idea of the whole country. Agreeably to the diversity of its soil, it produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, buck-wheat, flax, hemp, hops, and garden plants. They have also oak, beech, firs, pines, birch, and elder, with other trees. Some bailiwicks do not yield a sufficiency of wheat; but others again have a superfluity; in some, few horned cattle and horses are bred, though in others they abound. The heaths are covered with numerous flocks of a small kind of sheep, that have long and coarse wool; and the culture of bees is so great, as to afford considerable quantities of honey and wax. Lunenburg abounds in excellent lime-stone and valuable salt springs, and the rivers yield plenty of fish.

With respect to the rivers, the Elbe, which traverses the east and north side of this country, is of considerable advantage, from its fertilizing the adjacent marsh-lands, and its having fisheries, navigations, and tolls. This river receives into it the Zetze, which flows from Brandenburg; the Ilmenau, another navigable river which rises in this country; the Luhe, which also rises here; the Seeve, and other smaller rivers. The Aller, which is also navigable, traverses the whole southern part of the dutchy, and being joined by several small rivers, continues its course into the dutchy of Verden.

The inhabitants of this country are of the Lutheran religion, and there are near two hundred parish churches in this dutchy. These are divided into fifteen superintendencies, and over these are appointed two general superintendents.

The principal manufactures made here are those of linen, cotton, woollen cloths, ribbons, stockings, and hats; and at Zell are some ingenious artificers in gold and silver.

The exports chiefly consist of corn, meal, garden-stuff, hops, flax, starch, timber, beams, masts, all kinds of wooden ware, ships, barges, boats, horses, black cattle, fatted calves, milk, butter, cheese, poultry, wool, wax, honey, salt, sugar, thread, linen, knit and wove stockings, stuffs, works in gold and silver, &c. The conveyance of merchandize from this place to and from Hamburg, Lubec, and Altena, affords a considerable branch of commerce; many of the inhabitants procuring subsistence by navigating the rivers.

The principal towns in this dutchy are the following:

Lunenburg, the capital, is seated on a navigable river called the Elmen, or Ilmenau, which runs through a part of the town. This city is fourteen miles to the south-west of Lawenburg; it is surrounded with moats and walls, strengthened with towers, and is two miles and a half in compass. It consists of thirteen hundred houses, with between eight and nine thousand inhabitants. Here are three parish churches, that of St. John, to which is annexed the superintendency, with a Latin school consisting of five classes; and those of St. Nicholas and St. Lambert. In the church of St. Mary was formerly a convent of Minims, which at present serves for the town armoury, a library, and a house of correction.

tion. It has also three hospitals, two of which have each a church. In the market-place stands the prince's palace, with the guild-hall, and fronting them is the Præmonstratensian abbey of Heilighenthal, which was sequestered by the magistracy in 1530, and its church now serves for a magazine of salt. In 1753 an anatomical theatre was built here. The convent of St. Michael, which was formerly of the Benedictine order, and consisted of monks of noble families, embraced the sentiments of Luther in the year 1532; and in 1655 duke Christian Lewis, with the approbation of the nobility, suppressed the monastery, and founded within it a school for martial exercises, which is stiled the academy. The director, like the antient superior of this house, is the head of the states of this principality; he is also president of the provincial college, and next in rank to the privy counsellors. This person is even stiled excellency, and in public instruments makes use of the following title: By the grace of God, landschaft, director, and lord of the mansion of St. Michael, in Lunenburg. He is also chancellor of the academy, where young gentlemen, natives of the principality of Lunenburg, are maintained gratis; but foreigners are educated at a certain price, and taught French, fencing, riding, and dancing. The members of this academy live in a spacious stone edifice, built in the year 1711, and counts and even princes have been of their number. Within the conventual church of St. Michael is the antient burial-place of the dukes, and on its great altar stands a celebrated golden table, which is a board formerly plaited over with gold; but which, in 1698, was stripped by a famous robber named Nickel List; so that at present only a small quantity of the gold remains. In the convent is also a Latin school of four classes, to which belongs the hospital of St. Benedict, with its chapel, and several country churches and considerable estates.

In a part of the city, within the walls, salt springs arise; this quarter, which is called the Sulze, is walled in, and has its own separate magistrates. It consists of fifty-four small houses built deep in the earth, and in each are four large leaden cisterns, which are new cast every month for receiving the salt water, which is left to exhale in them in order to form the salt. These springs are very copious, and four of them are in this place, three in one of the town moats, and one near the building that once served for a Minorite convent. From these several springs the salt-water is conveyed by pipes into a reservoir in the Sulze, and there distributed among the houses. The salt-houses are fifty-four in number, and contain two hundred and sixteen cisterns of salt, which are daily boiled; and of these salt-works a fifth part belongs to the sovereign.

To the west of the city are two rocks, known by the names of Schildstein and Kalkberg. The latter is near the New-gate, and even within its walls. This is a steep rock, in which are spacious caverns that contain a great number of terrasses. Towards the city it is surrounded by a crown-work, which joins the town wall; on the other side is erected a horn-work; and round its summit, which is level, runs a breast-work, on which are planted some cannon.

The exports of this city consist of salt, lime, and beer, wax, honey, wool, flax, linen, and frieze. Goods are also brought here from all parts of Germany, and forwarded down the Ilmenau to Hamburg, and by means of the Achse to Lubec; their returns coming the same way. The warehouses for these imports and exports stand on the Ilmenau, and the commerce carried on here is superintended by a particular commission.

Ultzen is a town seated on the Ilmenau, by two branches of which it is surrounded. Here that river first receives its name, it being formed by the conflux of eleven rivulets. It was once navigable at this place; ships from England even traded here, and the antient harbour belonging to it is still to be seen. In the great church is also shewn a ship of gilt copper, which was a present to the corporation from the English. The town contains about three hundred and twenty-nine houses, three hundred and four of which belong to the burghers, and the others are inhabited by the gentry, ecclesiastics, and men of letters. The first minister of the great

church is provost, and superintendent of seventeen country ministers. In the town are two alms-houses, with a church to one of them; and without the town is another alms-house, with a church. The adjacent country produces a very fine sort of flax, and the neighbouring villages weave great quantities of linen. The town had formerly a very flourishing trade in thread, linen, woolen, wax, beer, and brandy, and received great advantage from its being a considerable thorough-fare for goods and persons; but its trade is at present greatly declined.

Zell is a fortified and well built city, seated on the Aller, which is here navigable, and, in conjunction with the suburb of Fritzenwiese, consists of five hundred and sixty-four houses; but, including the other suburbs, summer-houses, and buildings without the gates, their number amounts to about fourteen hundred. At this place are held the high court of appeals for the several territories of the electoral house of Brunswic-Lunenburg, with the chancery, and chief tribunal of the principality of Lunenburg. The other public edifices are the guild-hall, the riding-house, the mews, and the armoury. The remarkable buildings in the suburbs are the Neustadt church, that of the Calvinists, the prince's mews and garden, St. George's alms-house, the Alumlager church, the alms-house of St. Anne, the hospital for disabled soldiers, and the orphan-house. This town principally subsists by its being a great thorough-fare, and the seat of the high court of appeals. It has manufacturers and artificers in various branches, particularly in gold and silver, whose performances are much admired even in other countries.

Haarburg, a town seated on the Seeve, which runs through it, and, after being joined by the Engelbach, discharges itself, near this place, into the Elbe. It consists of four hundred and seventy-two houses, besides those belonging to noblemen, and is the seat of the two general superintendences of this principality; as likewise of a special superintendency under the direction of the general superintendent, who is always the head minister of the parish church. Here are manufactures of cotton, stockings, hats, ribbons, wax-bleachery, starch, and the refining of sugar. As Haarburg is commodiously situated for commerce and navigation, it carries on a considerable trade to Holland in knee-timber, beams, masts, and floats.

SECT. XXV.

Of the Dutchy of Brunswic-Lunenburg, or the Electorate of Hanover, with the Principality of Grabenhagen, and the Counties of Blackenburg and Rheinstein; their Situation, Extent, Produce, Manufactures, Government, and principal Cities and Towns.

THE dutchy of Brunswic, taken at large, includes the dutchy of Hanover, the principality of Grabenhagen, and the counties of Blackenburg and Rheinstein; and is bounded on the south by Thuringia and Hesse Cassel; on the west by the river Weser, which divides it from the principality of Minden, and the counties of Lippe and Hoyer; on the north by Lunenburg; and on the east by Magdeburg, and the principalities of Halberstadt and Anhalt.

But within this compass is included not only the dutchy of Brunswic-Lunenburg, which belongs to the king of Great Britain, but Brunswic-Wolfenbüttele, which is governed by its own sovereign, and will be hereafter described: we are now to treat only of the former.

The dutchy of Hanover, also called Calenberg, from a castle that was formerly the residence of the prince, is bounded on the north by Lunenburg-Zell; on the east by the dutchy of Brunswic-Wolfenbüttele, and the bishopric of Hildesheim; on the south by Grubenhagen, which Moll calls Brunswic-Lunenburg; and on the west by the county of Schawenburg; extending thirty three miles from north to south, and eighteen from east to west.

All the rivers, streams, and brooks in this principality discharge themselves either into the Weser, or the Leina. The former of these washes it on the west, and the latter on the east. The principal mountains are the Deister and the Suntel in the north, and the Solingerwald in the south; but the mountainous and stony parts, with the morasses, heaths, and sands, yield very little: this country has, however, many marshy, clayey, and loamy tracts, mixed with earth and sand, where all kinds of fruit and vegetables thrive, as wheat, rye, barley, oats, lentils, peas, beans, vetches, buck-wheat, plenty of good fruit, excellent garden plants and roots, hops, flax, and tobacco. It has also fine woods of oak, beech, pine, asp, birch, alder, &c. which afford timber for the building of ships and houses; as also wood for fuel and other uses. The mastage from the oaks and beech are likewise of great advantage.

This country also abounds in a large breed of horses, black cattle, and sheep; and there is here no want of venison, game, and fish. At several places in this principality are marl-pits, quarries of free-stone and mill-stones, coal-pits, and mines of rich iron ore.

In this country there is no want of manufactures, great quantities of linen yarn are spun here, and linen wove not only sufficient for home consumption, but likewise for exportation, particularly a most beautiful damask. The printing of linen is here brought to such perfection, that it begins to take place of the use of India chintz and calicoes. Cotton is likewise spun here, and knit or wove into stockings, gloves, and caps. The oil-skins and carpets printed and painted here are of the best sort. Various branches of the woollen manufacture are made in this principality, more particularly at Gottingen; among these are light and substantial fine cloths, which, for their beauty and the brightness and durableness of the colours, equal the best cloths made in Holland. The worsted stockings made at Gottingen are also distinguished for their fineness. At Hanover are two celebrated gold and silver manufactures for galloons and laces; as also for fringes, tassels, embroidery, and other works. Among the other manufactures are silks, stuffs, stockings, and ribbons. In different parts are iron-works, mills for the flattening of copper, powder mills, paper and fulling mills, brass foundries, glass-houses, &c. Large quantities of goods manufactured here are sent abroad, particularly linen, linen-yarn, Gottingen cambrics, baraguins, and other stuffs, in which a great trade is carried on to Hamburg, Bremen, Holland, Francfort, and even to Italy.

In this principality are nineteen cities and seventeen towns. The four following are styled the great cities: Gottingen, Hanover, Nordheim, and Hamelen, the others being called the small; and in the whole principality are three abbeys and six convents, which last are all inhabited, one by men, and five by women. There are here also two hundred and ten Lutheran parish churches, five churches belonging to the Calvinists, and six churches and chapels of the Roman catholics.

There are few sovereign princes whose finances are said to be in so good a condition as those of this elector's, owing to the œconomy of the two preceding princes, who have yet kept up a splendour suitable to their rank: the government here being said to be the least despotic of any in the empire; for the elector can neither make laws, nor raise taxes, without the consent of the states, consisting of the nobility, clergy, gentry, and towns, who meet regularly every year.

The princes of the two illustrious houses of Brunswick are descended from Ernest duke of Lunenburg, who died in 1546; the Wolfenbüttele and Bevern branches, (the former of which is now extinct) from Henry the eldest son, and the electoral house of Hanover from William the youngest. The electorate attached to the dutchies of Hanover and Zell was concerted at the congress held at the Hague in the year 1692, by king William III. and effected by his influence, in conjunction with that of most of the protestant princes of the empire. Accordingly the same year, the emperor Leopold conferred the dignity of elector on prince Ernest, grand-

father of his late majesty king George II. and his heirs, with the title of standard-bearer to the empire. This, however, met with opposition from the college of princes, and particularly from the pope and his adherents. However, in 1708, after the death of Ernest, the first elector, the three colleges of the empire agreed to the establishment of this new electorate in the person of his eldest son, afterwards George I. king of Great Britain, who then took his seat in the diet: but the office of standard-bearer being claimed by the duke of Wurtemberg, the title of arch-treasurer of the empire was the next year given instead of it to the elector of Hanover.

The revenues of the elector from all his German dominions rising from salt-pits or springs, taxes, and cattle, merchandize and inns, especially from rich mines of silver, iron and copper, are computed to amount to at least four hundred thousand pounds per annum; or, according to Mr. Hanway's computation, at four millions of dollars, or seven hundred thousand pounds; and it is said, that from these dominions alone he may raise an army of between thirty and forty thousand men, without greatly burdening his subjects. His majesty, the present elector, has here some troops of life-guards, and two regiments of foot guards, of one battalion each, with an uniform of red, lined with blue, and at the court of Hanover are the officers of state usually found in the courts of crowned heads.

The government here is under the management of the six following councils. I. The council of state, to which all Hanover is subject, which receives orders immediately from the elector, countersigned by a German envoy from that electorate, who always attends the British court.

II. The war-office.

III. The treasury.

IV. The chancery.

V. The justice court, and

VI. The consistory, which is composed of the ministers or presbytery of the city of Hanover, assisted by lay-elders, who are generally persons distinguished for their learning and piety as well as rank. It is observable, that every protestant prince and state in Germany has this kind of spiritual courts; but these have no power in civil affairs, divorces only excepted; and the prince, or state, has always a deputy present at all their meetings, to be a check upon their power, and to keep it within due bounds.

This principality is divided into three quarters or departments; the first of which is the Hanover quarter, in which are eight cities, three towns, two abbeys, six convents, and two hundred and twelve villages.

The city of Hanover, the capital of his Britannic majesty's German dominions, and the seat of the electors before their accession to the crown of Great Britain, is pleasantly situated on a sandy hill upon the Leina, which is only navigable for small boats, in the fifty-second degree twenty-nine minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree forty-five minutes east longitude, that is three hundred and sixty-five miles east of London, and forty miles to the west of Brunswic. It is walled round, regularly fortified, and the ravelins before the gates well provided with cannon; but does not seem remarkable for its strength. The houses are mostly of timber and clay, though many are of stone and brick; but the streets are broad, and in winter well lighted with lanterns. It contains about twelve hundred houses, some of which are very large and handsome structures. The Neue Graben, as it is the newest, makes the best appearance of any part of the city. The elector's palace, is situated on the banks of the Leina, and as it suffered greatly by fire in the year 1741, a considerable part of it has been since rebuilt with great magnificence. It has several courts, and the rooms which are grand and commodious, are chiefly hung with very rich tapestry. In apartments in this structure the privy-council and commissioners of war hold their meetings. The opera house, and the theatre for the French comedians are both within the palace, and though antient are commodious; but the whole is rather rich, decent, and elegant, than very splendid.

splendid. The guard is always mounted, and an open table kept, even when the king is not in his electoral dominions, at which time the administration is conducted with the utmost dignity. During the whole winter a play is exhibited, and a concert performed twice a week, at his majesty's expence, when the courtiers without exception take place according to their rank. In the church belonging to the palace, which is very splendid, is kept a treasure of great value, consisting of reliques, gold and silver plate and gems, collected by duke Henry the Lion, in his journey to the East in 1171, and the succeeding years. The elector's armoury and fine stables stand in a row along the Leina. The states house in East-street is a very noble structure, and within it are held the diets and high court of justice. In the same street is also the Lockumer Hof, where the abbot of the convent of Lockum resides, and near St. Giles's church is the chancery. In the Old Town there are only three parish churches, and one for the garrison. Besides these structures, there is an orphan house, the hospital of the Holy Ghost, the poor house belonging to the magistracy, a spinning-house, and a house of correction.

The New Town, which lies on the other bank of the river, has a communication with that already described by means of bridges. This part is fortified, and though it consists of only three hundred and seventy six houses, is populous, and makes a good appearance. It is the seat of the consistory for the electoral territories, and likewise of the general and special superintendency. In the market-place is a curious grotto, but the water-works belonging to it are fallen to decay. In the same part is also the church of St. John, and on the parade is a large edifice of stone, in which are kept the electoral archives and library; the latter of which is one of the most copious and splendid in all Germany. There are here also several palaces, a German and a French Calvinist church, another for the Roman catholics, a Jewish synagogue, and a Latin free-school.

In short, Hanover is in many respects a pleasant city, and, though it does not equal Berlin and Dresden, may be esteemed elegant; but it has no trade worth mentioning.

The neighbouring country makes an agreeable appearance, and the number of kitchen and pleasure-gardens before the gates, with the elegant buildings belonging to them, appear very extraordinary; particularly there is a delightful vista which extends to Monbrillant and Herrenhausen, two electoral palaces; but the former is now falling to decay.

The palace of Herrenhausen is seated about two miles to the north of the city. But Mr. Hanway observes, that he does not know whether he was more mortified or more surprized to find that the building fell vastly short of his expectations; for though in England, it is said, our hospitals are palaces, and our palaces more proper for hospitals, yet he had conceived the opinion that this palace, so much talked of, was indeed grand, and worthy of his majesty. It was built in the year 1670, by Ernest Augustus, the late king's grandfather: the greatest part of it is of wood, and the apartments in general rather give the idea of a large antient mansion-house belonging to a private gentleman in England, than of the palace of a great monarch: but it has rich furniture, and some good pictures. The garden, however, is justly worthy of admiration. Our author had seen none in Germany comparable to it, though it wants those exquisite charms, and that enchanting variety, capable of being produced by an inequality of ground, of which we have numerous proofs in Great Britain. One side of the garden has a narrow piece of water above a quarter of a mile in length. The walks, which are wide and spacious, are mostly laid with gravel. The garden is divided into large squares and basons, and in the intermediate spaces are lofty groves and one of the finest orangeries in Europe. Here are beautiful cascades, and noble fountains, with very large basons; among these the jet d'eau, erected in 1716 by Mr. Benson, perhaps exceeds any thing of the kind in the whole world: it throws the water seventy feet high. Here also, according to the German taste, is a sylvan theatre, cut out in green seats, with arbours and sum-

mer-houses for the actors to dress in; and here are sometimes exhibited plays and masquerades: this theatre is adorned with statues, and occasionally illuminated in a grand taste.

The next division in this country is called the Hamelen and Lauenau quarter, which contains three cities, ten boroughs, and a hundred and twenty-eight villages. The most considerable place in this division is

Hamelen, a fortified city, twenty-three miles south-west of Hanover, seated in a fine country on the banks of the Weser, which washes it to the west, and over it is a bridge of nine wooden arches supported by stone piers. The Weser also forms at this place a small island, and for the farther convenience of shipping here is an admirable sluice, finished in 1734, at the expence of eighty thousand rixdollars. The river Hamel, whence the town obtains its name, runs into the town moats, and continuing its course round the walls, discharges itself into the Weser. In this city are six hundred houses belonging to the burghers, and fifty ecclesiastical and other edifices. Though the town consists of but one parish, it has two churches, an abbey, now secularized, besides a church belonging to the French Calvinists, and once a quarter the Roman catholics perform divine worship in a house hired for that purpose. Here is also a Latin free-school, an hospital, and a poor-house. Here are woollen, silk, and stocking manufactures; and from hence great quantities of thread and linen are exported.

The Gottingen quarter is situated apart from the others, and once constituted a distinct principality. It contains eight towns, with the same number of secularized convents, fifteen royal bailiwicks, and eleven noblemen's jurisdictions, under which are four market-towns and a hundred and seventy-nine villages. The principal places in this district are the following:

Gottingen, a city seated in the fifty-first degree forty-six minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree fifty-six minutes east longitude, in a fertile, spacious, and pleasant vale, along the water called the New Leina, which is a canal drawn from the river of that name. This canal separates the Old from the New Town, and the marsh. The ramparts which encompass the town command a delightful prospect of gardens, with meadows, fields, and eminences. These are about six hundred and ninety-seven rods in circuit, and would form a fine walk were the useless breast-works on it removed. The town consists of above a thousand houses; and, since the university has been built, is so embellished with new buildings, that it is at present one of the best built towns in all Lower Saxony, and the fine free-stone pavement on both sides of the streets have few equals. In winter the streets are illuminated with lamps. In the town are five parish churches, the principal of which is that of St. John, together with an alms-house, that has a church and particular preacher of its own; as also another for the Calvinists. The Papists here say mass in a private house. The church of the bare-footed friars is converted into an armoury.

The principal ornament and advantage of this city is the university, named Georgia Augusta, founded in the year 1734, by king George II. in the room of the antient Gymnasium in the Dominican convent founded in 1586. This university has acquired a distinguished reputation. It has a large splendid church, which was that belonging to the Dominicans, and to it belongs a new and stately structure of stone, the ground floor of which serves as a hall for public lectures, and in that above it is the library, with the council chamber, and other apartments. This library, to which considerable additions are every year made, is called the Bulowan, from its receiving its original from a collection of about ten thousand volumes, bequeathed by baron Bulow, for the public use, and by his heirs given to the university. A royal society of sciences founded in 1751, and a royal German society also form a part of the university; it has likewise a fine observatory, erected on a tower that stands on one of the ramparts, together with a noble physic garden, near which is a handsome anatomical theatre, a school for teaching midwifery, a *seminarium philologicum*, under the direction of the professor of eloquence,

quence, and an academy of exercises. The Latin free-school here is under excellent regulations, and governed by eight masters.

Along the marsh, from the New Leina to the town wall, runs a beautiful vista of lime-trees. Many curious manufactures are carried on in this city, which has a great trade. The administration of justice for the town-courts is vested in a judge, nominated by the sovereign himself and the magistracy. In the year 1757 and 1758 this city was for some time in the hands of the French.

Nordheim is situated on the Ruhme, which here divides itself into two branches, over each of which is a stone bridge. This is the third in order of the great towns of Hanover; it contains five hundred houses, and has an antient abbey now secularized; but has only one parish church, and a grammar-school; yet carries on some manufactures. The governor of the town examines causes, and manages trials; but the sentence is pronounced by the burgomaster and council, without his concurrence.

Munden, a town situated in a vale by the Fulda, which a little below this place joins the Werra, from which conflux the river is called the Weser. These streams, with the meadows along the Weser, the neighbouring gardens, woods, and hills, form on all sides delightful prospects; but the town frequently suffers by inundations. It consists of six hundred and seven houses, and in it are two Lutheran parish churches, with a Latin free-school and an alms-house. The Calvinists perform their worship in an elegant building, in which is an organ. In the town is a double garrison, that is, one of four companies maintained by the town, and a regiment belonging to the sovereign that is quartered in barracks. These barracks are situated in a large stone edifice, that was originally a palace built by duke Eric the younger. The burghers of Munden are free of Brunswic and Osterade, and those of Osterade and Brunswic free of Munden. The town has above two hundred gardens belonging to it, but has little corn-land. The inhabitants chiefly consist of silk and damask-weavers, vinegar-brewers, tobacco-spinners, and necessary artificers; but the principal support of the town is derived from its traffic and navigation.

We now come to the principality of Grubenhagen, so called from its formerly belonging to the family of the Grubes; it is surrounded by those of Hanover and Wolfenbüttele, the county of Wernigerode, the principality of Blankenburg, the county of Hohenstein, the lordship of Klößen, and Eichfeld; and one distinct part of it is entirely encompassed by Hanover, Wolfenbüttele, and a part of the diocese of Hildesheim. This tract of country, which includes a part of the Hartz forest, is about forty miles long, and the same in breadth; but is almost over-run with woods.

This country has some fertile tracts that produce wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, beans, and buck-wheat; but the greatest part of it being mountainous, and little corn growing in the lands bordering on the Hartz, and none at all within that forest, agriculture is far from being the principal employment of the inhabitants, who are obliged to be supplied with corn from other countries. They have, however, great quantities of flax, the cultivation of which, and making it into thread and linen, are among the principal occupations of the inhabitants. In some bailiwicks the breeding of horned cattle and sheep turns to a pretty good account; but their principal advantages arise from the large forests, quarries, and mines of this country. These forests consist of oak, beech, pines, birch, and alder: its minerals and fossils are chiefly free-stone, marble, slate, lime, gypsum, alabaster, jasper, salt, zink, sulphur, and cobalt; its metals are some gold, with a great deal of silver, copper, iron, and lead.

The principal rivers that run through this principality are the Leina, the Oder, and the Ocker.

The exports of this country are flax, thread, linen, timber, sand, stone, slate, marble-works, iron, copper, lead, salt, vitriol, sulphur, lapis calaminaris, zink, powder-blue, starch, various woollen manufactures, and fatted sheep.

Lutheranism is the only religion of this country, which has forty-one parish churches, besides those in Einbec and Osterode, all ranged under four superintendents; but the ministers of those cities are not subordinate to them; but have seniors of their own. The principal towns in this country are

Einbec, which is seated on the Ilne, one branch of which runs through the town, and the other above it; but both meeting soon after, run into the Leina. The town of Einbec is encompassed with ramparts, bulwarks, towers, moats, and several out-works, and contains about seven hundred and sixty houses belonging to the citizens, seventy-seven public edifices, and eight hundred fourteen granaries, stables, and other out-houses. The city is divided into three parts, called the Markt, the Neustadt, and the Munster. In the two first are parish churches; but the last has been incorporated with the cathedral of St. Alexander. Among the other public buildings are a grammar school belonging to the corporation, which has seven masters, an orphan-house, in which forty or fifty children are educated, under the immediate direction of the royal regency, they being maintained out of the provincial revenues. The hospital of the Holy Ghost, the great poor-house of St. Bartholomew, and a lesser poor-house. In this city are made cloth, flannels, baize, shalloons, serges, crapes, calamanços, druggets, dimity, and other stuffs, and at the orphan-house they carry on the printing of linen and cotton.

Osterode is situated near the Hartz, by a little river called Apenke, and consists of five hundred and eighty-two houses, with a castle, in which several of the dukes of Brunswic-Lunenburg have resided. In the town is a superintendency, with three parish churches, a Latin school, and a granary erected for the use of the miners and other labourers on the Brunswic part of the Hartz, and from whence they are always supplied with rye at a moderate price.

Scharzfels is a remarkable castle, which stands on a high mountain, or rather a vast rock, on the borders of the Hartz. The only access to it is by means of high stone-steps, at the summit of which is a round free-stone tower of a considerable height and thickness, but without any roof. In the lower part of the castle are barracks erected along the wall. This fortress is defended by a few cannon; it has a small garrison under the direction of a commandant, and here state-prisoners are sometimes confined. In it is a very deep well, the water of which is drawn up by means of a large wheel. On descending northwards from the mountains, after passing through a narrow valley, and then ascending a hill, you come to the famous Scharzfel cave, which properly consists of five caverns, all lying in a row. The first of these is very large and clear, the ground being sunk in towards the center, and thus admits the light; but the others are quite dark.

Before we take leave of this country, it is proper to take notice of that part of the Hartz which is included in it, and subject to Brunswic-Lunenburg.

It is observable, that the air is here so cold, that the winters usually last one-half of the year. The rains, snows, and fogs are here more frequent than in the level countries round it; yet those who live above ground, and not among the mines, and forges, arrive to as great an age as the inhabitants of the plains. Tillage and the cultivation of fruits turn to no account; so that the whole harvest consists of good hay. The trees which cover the mountains consist of oak, beech, ash, aspen, alder, birch, &c. but two-thirds of them are firs, pines, and other soft wood. The abundance of timber is here the more valuable, as without it the mines and forges could not subsist. The minerals found here are yellow oker, vitriol, sulphur, lapis calaminaris, borax, cobalt, lead, iron, copper, silver, and some gold.

The Brunswic-Lunenburg Hartz being divided into the Upper and Lower, the mine-workers are distinguished by the same divisions. The Upper Hartz, with its mine-works, is termed particular, or belonging only to the electoral house of Brunswic; or else common. The produce of the particular mine-works about the year

1724, reckoning silver, copper, iron, lead, and borax, amounted to no less than seven hundred and six thousand one hundred and twenty-five rixdollars; and on deducting the expence out of this sum, the surplus accruing to the sovereign amounted to about a hundred and thirty-six thousand rixdollars, and that arising to the other proprietors to a hundred and twenty thousand five hundred and sixty-seven. The common mine-works in the Upper Hartz used to yield annually in the above-mentioned ores about two hundred and eighty-six thousand rixdollars, of which the surplus arising to the sovereign amounted to about fifty-three thousand rixdollars, and that of the sharers to nineteen thousand seven hundred and seven. The common mine-works of the Lower Hartz have produced annually in gold, silver, copper, lead, borax, sulphur, green and white vitriol, zink, and pot-ash, about a hundred and eighty thousand six hundred and eight rixdollars, of which near ninety-six thousand are its neat produce. Thus the whole Hartz yield annually about one million one hundred and seventy-two thousand seven hundred and thirty-three rixdollars, of which, to the value of two thousand eight hundred and eighty are gold, which is coined into ducats, and eight hundred and two thousand eight hundred and sixty silver, which, after a deduction of all charges, the neat profit amounts to four hundred and twenty-five thousand two hundred and seventy-four rixdollars.

The silver is coined immediately in the Hartz, and the other products the mine-offices at Hanover and Wolfenbottle take at a stipulated price, making their returns in tallow, leather, and other necessities for the mine-works, which are also furnished at a certain rate.

The inhabitants of the Hartz are composed of miners, labourers in the smelting-houses, wood-heavers, carriers, and the sovereign's officers and servants; together with ministers, school-masters, artificers, and tradesmen, who have there no other taxes but one rixdollar on every house, and a lodger and mine-officer only half a rixdollar, with a small excise on the beer carried thither; and even this is applied to the benefit of the miners and labourers in the smelting-houses.

The principal places in the Hartz are,

Clausthal, a considerable mine-town, which has broad streets, and upwards of nine hundred houses; it contains about ten thousand inhabitants, two churches, a grammar-school, which has nine masters, and an orphan-house. This is the seat of the mine-office, which belongs particularly to the elector of Brunswic-Lunenburg, and has a mint, in which between four and five hundred rixdollars are annually coined. There is here also a house for the smelting of silver.

Cellerfeld is an open mine-town, separated from Clausthal only by a small rivulet. This is the seat of the mine-bailiwick-office of the common Upper Hartz; as also of a common mint, in which between two hundred and fifty thousand and three hundred thousand rixdollars are annually coined in silver specie. The town contains about five hundred and sixty houses, a good library at the parish church, and a Latin school. This town suffered greatly by fire in 1737 and 1753.

What is here particularly called the Lower Hartz, is a steep high mountain of pretty large extent, also named Rammelsberg, which is possessed in common by the electoral and princely houses. The ores found in it are of a very solid texture, and make such resistance against the hammer and wedge, that for the easier dissolution of them, the workmen are obliged to make use of fire. On this mountain are twelve mines, of which the magistracy of Goslar work four, though to a disadvantage, they being obliged to deliver a certain part of the ore gratis to the sovereign, and to sell the remainder to him at the price formerly stipulated to them, which it at present too low; but on default of this the town forfeits its forest-right, which it holds on these conditions.

Goslar, a free imperial city at the foot of Rammelsberg, is seated on the river Gose, which at a small distance from the town discharges itself into the Ocker. The buildings are in the old taste, except in that part of the town that was burnt down in 1728, and has been rebuilt in the modern manner. The established religion is Lutheranism, and in the city are four parish churches

and two Lutheran foundations, which are that of St. Simon and St. Jude, that was founded as a canonry of Augustins in the year 1040, by the emperor Henry III. and the imperial foundation of Petersburg, which received its rise from the munificence of the same prince and his consort Agnes, in honour of St. Peter. The building has been pulled down by the burghers, and, since the year 1603, the chapel of St. Catherine has been assigned for the canons, who are Lutherans, and their principal officer, who is a dean. Here are two other Lutheran convents, that of Frankenberg, which consists of a domina and three conventualists, which belongs to the principality of Wolfenbottle; and the nunnery at Neuenwerk, which is dependent on the magistracy, and has a church of its own. The city derives its principal subsistence from the neighbouring mines, the inhabitants being chiefly employed either in digging, cleansing, tempering, and vending the metals and minerals, or making and selling the hard-ware formed of them. They also have breweries of beer, and trade in provisions, which they sell into the Hartz. This city is under the protection of the king of Great Britain, as elector of Hanover, alternately with the duke of Brunswic-Wolfenbottle. Here Bartold Schwartz, a Benedictine monk, is said to have discovered the art of making gunpowder.

S E C T. XXVI.

Of the Dutchy of BRUNSWIC-WOLFENBUTTLE.

Its Situation, Produce, and Rivers: the Religion and Commerce of the Inhabitants: the Title, Arms, Offices, Revenues, and Forces of the Prince; with the principal Places in this Dutchy.

WOLFENBUTTLE forms a part of the dutchy of Brunswic, and is divided into two parts by Halberstadt and the diocese of Hildesheim. The north part is environed by Lunenburg, Brandenburg, Magdeburg, Halberstadt, and Hildesheim. The south part lies between the two last, the county of Wernigerode, Grubenhagen, Hanover, Cowey, and the county of Lippe.

The eastern half of the south part, which lies between the Leina and the Ecker, contains under it a part of the Hartz, with the mine salt-works, which the prince holds in common, as hath been already observed, with the elector of Brunswic-Lunenburg. The southern part of this principality consists chiefly of hills and woods, with little arable land; but, on the other hand, has great plenty of timber, iron, and glass-houses, the manufactures of which are greatly admired, particularly those of looking-glasses; with a fine porcelain manufacture. The north part of the principality is more level, and produces corn, flax, and hemp, with all kinds of pulse and fine fruit; grazing also turns to good account; the breeding of silk-worms is now followed here, and premiums are assigned by the prince for the encouragement of the production of silk.

The Weser and the Leina are the principal rivers in the south part of the principality; and here also, as well as in the Hartz, flow the Innerste and Ocker: there are here likewise the Aller, and a canal drawn between Querum and Glissenrode, which is of singular advantage, and was opened in the year 1750.

The established religion is Lutheranism, and both the pastors and congregations are at present under five general superintendents. At Brunswic both the Calvinists and Papists are permitted the use of a church.

The manufactures of Wolfenbottle consist in the spinning of thread, and the weaving of linen; the making of woollen cloth, and silk stuffs, Turkey, and other sorts of dressed leather; the bleaching of wax, and making of porcelain; in lead, iron, and steel founderies. The trade of the country consists in these and other articles; as in minerals, turnery, and cabinet-makers work, with Brunswic mum, and the beer of Konigslutter.

The prince's title is only that of duke of Brunswic and Lunenburg, which he enjoys in common with the king of Great Britain; both, as hath been already observed

served in treating of Hanover, being descended from the same family.

His arms are, however, very extensive, and consist of thirteen fields: the first gules, a semée of hearts or, and a lion azure, for the dutchy of Lunenburg. The second is gules, with two leopards or, for the dutchy of Brunswic. The third is azure, with a lion argent crowned or, for the county of Eberstein. The fourth gules chequée argent and azure with a lion or, for the lordship of Homburg. The fifth or, a lion gules crowned azure, for the county of Diepholz. The sixth gules with a lion or, in chief, and four fesses of the same; but through mistake only three are marked, and these in the tenth field. The seventh is or, two bears paws expanded, for the county of Hoya. The eighth is quarterly party per fesse chequée gules and argent; underneath argent and azure girony, for the county of Bruchausen. The ninth azure, an eagle argent, which forms the lower half of the Diepholz shield. The tenth is chequée gules and argent, for the county of Hohenstein. The eleventh argent, a stag's horn gules, for the county of Reinstein. The twelfth argent, a stag sable, for the lordship of Klettenberg. The thirteenth is also argent, a stag's horn sable, for the county of Lautenberg. Among the five crowned helmets, the chief, or that in the center, has a pillar argent, crowned and surmounted with a peacock's tail, in which is a star or, and in the middle a horse argent, between two sickles reversed, and decorated in five places with peacocks feathers.

The principality of Wolfenbottle is possessed of a vote among the princes, both in the college of the princes of the empire, and in the diets of Lower Saxony; in each of which, by virtue of an agreement concluded in 1706, when the seniority lies in the house of Brunswic Wolfenbottle, it precedes those of the elector of Brunswic and Lunenburg for Zell, Grubenhagen, and Hanover; but otherwise comes after them.

The supreme college of the princes is the privy council, which has the direction of all state affairs, as also the general government of the country, laws, and ordinances, with the polity, grant of privileges, nomination of magistrates and officers of the law in the towns, and other important concerns, and here the reigning duke assists as president. The prince's revenue, and all affairs relating to it, are either under the inspection of the treasury, in which also the sovereign presides, or of the convent-office. Brunswic is the seat of the two first colleges; but the last, together with the chancery, the high court of justice, and the consistory, are held at Wolfenbottle.

The prince's immediate revenues arise from the treasury, bailiwicks, the regalia, the conventual estates, the imposts of the circle and empire, contributions, legation and fortification money, service and quotas of provisions. The lesser committee of the states, or the tax college, superintends the town-tax, land-tax, convent-tax, sheep-tax, measure-tax, tithe-tax, and mill-tax, with the excise on malt, beer, wine, brandy and stamped paper; as also the licence.

The military force maintained by the duke generally consists of four regiments of foot, each of two battalions, a body of horse-guards, a regiment of dragoons, and a militia regiment of five companies, each company containing one hundred and eighty men, with a corps of engineers and matrosses. There is also one regiment of invalids. These troops are clean, and clothed much after the Prussian manner; but their arms are lighter, and their exercise not so exact. Mr. Hanway observes, that people of distinction seldom leave this court without being extremely well satisfied with their reception, and, in particular, English noblemen are well received, when they occasionally pass that way. The duke, that gentleman observes, seems more fond of ease and happiness, than of the parade of life. He generally appears in his coach with three other persons of his family. His livery is yellow laced with a blue silk and silver galoon; behind his coach are usually four footmen; two pages in blue cloth laced with silver run by its sides, and a single servant in livery rides before to clear the way.

In this principality are ten boroughs, eight market-towns, three hundred and eighty-six villages, and seven-

teen fees and convents. The states are composed of the deans of the fees, and the priors of the convents; of the nobility who are possessed of manors within the country; and lastly, of the deputies of the eight oldest towns. The diets are held at the provincial house at Brunswic, and meet four times a year. The whole country is divided into four districts, viz. into those of Wolfenbottle, Schening, the Hartz, and the Weser.

The district of Wolfenbottle is situated on both sides the Ocker, and contains under it the following towns.

Brunswic, the capital of the dutchy, is situated in a plain on the banks of the Ocker, which runs through it, entering the town by two branches; but within it dividing into a great number, all which unite again in one stream at the issue of the Ocker out of the town. It stands in the fifty-second degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree thirty minutes east longitude. It is well fortified with a double wall and ditches, and on the ramparts is a brass mortar piece made in 1411, which is ten feet six inches long, and nine feet two inches in diameter. It requires fifty-two pounds of powder, and will carry a ball of seven hundred and thirty pounds weight to the distance of thirty-three thousand paces, and throw a bomb of a thousand pounds weight. In the arsenal of the city are about sixty pieces of brass cannon, several cohorns and mortars, ten pieces of large battering cannon of an enormous size, and a great quantity of small arms. The city is two miles in compass, and the ramparts planted with mulberry-trees. The buildings are for the most part in the old taste; but of late the city has been beautified with many new structures, and its streets are better paved than formerly. The prince's palace, called the Grauehof, was in 1731, the court of Elizabeth Sophia Maria, widow to duke Augustus William. That learned and pious princess erected a splendid library here, the principal curiosity of which consists in a very valuable collection of scarce and curious Bibles, or parts of Bibles, in several languages, to the number of above a thousand volumes. In this palace the reigning duke usually resides. It has rich and elegant furniture, very fine pictures, and a cabinet of curiosities. The gardens belonging to this palace are laid out in an elegant taste. In the same street with the palace is the academy for martial exercises, the cavaliers house and armoury, all new and handsome buildings.

In the Hagen market is the *Collegium Carolinum*, a noble structure, built in 1745, and founded by duke Charles, from whom it takes its name. The students, particularly those of good families, are taught all the necessary arts, sciences, languages, and exercises. In it is a good library. In the same market-place stands the opera house, which makes a very handsome figure.

The Oldburg, at present called the Mosthaus, or Mosthof, is seated on the Ocker, and before it on a high and broad pillar of free-stone stands a brass lion, which, it is said, represents one which duke Henry surnamed the Lion made so tame, that he followed him wherever he went, and after that prince's death died with grief. On the burg-platz is the new play-house. At the packhofe all goods imported or exported are rated and taxed, and this is said to produce about two hundred thousand rixdollars per annum.

In the new town is the council-house, where the magistrates meet, as the treasury board does in the council house of the old; and during the fair the passages round it are crowded with toy-shops. Near it is a chapel dedicated to a saint named Autor; but in 1681, it was assigned to the foreign dealers at the fair, for the security and more convenient sale of their goods. In Heydenstreet is the mint. The work-house was rebuilt by duke Charles, it being first formed out of an hospital, originally dedicated to the Virgin Mary. The orphan-house is an excellent foundation, and since the year 1753, has had a Latin school annexed to it, with a printing-house, and a bookseller's shop.

The Lutherans are possessed of ten churches. The cathedral of St. Blasius, which stands in the Burg-square, was erected in 1172 by Henry the Lion, on his return from the Holy Land, instead of the church of St. Peter and St. Paul, which was then falling to ruins, and annexed

nexed to it a chapter. This is an antient Gothic structure, the cieling of which is adorned with twenty large paintings, representing the prophets of the Old Testament in the clouds of heaven, which give the edifice a very solemn air. The high altar is of marble, adorned with the statues of the four Evangelists, and supported below by Moses and Aaron. In this cathedral are two fine monuments of that duke and his second consort, and here are kept the records of the electoral family and the vault of the dukes of the Bevern line. The Dutch and French Calvinists possess in common St. Bartholomew's church, but each have their respective pastor, and to the Roman catholics is assigned the church of St. Nicholas at the stone gate. The Tempelhof is an antique building that formerly belonged to the Knights Templars; but, on their suppression, passed to those of St. John, and particularly to the commandery of Supplingenburg, which in 1367 disposed of it to Kaland St. Jorgen. The dean and *camerarius* are ecclesiastics, and the two lay-members are usually magistrates: these four compose the society.

In the town are two seminaries, that of St. Martin and St. Catharine, with a school for anatomy and surgery. Here is also a college for the study of physic, instituted in 1747, and depending only on the duke and his privy-council. The lazaretto, as well as the above school and college, were built by the same munificent prince duke Charles. Here is also St. Leonard's hospital, which stands without the stone gate.

This city is well provided with a variety of ingenious artists, and has several manufactures. The first spinning-wheels were invented here in 1530 by one Jorgen, a stone-cutter and statuary. The strong beer invented by Christian Mummen, and from his name called mum, is exported to all parts, even as far as Asia. Brunswick has two annual fairs, which are very considerable ones. This city has been frequently besieged, and sometimes taken. In 1757 it was possessed by the French, who quitted it again in 1758.

At the distance of about five miles from Brunswick is the palace of Saltzdahlen, which is situated in a mean village of the same name, thus called from a considerable salt-work in its neighbourhood. The greatest part of this palace is of timber, and the rooms mostly lined with painted cloth. The great gallery of pictures is a noble apartment two hundred feet long, fifty broad, and forty high, containing above a thousand excellent pictures, several of them curious originals, by the best masters. The lesser gallery, which is a hundred and sixty feet long, and twenty broad, is likewise full of masterly paintings. Mr. Hanway, on viewing these galleries, says he was particularly struck with the following pieces: Adam and Eve viewing Abel after his death, and pulling open his eyes, by Strudel. Abraham embracing his son after the trial which God had made of his faith; piety and joy here seem to contend with each other, while his looks express a seraphic adoration: this piece is by Liebens. Peter delivered from prison by the angel, by Steinbeck. Judith and her attendant, an old woman, holding Holofernes's head just cut off, the face appearing with some signs of life. Rembrandt, his wife, and three children, in one piece, by himself. Cephalus and Procris, a very fine piece. The Ascension, which is much esteemed. Lewis XIV. and his two mistresses. Prince Eugene. The marriage of two Hollanders, the young man and woman looking tenderly at each other, while the parents are attentive to the notary who draws up the articles.

At the end of the lesser gallery to the right is a large cabinet, in which are above a thousand pieces, as plates, bottles, saltcellars, of incomparable beauty, many of them being enamels performed by Raphael Urbino, when he was enamoured with the potter's daughter. Facing the above cabinet is a large one of China porcelain, containing above eight thousand pieces, beautifully arranged. Adjoining to the large gallery are six small cabinets filled with curiosities of art and nature. The chapel here is very grand. The garden is a very fine one; but some of the statues are but poorly executed.

Near the chapel, and contiguous to the orangery, is a convent dedicated to the Virgin Mary, founded by duke Anthony Ulric and his consort, for a domina and fifteen

sisters of noble families, who perform divine service twice a day in the chapel belonging to the palace. It has also a provost, and sends a representative to the states.

Wolfenbuttle, a fortified city, seated in a low and marshy country on the banks of the Ocker. It is a pleasant place, and contains many handsome houses; besides which it is the seat of some of the head colleges of the dutchy of Wolfenbuttle, as the chancery, the chief court of justice, the bailiwick-office, the convent-chamber, the consistory, and general superintendency. Here is an antient armoury, and the castle was for the most part the usual residence of the dukes, and their library is one of the best in all Germany; it is in a particular building, finished in 1723, in the lower part of which is a riding-school. The seminary here is stiled the ducal great school. It contains several churches and other public buildings. In 1757 it was in the hands of the French, who abandoned it the next year.

Gandersheim, a small mean town seated in a valley by the side of the little river Gande, and containing a ducal seat, erected by John Julius, with a bailiwick-house, and a Latin free-school. But it is most famous for the imperial, ducal, free, and secular foundation of St. Anastasius and St. Innocent, founded in the ninth century. This abbey is at present Lutheran, and composed of an abbeys, a dean, and eleven canoneses. These have no particular dress, but wear a cross of the order enamelled black and red, on which is represented the instruments used at our Saviour's crucifixion. On the top of it is a cluster of diamonds, and at the bottom a death's head enamelled white. This cross is fastened to a broad watered ribbon of a pale blue, diversified on the edges with narrow black stripes, and hanging from the right shoulder down below the waist to the left. To this celebrated foundation also belong eight canons and capitulars. The dukes are patrons and protectors of the abbey, though the abbeys has both a seat and voice in the diet of the empire and among the prelates of the Rhine. The abbey is possessed of four hereditary bailiwicks, and to it belong the adjacent convents of Brunshausen and Claus.

SECT. XXVII.

Of the Principality of HALBERSTADT.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, and Towns: the Religion and Trade of the Inhabitants: their Government, the Revenues of the Sovereign, and a Description of Halberstadt its Capital.

THE principality of Halberstadt is surrounded towards the east by the principality of Anhalt and the dutchy of Magdeburg, and towards the west by the dutchy of Brunswick and the bishopric of Hildesheim, extending from east to west about forty-two miles, and from north to south thirty-three.

The country is for the most part level, but contains some eminences. The soil is extremely fertile, both in grain and flax, and has rich pastures and meadows, whence the inhabitants subsist by grazing, and their large breed of sheep affords plenty of wool. But, on the other hand, the woods are continually lessening, and the want of fuel is so great, that they are obliged to import turf for the use of the poor. The country has not a sufficiency of game and fish; nor is there a river of a considerable size in the whole country: the principal is the Bode, or Bud, the Selke, and the Ilse.

In this country, including the county of Regenstein and the lordship of Derenburg, are ten towns, and ninety-nine small country towns and villages. The inhabitants are said to amount to upwards of two hundred thousand.

The greatest part of the inhabitants are Lutherans, and their churches are divided into eleven inspections, over which is a general superintendency. The Calvinists and Papists are pretty nearly of an equal number, and the Jews are tolerated, but are not to exceed a fixed number of families.

The woollen manufactures established in this country are in a thriving condition, and its exports principally consist of grain.

It enjoys a vote among the princes, both in the diet of the empire and that of the circle. On its devolving to the house of Brandenburg, it was placed both in title and arms before any of the other principalities. Its arms are party per pale gules and argent.

The annual revenue arising to the sovereign from this principality, and the incorporated counties and lordships, including likewise the county of Wernigerode, amounts to about five hundred thousand rixdollars. For the more convenient levying the imports and assessments, the principality is divided into six circles: the principal town is

Halberstadt, the capital of the principality, is seated on the river Hotheim, in the fifty-second degree seven minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree fifteen minutes east longitude. It is a well built town, the streets are pretty straight and uniform, and many of the buildings are handsome, though they are generally old-fashioned. In the year 1752 the walls which surround near half the city were pulled down, and the moats filled up so as to form a level, which has been converted into a plantation of mulberry-trees. The inhabitants do not much exceed thirteen hundred, though within and about the town are sixteen churches. The cathedral of St. Peter is an old but stately building, consisting of a very hard free-stone. The chapter is composed of a provost, a dean, a senior, sub-seniors, and sixteen canons, four of whom are of the Romish religion, and all the others Lutherans. In 1754 the king of Prussia conferred on the chapter a cross of gold, enamelled with white, and divided into eight points: in the center on one side is the Prussian black eagle, and on the other the image of St. Stephen. This cross is fastened to a deep scarlet ribbon, bordered with black. On St. Peter's-square, which is very spacious, stands the priory and a monastery, the latter of which was rebuilt in 1754, with some handsome houses for the canons and prebendaries. Fronting the cathedral is the Lutheran collegiate church of our Lady: to them also belong the collegiate churches of St. Boniface and Maurice, and St. Peter and Paul; St. Martin's, to which the general superintendency of the principality is annexed; St. John's, the hospital or church of the Holy Ghost; and St. Elizabeth's. The German Calvinists are possessed of St. Peter's chapel, and the French Calvinists have a church. The Papists are possessed of three convents of monks and two nunneries, to which must be added the chapel of the voluntary poor; the Jews are also allowed a synagogue. This town is the seat of all the state courts and offices; it has three public Lutheran schools, which are those of the cathedral, St. Martin's and St. John's, and an orphan-house. In 1758 Halberstadt was very severely treated by the French, who demolished its gates, and also its remaining walls for eight hundred rods in length.

Before we conclude this account of Halberstadt, it will be necessary to observe, that the county of Ragenstein, or Reinstein, antiently formed but one county in conjunction with Blankenburg, the counts of Reinstein and Blankenburg being derived from the same stem. The former at present, however, belongs to the elector of Brandenburg, who retains it as a fortified fief of Halberstadt, notwithstanding the demands of the house of Brunswick-Lunenbourg relative to a restitution of a part of the county which the counts of Tattenbach had held as its fiefs; and this has given rise to a process said to be still depending before the aulic council. Blankenburg was, in 1707, erected by the emperor Joseph into a principality, and since the year 1731 has belonged to the reigning house of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttle.

S E C T. XXVIII.

Of the Bishopric of HILDESHEIM.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers; the Religion of the Inhabitants, their Manufactures, Government, and principal Towns.

THE diocese of Hildesheim is encompassed by Hano-
ver, Wolfenbuttle, Grubenhagen, Halberstadt, and Lunenburg, terminating also on the county of Wernigerode. Its greatest extent from east to west is about

forty-seven miles, and from north to south somewhat above thirty-eight.

The greatest part of this diocese consists of a good soil fit for tillage, and that yields a great quantity of flax and hops, with garden plants and roots; but it affords only a sufficiency of horses, cows, sheep, and hogs, the south part is hilly, and for the most part covered with fine woods of oak, beach, ash, and birch. Such mountains as are bare contain valuable quarries, and also iron ore; in consequence of which some iron founderies have been built. There are likewise some good salt-works in this part; but these are not sufficient to supply the diocese.

The Leina traverses the western part, and at Ruhte is joined by the Innerste. The Fulse rises here, and runs into the principality of Lunenburg. The Ocker traverses the eastern part of the diocese, and, after receiving the Ecker, enters the principality of Wolfenbuttle: but, notwithstanding their having these rivers, fish is scarce.

At the time of the Reformation the greatest part of the diocese belonged to the duke of Brunswick-Lunenbourg, who after taking it from bishop John, when under the ban of the empire, obtained the investiture of it. These dukes were indeed so far from promoting the reformation in these parts, that they obstructed it to the utmost of their power; yet almost the whole country soon made an open profession of Lutheranism. The lesser see did the like, and the bishops granted the vassals freedom of religion; but, in the beginning of the thirty years war, the Lutheran ministers were driven out of the lesser bishopric of Hildesheim, and the Lutheran churches in the greater as much oppressed; but the dukes of Brunswick and Lunenburg having, by a convention in 1643, ceded the latter to the bishop, it was stipulated that the Lutherans should at certain times, and under certain limitations, enjoy the free exercise of their religion; but at length religious liberty was settled on a solid and lasting foundation. Of the Lutheran religion are all the towns, with the greatest part of the nobility, and most of the villages; but the sovereign, with the cathedral chapter, the convent, almost all the episcopal officers, a part of the nobility, and many persons both in the towns and country, are Roman catholics. The lesser bishopric, as it is called, has no Lutheran superintendency; but in the greater there are no less than four.

This diocese has but few manufactures, and these are of good linen, ordinary woollen cloth, worsted stockings, a coarse porcelain, with all kinds of iron-wares. Its exports consist of corn, sheep, wool, hops, salt, thread, and linen.

The arms of this see are party per pale gules and argent.

The bishop of Hildesheim sits in the diet between the bishops of Augsbourg and Paderborn, and votes among the princes in the diet of Lower Saxony. The cathedral chapter consists of forty-two members, who elect the bishop, and on a vacancy of the see take the reins of government into their own hands. The chapter is also the first state of the diocese, and is possessed of very considerable revenues.

The bishop, who is generally absent, leaves the government of the country to a stadtholder and privy council. The administration of justice is committed to the chancery of the regency, and the chief tribunal; but the former alone takes cognizance of criminal causes. From both these courts, an appeal lies to the Aulic council: in like manner causes are carried from the towns to them.

The spiritual jurisdiction over those of the Popish religion belongs to the bishop's official, and the Lutheran subjects, by the peace of Westphalia, have also their consistory, which is composed of two ecclesiastical, and and two lay counsellors, who must be Lutherans, and to these are added a secretary and clerk of the same religion. The chancellor of the regency, or, in his absence, a state counsellor, represents the sovereign, and is possessed of the first seat and voice; but his vote does not extend to certain cases, in which, on account of the difference of religion, he cannot act as judge. The consistory is usually held but eight times a year.

The episcopal revenues are under the direction of the treasury, and arise from the domains and regalia, exclu-

five of the sums annually granted by the diet. Here is also a tax-office for this country, into which are paid the contributions, with the land-tax, measure-tax, village and sheep-taxes.

The whole military force of this see consists only of one company of foot, as a garrison to the town of Peina, and a few troopers. In the diocese are eight boroughs, with four market-towns, and two hundred and forty-eight villages. In 1731, the nobility were reckoned to have seventy-five manors, the proprietors of which are admitted into the assemblies of the nobility, and qualified for the diet.

The states of the country consist first of the cathedral chapter; secondly, of the seven abbeys; thirdly, of the nobility; and fourthly, of the towns of Hildesheim, Peina, Elze, and Alel. The sovereign alone convenes the diets, which are generally held in the beginning of the new year, in the nobles hall at Hildesheim. They are opened by the bishop's chancellor, and a secretary reads over his proposals, on which each class returns thanks in the person of its syndic, with assurances that the proposals shall be taken into consideration, and a proper answer returned.

The principal places in this diocese are the following:

Hildesheim, in Latin Hildesia, is the capital of the diocese, and stands on a rugged declivity, near the Innerste, in the fifty-second degree twenty-six minutes north latitude, and the ninth degree fifty-one minutes east longitude. It is pretty large, but old and irregularly built. The magistracy, with the greatest part of the burghers, are Lutherans; but the rest of the popish religion. The cathedral, which belongs to the latter, is richly ornamented, particularly with fine paintings, and among its antiquities is the idol Irmenful, which stands fronting the grand choir. Over the cross-way is the nobility hall, which is finely painted in fresco; here is

also the place where the diet is opened, together with the chapter-room, the treasury, and a library. Near the cathedral stands the chancery, which was once the residence of the bishop; but at present of the stadtholder. The cathedral yard, in which several of the canons have their dwellings, is planted with rows of trees. In the same place also stands the Jesuits college, which besides its other ornaments, is remarkable for its fine hall. The seminary, which belongs to it, consists of nine classes. Holy Cross abbey is also a noble edifice, that has a splendid church. Here are two convents of Benedictine monks, a Carthusian monastery, with another for Capuchins, and two nunneries. The Lutherans are possessed of eight parish churches, the principal of which is that of St. Andrew, in the Old Town. There the superintendent resides, and in that also is the *Gymnasium Andreanum*, a large elegant structure, which contains a good library. The church was once collegiate, but on its being ceded to the Lutherans in 1542, the deans and canons were removed to the Liberty, where they still reside, and hold their meetings every year. The Latin school of St. Lambert is under the direction of four masters. The Jews have a synagogue here. This was anciently one of the Hanse towns; but the calamities it suffered by war in 1632 and 1634, in both which years it was besieged and taken, have been of irreparable prejudice to it.

Peina is situated in a marshy country on the Fulse, and was formerly reckoned among the fortresses. The greatest part of the inhabitants are Lutherans; but the patronage of the Lutheran town and parish church, is lodged in the bishop. This garrison consists of one company of foot, who are in the bishop's pay. In a corner of the town, stands the episcopal palace, with a Capuchin convent, and near them is a suburb called the Dam, chiefly inhabited by shop-keepers and Jews.

CHAP. XIII.

Of LUSATIA.

SECT. I.

Of the Situation, Extent, Produce and Rivers of Lusatia in general; with the Religion, Learning, Manufactures and Commerce of the Inhabitants.

LUSATIA, which some authors place in Austrian Silesia, and others in Saxony, extends in length from the north-west to the south-east, and is bounded on the east by Silesia, on the south by Bohemia, on the west by Misnia, and on the north by Brandenburg. It is five hundred and seventy miles in compass, and is divided into the marquisates of Upper and Lower Lusatia. The former abounds more in mountains and hills, and enjoys a purer air than the latter, in which are found many boggy and moorish tracts; but has a great number of woods, and those finer ones than are to be met with in Upper Lusatia, where the fertile tracts of that country have a great scarcity of timber. In the mountainous tracts of Upper Lusatia, on the borders of Bohemia and Silesia, is but little room for agriculture. The heaths on the confines of Lower Lusatia consist of a poor soil, which are of but little use except for hunting.

In each of these marquisates wheat, rye, barley, and oats are cultivated; as also much buck-wheat, together with peas, beans, millet, lentils and flax. With respect to orchard and garden fruits, as also to the culture of hops, tobacco, and wine, Lower Lusatia has greatly the preference. The inhabitants also make some white and red wine. However, the produce of this country is not sufficient for the supply of the people, and therefore corn, fruit, hops, garden stuff and wine, are imported into the Lusatias. The breeding of cattle is very confi-

derable; there is also no want of venison, and the rivers, lakes, and ponds yield a variety of fish.

Here are quarries of stone, and in the mountains are dug crystals, agates, and jaspers. This country has also an allum-work, and a vitriolic and copper water, and in several places is found very good iron-stone.

In the Lusatias rise the river Spree, the Schwartzelster, and the Pulsnitz; and the Neisse, which rises in Bohemia, has its course chiefly in Lusatia, where it receives several small rivers, and below Guben discharges itself into the Oder.

Some sparks of the Christian religion were scattered here in the seventh century; but several hundred years passed before the people could be brought under the Romish church, and the compulsion employed on that occasion must necessarily have exasperated them, while it rendered numbers of them hypocrites. However, from the eleventh century, many convents and churches became erected in the country. The doctrines of Luther were here received so early as the year 1521, and spreading by degrees, became the prevailing church, as it continues even to this day. There are, however, several popish convents, churches, market towns, and villages, scattered through the country.

Learning is much esteemed in both marquisates, which have produced many persons who rendered themselves illustrious by their literature. In the thirteenth century the gross ignorance in which this country was involved began to vanish, and from the year 1450 to the Reformation, it still increased, men of learning arriving from foreign countries, who brought books and the sciences along with them, and by these the schools were improved. Learning, however, was not thoroughly established till after the Reformation.

Lusatia would be unable to support its inhabitants without the assistance of the arts ; but the numerous woollen and linen manufactures afford the inhabitants all the necessaries of life. These flourish principally in Upper Lusatia, and in several towns cloth manufactures have been carried on so early as the thirteenth century, and by this means have raised those towns to a flourishing state. The cloths of Lusatia are of different kinds, and the best of them little inferior to those made in Holland. Prodigious quantities of stockings, spatterdashs, caps and gloves are also made here. The conduct of the emperors Ferdinand the Second and Third, together with that of Leopold towards the Protestants in Bohemia and Silesia, caused vast numbers to retire to Upper Lusatia, where they erected villages chiefly in the mountains, and generally employed themselves in the weaving of linen. Hence there are made here all sorts of linen from unbleached and bleached yarn common and fine, as also fine white damask and white ticking. Various sorts of coloured and printed linens are made here, and there are likewise in Lusatia good manufactories of hats, leather, paper, gun-powder, iron, glass, and the bleaching of wax.

By means of these manufactories a considerable trade is carried on, which though not so great as formerly, exceeds the value of the importation in silk, wool, and yarn, employed for their manufactures, and of the foreign silks, gold and silver lace, wines, spices, corn, fruit, garden stuff, and hops, brought into the country.

The marquises of Upper and Lower Lusatia are remarkably different with respect to their arms, constitution, and government.

SECT. II.

Of the Constitution, Government, Arms, and principal Places in Upper and Lower Lusatia.

THIS marquise contains two sorts of states, viz. those of lands and towns. The land-states are divided into, first, the state-lords, who have all their vassals and proper judicatories; secondly, the prelates, as the dean of Budissin, the abbess of Marienstern and Marienthal, and the prioress of Lauban. The king of Bohemia has the supreme right of protection over the catholic foundations, cloisters and clergy, in both marquises; but this extends only to religious affairs; they being in every thing else subject to the government of the country; and the dean of Budissin with the cloysters of Marienstern and Marienthal perform homage to the elector of Saxony. The third division of the land-states consists of the gentry and commonalty, as counts, barons, nobles and burgeses, possessors of knights fees and fiefs.

The second class of the state consists of the immediate seignioral towns, called by way of eminence The Six Towns, which are ranked in the following order, Budissin, Gorlitz, Zittau, Lauban, Camenz, and Lobaw.

These two states, in all consultations relating to the common concerns of the country, form two voices, viz. the states of the country one, and the united six towns the second. They also assist in drawing up all such resolutions and regulations as have a relation to the common benefit and welfare of the country; and without first obtaining their opinion and free consent, no taxes can be laid, nor any thing done that clashes with the constitution of the marquise.

These states assemble at the land diets, which are either ordinary or extraordinary; the first are held three times a year at Budissin, and the last only upon extraordinary occasions.

The arms of the marquise of Upper Lusatia are a wall or, streaked with black, and erected in the manner of battlements in a field azure. In the shield it bears an helmet crowned, on which stands the wall or, with two eagles wings azure.

The arms of the marquise of Lower Lusatia are, an ox gules in a field argent, which stands from the left to the right.

All Lusatia was formerly a part of Bohemia; but re-

belling against the emperor in 1620, John George elector of Saxony reduced it; for which service, by the treaty of Prague in 1635, it was settled on the elector of Saxony, except some parts of Lower Lusatia, which were left to Brandenburg.

The marquise of Upper Lusatia is divided into two circles, and to each of these belong inferior circles; the principal towns in which are the following,

Budissin, or Bautzen, is the capital of the whole marquise, and is reckoned the first of the six towns. It stands in a mountainous situation, on the banks of the Spree, and is fortified in the antient manner. It is considerably large, well built and populous. The castle of Ortenburg, which stands on a high rock, is separated from the town by a ditch and rampart, and yet is within the town walls. There is here a cathedral church dedicated to St. Peter, half of which belongs to the Lutherans, and the other half to those of the inhabitants, who are of the Romish church. Budissin has likewise a separate church belonging to the Lutherans, and another to the Papists; besides which there are three hospitals, with a church belonging to each. The other buildings are a council-house and the council library, a celebrated academy, and an orphan-house. This town carries on a considerable trade in linen, hats, stockings, gloves, manufactures of Turkey and glazed leather, cloth, fustian, &c. It has frequently suffered by fire, and has been sometimes entirely burnt down.

Gorlitz, the principal town of the circle of the same name, and the second of the six towns, is situated on the Neisse, in the fifteenth degree seven minutes east long. and the fifty-first degree ten minutes north lat. 20 miles to the east of Budissin, and is built and fortified in the antient manner. Within its walls are three churches, a celebrated academy, an orphan-house, and the bailiff's seat, in which the knights of this circle meet once a year. Without the walls are three churches, an hospital, and what is called the Holy Sepulchre, built after the model of the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem. The cloths made in this place are beautiful, but the trade in this article is not near so considerable as formerly.

Zittaw is one of the best towns in Lusatia; it is fortified in the antient taste, but finely built, and carries on a considerable trade in cloths, linen, and blue paper. It contains within its walls two churches, an hospital, a library, a good academy, and an orphan-house; but without there are three churches, which are only used for funeral sermons, and three hospitals, in one of which is a chapel.

Herrenhuth, a famous place in the circle of Zittaw, first founded in the year 1722, by some Moravian brethren, who settled there in the fields of the village of Berthelsdorf, belonging to the late count Zinzendorf; but were afterwards greatly increased, and this place became the chief nursery of the Herrenhuthers, who considered count Zinzendorf as their bishop and father.

The states of Lower Lusatia are also divided into land and town-states. The former consists of the prelates, the lords who are possessors of seigniories, and the knights, to which class belong the counts, barons, and nobles, possessors of knights fees and fiefs. The town estates are composed of the deputies of the four circle towns Luckaw, Guben, Lubben, and Kalaw.

Each circle holds in its circle town a circle assembly, under the inspection of the land-elders. The states of the country constitute the lesser and greater ban, who, in weighty affairs, and cases requiring dispatch, assemble with the privity and approbation of the upper office. The land-diet here hold two annual voluntary diets. But when the superior causes the states to be summoned together at his discretion, and proposals to be laid before them by commissaries deputed for that purpose, such convention is called a great land-diet.

The principal towns in Lower Lusatia are,

Soraw, or Zarow, one of the most antient towns in all Lusatia, has a pretty strong castle, to which belongs a church, a pleasure-garden, and also a good school. It has five other churches, and is the seat of the chancery and consistory. The town has been several times almost destroyed by fire; and near it is a hunting seat and a park.

Luckaw, which is esteemed the capital of Lower Lusatia, is seated on the rivulet of Geila, and contains a Latin school, a parish church, a cloyster church, a house of correction and poor-house founded in the year 1744, with another church, and two hospitals. In 1644 and 1652 it was demolished by fire.

Guben lies on the Neisse, which below it falls into the

Oder. It is a pretty large town, and, besides two parish-churches, has an hospital, which has likewise a church, a burying-church, a Latin school, and a salt-office. Four villages which belong to it have some good manufactures of cloth, and there is here made a pretty deal of good wine.

C H A P. XIV.

Of the Circle of BAVARIA, including the Electorate of BAVARIA, the UPPER PALATINATE, and the Archbishopric of SALTZBRUG.

S E C T. I.

Of the Circle of Bavaria in general, and more particularly of the Electorate of Bavaria; its Extent, Produce, and Manners of the Inhabitants, their Religion, and Government; with the Title and Arms of that Electorate; and the Bavarian Order of St. George.

THE circle of Bavaria is surrounded by the circles of Swabia, Austria, and Franconia, and by the kingdom of Bohemia, and derives its name from the duchy of Bavaria, which is the largest and most considerable part of it.

Of this circle the elector of Bavaria and the archbishop of Saltzburg are joint summoning princes and directors, the convocatory being likewise held jointly by them; but the *directorium* is alternate. The diet of the circle is most usually held at Ratibon, or Wasserburg, though it is sometimes convened at Landshut, or Muldorf. The elector of Bavaria is hereditary commander in chief of the circle, by virtue of which office he has the direction of all military affairs.

We shall begin with the electorate of Bavaria, which contains the principal part of the circle, but it is not easy to ascertain with any degree of exactness the proper extent of this electorate; for maps themselves differ with respect to its greatest length and breadth. Bavaria is, however, according to The Present State of Germany, a hundred and thirty miles long, and one hundred broad.

Upper Bavaria is partly mountainous and woody, and partly marshy, abounding also in large and small lakes, and is in general fitter for pasturage than tillage; but Lower Bavaria, which is for the most part level, is more fruitful: however, this electorate in general abounds in grain, pasture, fruits, woods, and forests; producing also a great number of cattle, and plenty of game and wild-fowl. It has some salt-works, and a mine of silver, another of copper, and one of lead; and in several places are quarries of very fine marble. The Upper Palatinate is extremely mountainous; but it is covered with woods, and has plenty of grass, and, where cultivated, produces corn. The country is able to support its inhabitants, particularly by means of the great number of its iron and lead-mines, its large woods and pastures.

The principal river in this country is the Danube, which issuing out of Swabia waters the electorate from west to east. The large inland lakes are said to be sixteen in number, and the small ones a hundred and sixty. The rivers, lakes, and ponds abound in fish, particularly the numerous ponds in the Upper Palatinate, which have an uncommon plenty.

In all Bavaria are reckoned thirty-five towns, and ninety-five open and enclosed market-towns. In the several bailiwicks are upwards of a thousand castles and seats, and there are said to be in Bavaria eleven thousand seven hundred and four villages and hamlets.

Though the Bavarians are esteemed rude, and are called by the other Germans Hog-drivers, they are found to be as hospitable and courteous as their neighbours. The people are in general poor, and their clergy suffer them to continue in the most deplorable ignorance with respect to religion, their adorations being principally paid to

saints and images. They are said to be far more superstitious than the Swabians; for in almost every town some bone or relic is held in higher veneration than the welfare and honour of their country: yet they are more polite and ingenious than the people of Swabia; and though they cultivate the sciences, they are more addicted to arms than to arts, and make good soldiers.

The states of Bavaria consist of three classes, the prelates, the knights, and nobility; to which also belong the counts and lords, and the burghers of the several boroughs and market-towns. Provincial diets are here very rare, but a committee of the states assemble annually at Munich, or as often as the state of affairs requires.

No other religion is tolerated here but that of popery. The Lutheran and Calvinist doctrines had indeed obtained a superiority in the Upper Palatinate; but that country falling into the hands of the elector of Bavaria, popery was restored by force. There are, however, a great number of Lutherans still. The parishes in the electorate amount to about fifteen hundred. The vicarages, chapels of ease, and other chapels, are near two thousand in number, and the churches are said to amount to twenty-eight thousand seven hundred and nine. These churches are subject to seventy-one rural deans. There are likewise eighty-six remarkable convents, and twelve collegiate foundations. Manufactures are here greatly increased and improved, particularly those of silk stuffs, velvets, tapestry, coarse cloth, woollen stuffs, and stockings, very good clocks, and watches; but its chief exports consist of cattle, grain, wood, salt, and iron.

The titles of the elector are, By the grace of God duke of Upper and Lower Bavaria, as also of the Upper Palatinate; palgrave of the Rhine, arch-steward of the holy Roman empire, and elector and landgrave of Leuchtenberg.

The arms of the elector are quarterly, an escutcheon of pretence. In the last of these quarters is the imperial monde or, in a field gules, denoting the office of arch-steward of the empire: in the upper dexter and lower sinister quarter are lozenges azure, and argent for the duchy of Bavaria; and in the upper sinister and lower dexter is a lion gules crowned or, for the palatinate of the Rhine. During an interregnum, when the elector of Bavaria exercises the vicariate of the empire, he is allowed to bear the imperial spread-eagle, with his family shield on the breast.

The Bavarian order of St. George was revived in 1729 by the elector Albert. The knights of this order are stiled Defenders of the immaculate conception of the blessed Virgin Mary, and must produce unquestionable proofs of the nobility of their ancestry for eight generations in both lines. The elector is grand master, and its ensign is a cross enamelled blue, with a St. George in the middle; on the reverse of which is the name of the restorer of the order in a cypher, surrounded with the electoral cap, and at the four angles these letters I. V. P. F. signifying *Iustus velut palma florebit*, that is, "The righteous shall flourish, like a palm tree." This cross is wore pendant to a broad sky-blue ribbon with a black and white border.

In the electoral college the elector of Bavaria has only the fifth seat, though he is the second of the lay electors; he

he is not only a member of the college of princes, but has even the first seat and vote in it.

The revenues of the elector arise out of salt, beer, wine, brandy, oak-mast, venison, wood, mines, excise, coinage, tolls, contributions, and other ordinary sources; besides the imposts raised on extraordinary occasions. His ordinary annual revenue is estimated at between five and six millions of guildens.

The elector's military force consists of regulars and militia; the former of these in times of peace usually amount to about twelve thousand; but in war they have been augmented to twenty-five, and even to thirty thousand.

SECT. II.

A Description of the principal Places in the Electorate of Bavaria, particularly of Munich the Capital, with a Description of the Palaces of the Elector, and of whatever is most worthy of Notice.

WE shall now describe the most remarkable places in Bavaria, in which we shall mention whatever deserves the notice of the curious.

Munich, in Latin Monachium, is a fortified city seated on the Iser, in the forty-eighth degree twenty-two minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree forty-one minutes east longitude. It is the capital and residence of the elector, and has broad streets extending in a direct line, adorned with a multitude of noble edifices of all kinds. The palace and other buildings belonging to the elector, together with the churches, sixteen monasteries, and other religious structures, take up near half the city. The precinct of the Augustines alone consists of several streets, which bring them in an annual rent of three thousand guilders.

The elector of Bavaria's palace is an elegant structure, consisting of four courts, the two finest of which are called the Prince's and Emperor's Court; the former is adorned with several brass statues: in the latter a broad flight of steps of beautiful red marble leads to the emperor's hall, which is a hundred and eighteen feet in length, and fifty-two in breadth; and in it is, among other things, a statue of Virtue of one single piece of porphyry. In the chamber of antiquities are two hundred marble statues and busts of Roman emperors, with five hundred antiques, as lamps, inscriptions, basso relievos, &c. most of which were brought from Italy.

Among the valuable curiosities in the treasury is a cabinet of many large pieces of work in crystal, among which is a ship some spans long, with a pilot, and all the tackling of the finest gold. A hill, with a castle upon it, all of oriental pearls. St. George on horseback of red agate, with his armour of diamonds set in gold; and the Bavarian family, each person cut out of a piece of blue chalcedony. A double brilliant diamond of the size of a middling nutmeg. A larger, which cost a hundred thousand guilders. A set of buttons and loops of diamonds and rubies set between. A set only of diamonds, the buttons of extraordinary beauty, not inferior to those worn by Lewis XIV. when he gave public audience to the Persian ambassador, and of a superior lustre to the French; the late elector having been twenty years, with great difficulty and incredible expence, in completing the collection. An ivory closet, with figures in relievo of most curious workmanship, in which are preserved eleven hundred and forty-four gold Roman medals. In the year 1729 the palace, and particularly the chamber of rich curiosities, suffered greatly by fire, and in 1750 a whole wing of it was burnt down. Towards the east stands the elector's arsenal, and to the northward lie the park and pleasure-gardens, near which is a large edifice for tournaments.

On the west side of the palace, and opposite to it, stands the fine house built by count Preising, master of the horse, which is a great ornament to the city, its four sides answering to so many streets. The pillars of the stable are of red marble, and every horse feeds out of a marble manger, that cost twenty-five guilders.

In this part is another palace built by duke William. In the largest market-place is a lofty marble pillar, upon which stands a brass statue of the Virgin Mary: there are here also two large fountains, and on the sides of the market-place is the town-house, in which the states hold their meetings, together with several lofty houses ornamented with decorations of paintings on the front.

The principal ecclesiastical buildings are the collegiate church dedicated to the Virgin Mary, in which is the magnificent monument of black marble of the emperor Lewis IV. of Bavaria, adorned with six large and several smaller statues of brass. About ten or twelve paces from the entrance of the great door, one of the stones of the pavement is marked with a double cross, and a person standing upon this stone finds the pillars of the church so placed as to intercept the view of all the windows.

Among the other ecclesiastical buildings, the most remarkable is the church of St. Peter, with the convents of the Augustines, Capuchins, Carmelites, Franciscans, and Theatines; as also the Jesuits college, in which is a valuable library: both their convents and church are exceeding fine, and the last very large, light, and lofty. The vestry is very rich, and among their relics they shew a joint as big as that of an elephant, which they pretend was one of the joints of St. Christopher's backbone. The other buildings worthy of notice are the nunneries of St. Clara, Bridget, and Ridler; the residence of the English society; the hospital of the Holy Ghost, of St. Elizabeth, or the Duke's, and St. Joseph.

They have no religion but that of the Roman, to which they are so bigotted, that they look upon those of another persuasion as monsters rather than men; and among the festivals performed here, the procession at that of *Corpus Christi* appears very extraordinary. Here march the deputies of all the trades and manual arts, with costly flags carried before them. Every member of all the religious orders join in the procession; and a great number of religious histories are exhibited on triumphal cars, by children richly dressed. At the head of their respective orders ride St. George and St. Maurice, in Roman habits; while St. Margaret is represented by a young lady, dressed like a vestal, leading after her a large dragon, in which two men are usually enclosed to give it the necessary movements. The four mendicant orders precede the host, which is carried under a splendid canopy; after which come the elector and his consort, both holding a lighted taper. They are followed by the master of the household, some court ladies, and after them the whole court. The procession is closed by the garrison, burghers, and peasants; and, while the clergy stop at four different places to give the benediction, they are answered by salutes of eight guns from the ramparts.

On the other side of the river Iser lies Au, the remarkable places in which are the house of duke Albert, with its chapel, and the elector's manufactory. Above this place stands a convent belonging to the order of St. Paul. In Munich are manufactures of velvets, silk, wool, and tapestry.

At the distance of nine miles from Munich is Schleim, an elegant palace belonging to the elector. The entrance is very grand, both the pavement and the columns being of red and grey marble; and the stairs are adorned with columns of green marble, brought from Brixen. In the first hall are two large paintings of the raising of the siege of Vienna, and the battle of Hagaz; and in the victory hall, which is contiguous to it, are the battles of Belgrade, Pest, and several others. On the side of the palace towards Munich is a noble gallery of pictures, among which are two pieces of Annibal Caracci, for each of which Maximilian, the first elector of the Bavarian; family paid forty thousand guilders, and several large hunting-pieces by Rubens. In another chamber is the slaughter of the innocents at Bethlehem, finely painted by Peter Paul Rubens; in which the various agitations of the mothers supplicating, lamenting, struggling, and fainting, are incomparably expressed. But the grandest collection is in a particular apartment, covered with small pictures; nothing has a place there, but what is esteemed among the noblest productions of that art. In another chamber is Alexander's

first battle against Darius; a most admirable piece, painted by Albert Durer, who has bestowed incredible labour on it: it contains several thousand men, yet the hair of their heads and beards, with the smallest joints of their armour, and other minutiae, are all distinctly expressed.

At the distance of half a league from Munich is the palace of Nymphenburg; which has not the grandeur of Schleissheim; but its fine gardens and water-works render it a more agreeable summer residence. In some of the apartments are portraits of the beauties of the French court, views of several palaces of this duchy, likewise a chimney-piece and two tables of white marble inlaid with gold, and colours, in imitation of enamel. In the garden is a grand cascade and basin, with several figures of brass gilt. Among the fine walks and trees of this garden stands Badenburg, a delightful structure, consisting of elegant grottos and a large bath, into which both cold and warm water may be conveyed. The floor is overlaid with copper, and the wall decorated with porcelain and conduits. Along the roof is an iron lattice, partly gilt, and of very curious workmanship.

Opposite to this place is the mall, and the bowling-green, by which stands a structure called Pagodenburg, the chief use of which is for the elector, after violent exercise at those games, to change his linen, and other apparel. Here are also several little cabinets in the Chinese taste, and other contrivances equally ornamental and convenient.

Nearer the palace stands a pretty hermitage, which is so natural an imitation of a ruinous building, that it never fails to raise the beholder's admiration. In some places it seems as if endeavours had been used to repair it with lime and stone; in another part you are afraid that the cracked walls and the bricks, which scarce hang together, will immediately give way and crush you in the ruins. In this structure, which stands in a kind of desert, is a large grotto, in which is a consecrated altar, and on it a crucifix, and two candlesticks. The other rooms have no other ornament but a small library of books of devotion in French bindings. Underneath is a kitchen and cellar, where the utensils are only a neat sort of earthen ware.

At the distance of nine miles from Munich also lies another electoral seat, called Starnberg, where the court sometimes takes the diversion of water-hunting. A stag is forced into a neighbouring lake, the hounds pursuing him, followed by the huntsmen in boats, and their highnesses in a splendid barge, which carries twenty-four brass guns.

The court here also often take the diversion of hunting the heron, and every year at the conclusion of this sport, an heron that has the good fortune to be taken alive, is set at liberty, with a silver ring put on its leg, on which is engraved the name of the reigning elector. Mr. Keyser mentions one of these birds being taken a second time, that had on its ring the name of duke Ferdinand the present elector's grandfather; so that it had survived its former adventure above sixty years; they put a ring with the present elector's name on its leg, and restored the bird to liberty a second time. Upon this occasion the same author mentions an eagle that died at Vienna in 1719, after a confinement of one hundred and four years; and adds, that it is probable that these and the like birds in the enjoyment of their natural freedom reach to a much greater longevity.

Ingolstadt is a fortified town, pleasantly seated on the Danube. It is of an indifferent size and strength, with broad, straight, and well paved streets. The houses are mostly painted white on the outside; but the town is poor and ill peopled. It contains an upper and lower parish church, together with three others, a college of Jesuits, two convents of monks, and one of nuns, and an university founded in 1472, and enlarged in 1746, in which is a good library, and a cabinet of antiquities. This town was besieged by the Swedes in 1632, without success; but was taken by the Austrians in 1743.

Reichenhall, a town seated on the Sala, with a rich salt spring in it, the water of which is partly boiled here, and partly by means of a wheel, thirty-six feet in

diameter, thrown up to the higher parts of a lofty house, and from thence conveyed by means of leaden pipes to the distance of three German miles to Trau-enstein, and there boiled; the latter of these places abounding much more in wood, and having greater conveniences for exportation. On the mountains over which these pipes run are small houses and water-works at proper distances, in order to throw the water higher. Near the salt spring is a stream of fresh water, by the swift current of which their wheels and water-engines are worked; but as both springs are surrounded with hills, and the place in danger of being overflowed by the conflux of these waters, an aqueduct was undertaken above three hundred years ago, and completed at a prodigious expence. This is, indeed, a work that cannot be beheld without amazement; its channel runs under the town of Reichenhall, and under several gardens and fields at the depth of twelve fathoms in surface, and is a mile and a half in length to the place where the water breaks out to day-light, with great impetuosity. One passes through this aqueduct, says Mr. Keyser, within a quarter of an hour in boats by candle-light, and the motion is so rapid, that the boat must often be checked. The water is usually between three and four feet deep; but is frequently swelled by the rains, so as not to leave room for the passengers in the boat to sit upright. This canal is five feet broad, and every eight or ten years the bottom is cleared of the stones carried thither by the floods or fresh water, or wantonly thrown down the spiracles or openings, which in the form of towers rise into the open air, and through some of which one may speak from the walls of the city with those who are going along the aqueduct. The roof with respect to duration, appears to be an everlasting work, it being not only of free-stone; but in many places overlaid with a very hard kind of rosin, as with a varnish, so that it looks like one entire solid piece. The descent to this subterraneous canal is by the steps of the tower near the spring of the Sala, whose water overflowing, runs about fifty paces before it discharges itself into the fresh-water stream, and then does not immediately mingle with it.

SECT. III.

Of the principal Places in Lower Bavaria, particularly of Landshut, the imperial City of Ratisbon, &c.

THE principal town in Lower Bavaria is Landshut, which is seated on the Iser, in the forty-eighth degree forty-one minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree twenty-five minutes east longitude, forty-six miles to the north of Munich. It is not only well built and strongly fortified; but stands in the richest and most pleasant part of all Bavaria, and is the seat of the elector's lieutenant for Lower Bavaria, who has a court here and several offices. It has a bridge over the Iser, and on the other side a suburb called Saldenthal, in which is an abbey of Cistercian nuns. The town contains an electoral palace seated on a hill, with another which stands in the midst of the town. Its principal church, dedicated to St. Martin, has a tower, which is esteemed the highest in the empire, and hence it obtained the name of Lands-hut, which signifies The hat of the country. The new buildings, added to the duke's palace, consist of a neat piece of architecture in the Italian stile. There is here also a parish-church dedicated to St. Job, a college of Jesuits, three convents of monks, and the same number of nuns.

The imperial city of Ratisbon, called by the Germans Regensburg, is a large fortified and populous town, seated on the Danube, in the forty-ninth degree ten minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree east longitude. This city is the capital of the popish bishopric of Ratisbon, yet both the magistracy and burghers are of the Lutheran religion. The river Regen runs through the town, and then falls into the Danube. The city is well fortified with a double wall, ditches, and ramparts,

parts, and stands in a soil abounding in corn, pasture, and vineyards, whose grapes produce a strong and palatable wine. The largest church belonging to the Lutherans is that of the Trinity, and they have also an academy, in which are eight teachers. There are here four immediate states of the empire, which consist of the bishopric, and the imperial foundations of St. Emmeran, with the abbies of Upper and Lower Munster. There are here also a college of Jesuits, a cloister of St. James, instituted by Scotsmen of the popish religion; the collegiate church of Altkapell, the nunneries of St. Clara and St. Paul, and the hospital of the Holy Cross. Here the imperial diet often meet in a large upper room hung with tapestry, in which is the emperor's throne of cloth of gold. The elector Palatine has also two fine palaces in the city, and there are several others belonging to the neighbouring prelates. Among the other public buildings is a stone bridge of fifteen arches over the Danube, the most substantial structure of the kind either on this river, or on the Rhine: it is twenty-three feet broad, and about one thousand and ninety-one in length. It is supported by square piers, and defended by buttresses against the force of the stream and shoals of ice.

The bishop of Ratibon is a prince of the empire, and sits on the bench of ecclesiastical princes between the bishops of Freysing and Passau, and on that of the circle of Bavaria, between the same prelates. The limits of this bishopric comprehend two collegiate churches, twenty-eight abbies and prelacies, and twenty-nine rural deaneries, to which belong one thousand three hundred and eighty-three parishes, chapels of ease, and chaplainries. This bishop, who is a sovereign prince, has his consistory, his council, and treasury; but the elector of Bavaria holds the bishop's court in the city of Ratibon.

The abbey of St. Emmeran, which consists of Benedictine monks, is under the government of an abbot, who has his seat at the diet of the empire on the Rhenish bench of prelates, and has also a seat and voice in the diet of Bavaria. The church of this cloister boasts of keeping the compleat body of St. Denis the Areopagite, which they say was stolen out of the abbey of St. Denis in France, though the latter maintain that they are still in the possession of it; yet in the palace chapel of Munich is one of his hands, and both in the cathedral church at Bamberg, and in that of St. Vitus, in the cathedral at Prague, the head of this saint is shewn.

The two princely abbies of Upper and Lower Munster are under the government of two abbesses, who have the title of princesses, and have likewise a vote at the diets of the empire, and the circle of Bavaria; but the ladies of these foundations may marry out of them.

Within the circle of Bavaria is also the city of Freysing, the capital and residence of the bishop, who is a sovereign prince. It stands on two hills on the little river Mosach, not far from the Iser, and commands a most delightful prospect into the electorate of Bavaria, the archbishopric of Saltzburg and Tirol. One of these hills is within the city walls, and upon it stands the bishop's palace, with a cathedral, a Benedictine church, and the collegiate churches of St. John and St. Andrew, St. Peter's chapel, and other public edifices. In the other part of the city is a large market-place, in the center of which stands a beautiful marble statue of the virgin Mary, with the church of St. George, a seminary of Benedictines, a Franciscan convent, an orphan-house, and an hospital. Without the city are the bishop's gardens, and a convent of Præmonstratenses. On the other hill, which lies to the west of the city, is a Benedictine abbey, and below it the collegiate church of St. Vitus.

S E C T. IV.

Of the Upper Palatinate, or Palatinate of Bavaria, the Dutchies of Neuburg and Saltzbach, and the Bishopric of Passau, with the principal Places in each.

THE Upper Palatinate, which lies on the Danube, belongs to the duke of Bavaria, and is sometimes called the Nordgaw, from its lying to the north of the

elector's other dominions. It is bounded on the north by Voigtland in Upper Saxony; on the east by Bohemia and Austria; on the south by the Danube, which separates it from the dutchy of Bavaria, and by Swabia and part of Franconia on the west.

It is a mountainous, rocky country, but rich in mines of silver, copper, and iron; some of its valleys, however, produce corn and good pasture; and they have likewise some vineyards. But this dutchy does not entitle the elector to a particular seat, either in the college of princes, or the circle of Bavaria.

The capital of the Upper or Bavarian Palatinate is Amberg, which is situated on the little river Ilz, or Ils, which runs through it; and is so well fortified, that it is reckoned one of the strongest towns in Upper Germany. Its principal ornaments are the castle and armoury, both which are handsome structures, as are also the electoral palace, the cathedral dedicated to St. Martin, and the college of Jesuits, which has a beautiful church. This city, which is seated in the forty-ninth degree twenty-six minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree four minutes east longitude, is conveniently situated for traffic, it being almost in the centre between Ratibon, Ingolstadt, and Nuremberg. Its greatest trade arises from its iron-mines and manufactures, which are sent down the Nabe to Ratibon and other cities.

In the year 1703, the Imperialists took this city from the elector, who was put under the ban of the empire, for joining with France in the war then carrying on against the emperor Leopold and his confederates. In the war of 1743, between the late elector, the emperor Charles VII. and the queen of Hungary, Amberg, with all the Upper Palatinate, was taken by the Austrians in the service of that princess.

The principalities or dutchies of Neuburg and Sultzbach form the northern part of the Upper Palatinate, and are reckoned in Bavaria, though they are subject to the elector Palatine, who on account of Neuburg has a seat and voice both in the diet of the empire, and the circle of Bavaria.

Neuburg enjoys a government of its own, together with a chamber of justice, and a prefecture-office. It has still some Lutheran fiefs; but the prevailing religion is the popish. The bailiwicks belonging to it lie dispersed. The most remarkable places it contains are the following:

Neuburg, or Newburg, the capital of the whole dutchy, and the seat of the government, stands on a hill, in a good situation by the Danube. It is well built and fortified, and has a palace, with a college of Jesuits, which was formerly a convent of ladies, and other public buildings.

Hochstet, or Hochstadt, is a small town seated on the Danube; but is well provided with all sorts of necessaries, and has rich corn-fields and good pastures in its neighbourhood. In 1634, during the civil wars in Germany, the Croats barbarously cut off many of the inhabitants, and ruined most of the town; but it has been since pretty well rebuilt, and defended by a strong castle on the Danube, over which is a wooden bridge, a little below the town. This place is most famous for the glorious victory gained near it on the second of August 1704, by the united forces of the Imperialists, English, and Dutch, under the command of the duke of Marlborough and prince Eugene, over one of the compleatest armies of French and Bavarians that ever took the field, commanded by the elector of Bavaria, and the French marshals Tallard and Marsin, who were entirely defeated, about twenty thousand being killed on the spot, or drowned in the Danube, and about thirteen thousand taken prisoners; among whom was marshal Tallard, who with many officers of rank were brought to England, and remained at Nottingham, where they were allowed their parole, till the year 1712. In remembrance of this victory a pillar was erected with a Latin inscription; and in acknowledgement of the signal services here performed by the duke of Marlborough, the emperor Leopold created him a prince of the empire, under the title of Mindelheim, a place in Bavaria, which in the year 1714, was restored to the elector by the treaty of Baden.

Blenheim,

Blenheim, a village seated on the Danube, not far from Hochstet, and which also gives name to the above battle.

The principality of Sultzbach has also a particular government of its own, together with a tribunal. The inhabitants and churches are partly Lutheran and partly of the Romish religion, and the affairs of the Lutheran consistory are managed by the government, in which two Protestant counsellors preside.

The principal town in this district is Sultzbach, the capital of the principality, and the residence of the regency and tribunal, though the number of the inhabitants does not much exceed three hundred. It is, however, divided into two parts, and the upper, which stands on a hill, is separated from the lower by a wall. The prince's palace stands on a rock opposite the upper town. The Lutherans have a church and a grammar school, and the Roman catholics a Latin school and a Capuchin convent.

The bishopric or principality of Passau lies between Bavaria, Bohemia, and Austria, and is seated on the river Danube. The bishops were formerly suffragans to the archbishops of Salzburg; but are now made independent, and the bishop of Passau in the college of imperial princes sits on the ecclesiastical bench between the bishops of Ratisbon and Trent; but in the circle of Bavaria is the last among the prelates. To the episcopal cathedral, so far as its jurisdiction extends over Bavaria, belong two collegiate churches, with thirteen abbeys and priories, and ten rural deaneries, containing three hundred and twenty-eight places of worship; it also extends a great way into Austria. The revenues of this bishopric are said to amount to eighty thousand crowns a year.

Passau, the capital of this bishopric, is seated on the Danube, which at this place receives into it the Inn, and on the other side the Ilz, a river famous for its beautiful pearls. It consists of three towns, that properly called Passau, lying between the rivers Danube and Inn; the Instadt, which stands on the other side of the Inn, and is joined to the former by means of a bridge; and the Ilzstadt, which is on the north side of the Danube, where it receives the Ilz. The last of these rivers runs between Ilzstadt and the mountain of St. George, on which stands a castle. The city on those sides that are surrounded by the water is without walls; but towards the land side is fortified both with ramparts and ditches. The cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Stephen, was, together with the city, burnt down in the year 1662, but has been rebuilt with great splendor, and on an eminence near it stands the bishop's palace. Besides several parish-churches there is in this city a convent of Benedictines, a Franciscan and a Capuchin convent, with a college of Jesuits. On the hill, at the foot of which Instadt is seated, is the Pilgrim church, called Mariahulf, and near the town of Passau, properly so called, is the convent of St. Nicholas, in which are regular canons of the order of St. Augustine: Passau enjoys a very good situation for trade.

S E C T. V.

The Archbishopric of SALTZBURG.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. The Religion and Government of the Inhabitants; with the Power, Titles, Arms, Revenues, and Forces of the Archbishop.

THE archbishopric of Salzburg, which is in the southern part of Bavaria, is bounded on the east by Austria and Stiria, on the south by Carinthia and Tyrol, on the west by Upper Bavaria, and northward by the same part of that electorate. Its length and breadth are very differently represented by different authors; but by the lowest computation it is a hundred and fourteen miles in length and breadth.

This country is on all sides defended by mountains and narrow passes, or rather entirely consists of mountains and valleys. No kind of grain is sowed here, whence it is supplied with all its corn from Bavaria; but every part of it produces excellent hay, and a great number of fine cattle. The horses in particular are

esteemed for their beauty, hardiness, and vigour, being able to travel full speed up the highest mountains with no other food than hay and grass, without any oats.

At Hallein, which is about two hours distance from the city of Salzburg, are salt-works belonging to the sovereign, in which salt of all colours, as yellow, red, blue, and white, is hewn out from along the subterraneous caverns, and then dissolved in fresh water; which being conveyed into pits, the finest salt is made of the brine: but these works are only carried on in summer, when a sufficient quantity is made not only for home-consumption, but to answer all the demands from Bavaria, where it is exchanged for corn. In this archbishopric are also considerable mines of silver, copper, lead, iron, and lapis calaminaris. A great deal of steel and brass is also made here, and the plenty of these metals remarkably appears in the astonishing number of swords, sabres, bayonets, muskets, cannon, and mortars, to be seen in the armouries all over the country. In this bishopric is also found a very good marble.

The principal river in this country is the Salza, or Salzach, which rises in the valley of Crumbler, towards the county of Tirol, watering a great part of it; and, after receiving into it the little rivers of Saal and Gastein, which rise in this country, continues its course into Upper Bavaria, where it falls into the Inn, which washes a small part of the western side of the archbishopric. Here also rise the Ens and Muer, with many other little streams, rivulets, and lakes; all which abound in fish.

Though the popish doctrines and worship are alone tolerated in this archbishopric; yet, at the time of the Reformation, Lutheranism was embraced by great numbers, whom archbishop Matthew Langins harrassed and strove to extirpate by oppression and violence. But archbishop John James proceeded with greater mildness, and, in order to reconcile all tempers, obtained the pope's licence to administer the sacrament in both kinds. Archbishop Wolfgang Theodoric, in the year 1588, drove great numbers of his Lutheran subjects out of the country, and his successor, Marcus Sittich, count of Hohenimbs, neglected neither fair means, menaces, nor violence, particularly by quartering troops on the Protestants, to bring them again to the church of Rome, in so much that it was supposed the whole country was become Roman. But succeeding times shewed that this was a mistake, great numbers openly professing Lutheranism. On this archbishop Maximilian Gandolph left them no other alternative than either to fly their country, or abjure their faith. But the most violent flame of persecution blazed out under archbishop Leopold Anthony Eleutherius, baron of Firmian, whose cruel zeal for suppressing Lutheranism in his province was so great, that the oppressed party were obliged to apply for redress to the states of that religion in the diet, who prevailed so far, that, in the year 1732, permission was granted to the Lutheran Saltzburghers to withdraw quietly with their effects; on which above thirty thousand persons embraced this opportunity, dispersing themselves into the other protestant countries of Germany, Prussia, and even the English colonies in America: in all which places they were received with all that benevolence and encouragement which their magnanimity deserved; and these emigrations have continued ever since.

In the archbishopric are six cities and twenty-five market-towns. The estates of the nobility enjoy a jurisdiction over the vassals. All peasants are, however, allowed the use of fire-arms; and, being from their early years trained up at shooting at a mark, would on occasion prove a very serviceable body. The nobility were here formerly very numerous; but the policy of the princes set so many springs at work to oppress and extirpate them, that not even one at present remains, and all their estates are in the hands of the church. With respect to the few nobles at court, or belonging to the cathedral, they are all foreigners, especially Austrians, Bohemians, and some Bavarians. The nobility being therefore extinct, the prelates and commons form the states of the country: the former of these are the bishop of Chiemsee, the prior of the cathedral, the abbot of St. Peter at Salzburg, the prince of Berchtolsgader, the abbot

abbot of St. Michael in Bavaria, the prior of Haglwerth, and the abbess of Nunnberg; the latter are composed of the cities and twenty-two market towns.

The titles of the archbishop are, By the grace of God prince of the holy Roman empire, and archbishop of Saltzburg, Legatus Natus of the apostolic chair of Rome, and primate of Germany.

His arms are in the dexter half or, party per pale a lion sable; but the sinister is damasquined. His supporters are a sword and a crozier surmounted, as it were, behind with a cross.

Besides his being the born and perpetual legate of the apostolic see, and primate of Germany, he also enjoys several other important honours. He wears a cardinal's habit, and all appeals from him lie to the pope alone in person, by whose permission he disposes of canonships. The emperor styles him well-beloved; but all other ecclesiastics who are not of princely blood, have only the title of honourable, and your reverence. This archbishop has the following suffragan bishops under him; those of Freysing, Ratibon, Brixen, Gurk, Chiemsee, Seckau, and Lavant. The four last are even nominated, consecrated, and confirmed by his own power, without standing in need of the pope's confirmation; and, indeed, he is the only archbishop who enjoys this privilege. His temporal pre-eminences are, that except the electoral archbishops, he is the only archbishop in all Germany who sits and votes in the diet of the empire; and in the college of princes, he enjoys alternately with Austria, the first seat on the ecclesiastical bench, and likewise in the directory.

The principal colleges of the archbishop are the privy, or state council, the consistory, the court of justice, the treasury, and the council of war.

His revenues, according to Keyser, amount to eight hundred thousand rixdollars a year. The military force of this archbishopric consists of only one regiment of foot, containing a thousand men, whose uniform is generally white faced with red. His fifty halberdeers and fifty horse-guards are rather instituted for the splendor of the court than for the military establishment; these, who are the life-guards, and the other officers, wear black with red facings and gold lace. A great number of soldiers, in a country so well defended from invasions, by its mountains and narrow passes, would be needless and inconvenient, on account of the scarcity of corn, and the bravery and expertness of the peasants. Every bailiwick has its rendezvous, to which on a signal being given, by means of cannon planted on the mountains and towers, they repair completely armed, and there wait the command for marching. There are said to be twenty-five thousand peasants, who never fail to hit a mark of a hand's breadth.

S E C T. VI.

Of the City of Saltzburg, and the several Palaces belonging to the Archbishop in that City and its Neighbourhood.

THE principal place in this archbishopric is the city of Saltzburg, in Latin Salisburgum, the capital of the archbishopric, and the residence of the archbishop, which is situated in the forty-seventh degree forty-five minutes north latitude, and in the thirteenth degree five minutes east longitude, seventy-one miles to the south-east of Munich. It is surrounded by three mountains called Imberg, Schlossberg, and Munchberg; but on one side is open to a large plain, through the midst of which runs the Salza. It is computed to be five thousand geometrical paces in circuit, and is well fortified: that part of the city which lies to the right of the river, is surrounded with eight bastions; that on the left side with three: the mountain-castle which stands in the former is very strong, both from its situation and its works, and in it is the principal arsenal. It is provided for a whole year with necessary provisions, and the garrison is never changed.

Saltzburg is a fine city, and the greatest part of the houses are five stories high; but the streets are narrow, and being paved after the old fashion, the course of the

water and filth is in the middle, and the spouts consequently project to some distance from the houses. The roofs from the streets appear entirely flat; but only consist of several small low ridges that are hid by the four main walls of the houses. One part of the city stands on a steep rock. Before the palace fronting the new apartments is a fountain, esteemed the largest and finest in all Germany; the figures are all of white marble; but in the grotesque taste. The reservoir is one hundred and seven feet in circumference, exclusive of the steps; four large horses spout the water out of their mouths and nostrils, though not in such quantities as the statues above them. The height of the whole work exceeds fifty feet, and is surmounted by a column of water eighteen feet high.

The palace, which is a magnificent structure, contains one hundred and seventy-three rooms. The archbishop's apartment is very noble, the ascent to it is by a large marble stair-case, and the ceilings are finely painted and gilt. The furniture is surprisingly rich. Another apartment still more magnificent, if possible, is used on days of ceremony. Indeed, the whole palace abounds with fine pictures, tables of inlaid marble, and superb stoves of all colours, ornamented with statues. But though the tapestries are valuable on account of the gold and silver they contain, yet age has deprived them of the greatest part of their beauty. From the roof of the palace, which you may go quite round upon boards laid over the small ridges, is a delightful prospect. The new apartments, though not in the exact rules of symmetry, are a considerable ornament to the place, and contain all the offices of the archbishop. The stables are in three long and arched divisions; the horses, which amount to one hundred and fifty, eat out of white marble mangers; and twice a week a running water being turned in through both sides of the stalls, carries away any filth that may have gathered there. Over this stable is the fencing school, and before it a pond for watering the horses ninety-three feet in length, in the midst of which stands a very large horse made of one piece of marble, with water gushing out of its mouth.

The winter riding school is very lofty, with seats placed between the windows on both sides of the walls, for the accommodation of spectators of distinction, that the riders may not be incommoded in their exercise. The summer riding school, which also serves for baiting wild beasts, is in the open air, and has three galleries, one side of which are all cut out of the rock.

The cathedral of St. Rupert is built of free-stone, and has a stately front, adorned with four marble statues of St. Peter, St. Paul, St. Rupert, and St. Virgilius; the two latter being formerly its bishops, and the inside of the building is adorned with pilasters of the Corinthian order. It is built in the form of a cross. Its high altar is of marble, which on grand festivals bears a sun of gold, adorned with precious stones to the value of one hundred thousand crowns, with a large cross of gold, and four candlesticks of the same metal. All the other altars are of beautiful marble of different kinds, and under the cupola are four of them, with an organ over each; but the fifth and finest organ, which is over the chief entrance, consists of three thousand two hundred and sixty-six pipes, the longest of which is thirty-three feet. To this organ belong four keys, and forty-two registers, of which seventeen are of clock-work. The roof of this church is covered with copper, and the gallery between the cathedral and palace is of white marble.

The new university church of the immaculate conception of the Blessed Virgin is a noble building, and the inside ornamented with very fine stucco-work. Before the Theatine convent stands a marble pillar of one single stone twenty-four feet high.

A covered bridge leads from the lower part of the city to the archbishop's palace of Mirabella, whose fine chapel constitutes the middle part of the principal front: facing it is a mount Parnassus, with a Pegasus on the top, from which the water falls in cascades. In the palace is a grand marble stair-case finely painted, and the great hall is adorned with curious tables, and many beautiful landscapes. The floors, as in the city-palace, are inlaid with

red and white marble, and the hangings are mostly red embroidered with gold and silver. The garden is very beautiful, and the Salza, which runs close by it, adds to the agreeableness of the prospect. Within the garden is a large aviary, where, during the summer heats, the archbishop frequently takes a repast. The theatre decorated with green turf is very beautiful, and has four large marble groupes, the rape of Proserpine, the rape of Helen, Hercules wrestling with Antheus, and Æneas carrying his father out of Troy.

About a quarter of a league from Saltzburg is Hellbrun, another of the archbishop's seats. The building contains nothing remarkable; but the garden is extremely pleasant, it being laid out in the manner of a wilderness, and abounding with the finest water-works, reservoirs, ponds, and basons, all so clear that you see the trouts and other fish sporting in them. Among other

beautiful grottos is one with an old decayed brick roof of curious workmanship. Over one of the many springs in this garden is the statue of a monster, which may be taken for a wild man, had it not a cock's comb, and the feet of an eagle. Under it is the following inscription:

"The original of this monstrous figure, called a forest devil, was caught in hunting near Havensburg, Matthew Lang being then cardinal and archbishop. His skin was yellowish, he had all the marks of a savage disposition, yet never looked at any one, but hid himself in corners. He had the face of a man with a beard, eagle's feet with lion's claws, the tail of a dog, and on his head grew a large comb like that of a cock. He soon died with hunger, as neither allurements nor violence could bring him to eat or drink."

CHAP. XV.

Of the Circle of FRANCONIA.

SECT. I.

Of Franconia in general, and first of the Bishopric of Bamberg; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Rivers. The State, Privileges, and Arms of the Bishop; the Offices of the Government: with a particular Description of the City of Bamberg, and the Palace of Pommersfeldt.

FRANCONIA, called by the Germans Frankenland, is bounded on the north by Thuringia, Saxony, and Hesse; on the east by the palatinate of Bavaria, and part of Bohemia; on the south by Swabia; and on the west by the circle of the Rhine, part of Hesse, and the Wetteraw; extending from east to west about a hundred and thirty miles, and from north to south a hundred and thirty-five; but is in both ways much indented.

The states of this circle are divided into four benches: to the spiritual bench of princes belong the bishoprics of Bamberg, Wurtzburg, and Eichstadt, with the Teutonic order; to the secular bench of princes, Brandenburg-Baireith, Brandenburg-Anspach, Henneberg-Schleusingen, Henneberg-Rombild, Henneberg-Schmal-kalden, Schwartzenberg, Lowenstein-Wertheim, and Hohenlohe-Waldenburg; to the bench of counts and lords, Hohenlohe-Neuenstein, Castell, Wertheim, Rieneck, Erbach, Limburg-Geildorf, Limburg-Specksfeld, Seinsheim, Reigelsberg, Wiesentheid, Welzheim, and Hausen; and to the bench of imperial cities, Nuremberg, Rothenburg, Windsheim, Schweinfurt, and Weisenburg.

The summoning princes for this circle are the bishop of Bamberg, and the margraves of Brandenburg-Baireith and Anspach, who take their turn in summoning every three years.

With respect to religion, this circle, which is one of the mixed, presents one Roman catholic and one protestant assessor to the chamber-judicatory of the empire. The death of the former is notified by the chamber to the popish, and that of the latter to the protestant summoning-office of the circle.

The first country we shall describe in this circle is the bishopric of Bamberg, which terminates to the north on the principality of Coburg and the Voightland; to the east on Brandenburg-Baireith and the territory of Nuremberg; to the south on the territory of Nuremberg, Brandenburg, and the principality of Schwartzenberg; and to the west on the bishopric of Wurtzburg. Its greatest extent is about seventy-one miles in length, and its greatest breadth above forty-eight miles.

The soil of this bishopric produces all sorts of grain, vegetables, and fruit, in abundance; particularly grapes, of which good wine is made. It likewise yields saffron, and an excellent sort of liquorice, of which great quan-

ties are exported; and near the city of Bamberg are such numbers of laurel, fig, orange, and lemon-trees, that this spot has been stiled the Little Italy of Germany. It has also good woods, and a great number of cattle.

The Maine, which issues out of this country, traverses the north part of it, and receives the Rotach, the Itz, or Its, and the Rednitz; the latter of which also rises here, after which the Maine receives several smaller streams.

Bamberg contains eighteen boroughs and fifteen market-towns, and the inhabitants are zealous papists.

The bishop of Bamberg stands immediately under the papal see, and may act within his own diocese as an archbishop. King Henry, the founder of this bishopric, appointed the king of Bohemia upper cup-bearer, the elector palatine upper sewer, the elector of Saxony upper martial, and the elector of Brandenburg upper chamberlain of the bishopric. These electors invest four antient families of the nobility of Franconia with these offices, which they perform as their deputies.

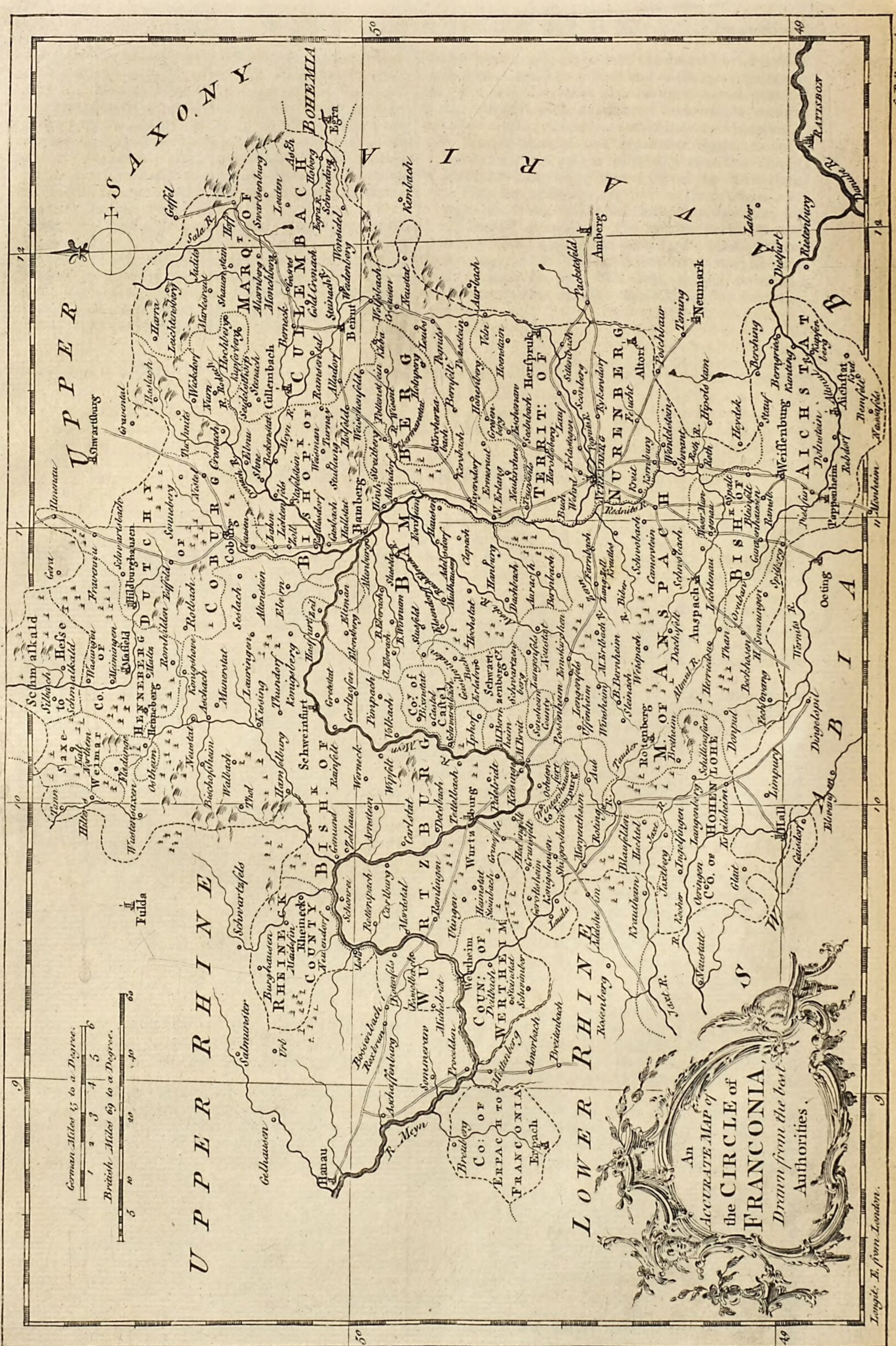
The arms of this bishopric are a lion fable, in a field or, over which is a band argent traversing the whole.

The bishop has his seat and voice at the diet of the empire, and has the fourth place on the spiritual bench.

The episcopal vicar resides among the clergy and determines their disputes, and all appeals lie to him from the consistory, which decides in matrimonial cases; but from the vicariate appeals lie to Rome. The regency consists of a president, a chancellor, and about twenty aulic counsellors. Under the regency are the inferior courts of St. Stephen, St. Gangolph, and St. James; with the provincial-court at Bamberg, the pupil-court, and police-court, the penal or criminal-court, and the office of under-bailiff.

The aulic chamber and upper receipt-office have the care of the bishop's revenues. Each of these offices has a president, and the latter also represents the aulic military council, who have the management of military affairs.

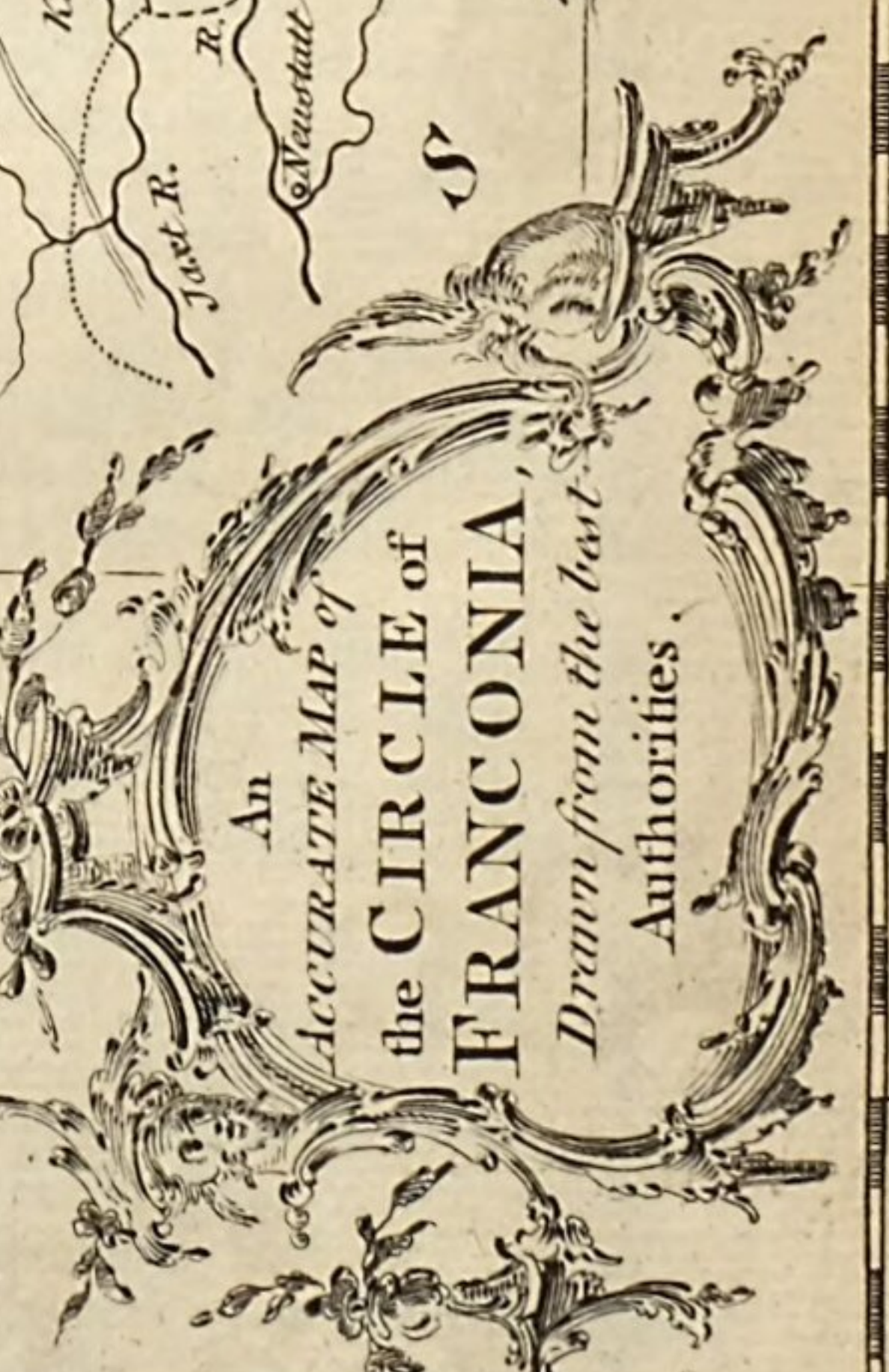
The principal place in this bishopric is Bamberg, antiently called Babenberg, which is seated upon hills near the river Rednitz in a fertile and delightful country, in the 50th degree 15 minutes north latitude, and the 10th degree 15 minutes east longitude. The town itself, which is in most parts surrounded with a wall and ditch, is not large, but has extensive suburbs, and is, in general, well built and populous. In the upper part, which stands upon a hill, is the princely residence of Petersburg; and also the great cathedral church of St. George, a vast Gothic edifice, with a lofty steeple and four noble spires. In this church is the monument of Henry II. the founder of the bishopric, and his consort Cunigunda. The marble



German Miles 15 to a Degree.
British Miles 69 to a Degree.

UPPER RHINE

LOWER RHINE



London: E. from London.

6. Rother v. d. A.

ble image of the empress lies on the right side of her husband, and the tomb is adorned with basso relievos representing the most remarkable passages of Henry II's life, among which the circumstance alledged in the bull for Cunigunda's canonization is not omitted, namely, that the emperor, on his death-bed, solemnly declared before several princes and other witnesses, that he left Cunigunda a virgin, as he received her. In the treasury belonging to this cathedral are a great number of jewels and relics; but what is most curious are the four Gospels written on parchment in beautiful letters of gold, finely bound, and set with precious stones. There is here the bull of pope Boniface VIII. in which the credulous vulgar are assured, that the holy nail kept here is unquestionably one of those that fastened our Saviour to the cross. Among the other public buildings are the cathedral of St. Stephen and St. James, with a Benedictine convent on the Monchsberg, which is a magnificent edifice, and the church belonging to it has an admirable frontispiece, a superb arched roof, and three fine organs: it is also embellished with sculpture and paintings; among the latter, the altar-piece, which is adorned with the representation of the assumption of the Virgin Mary, is most remarkable. Here is also the nunnery of St. Theodore. In the middle part of the town, which has a communication with the upper part, by means of a lofty stone-bridge, are many fine houses; as also the antient palace of Geyerwerth, which has a noble orangery; a fine church of the Jesuits, who have the inspection of the university; the parish-church of St. Martin, that of St. Mary, three monasteries, two nunneries, and an hospital. A long and broad bridge leads from the middle part of the town to the suburbs of Treuerstadt, in which is the Dominican nunnery of the holy sepulchre.

About three hours journey from Bamberg is the castle or palace of Pomersfeldt, which belongs to the bishop, and stands in a delightful country. This is a magnificent structure; but, instead of a grand entrance, or portico, it has three small doors, and two more in the wings. Opposite the front of the palace are the menagery and stables, which are built in an oval form, with a colonade. On one side of the middle door stands the statue of Julius Cæsar, and on the other that of Alexander the Great, with the Gordian knot at his feet. At the entrance of the bishop's apartments, which are in the front, are on one side the statues of Faith and Charity, and on the other Justice and Fortitude. The grand double stair-case has few equals; it is indeed but one story high; but the roof is as high as the palace itself, and the ceiling is finely painted by Bies, one of the gentlemen of the bed-chamber, and Marchini, an Italian. The stairs, with the sculpture on each side, are of free-stone.

From the court at the foot of the stair-case you descend down some steps into a beautiful grotto, covered with stucco-work, so finely polished that it resembles marble. In this grotto are eight statues, representing the seasons and the four elements; and between these are several elegant figures of shell-work, representing sea-animals. The lustres are of glass of various colours; and on each side of the grotto is a small colonade, where in summer orange-trees, &c. are set, which, by their verdure and fragrance, add to the agreeableness of this cool retreat.

In the story where the grand stair-case ends, and exactly over the grotto, is a hall well worth seeing. It is adorned with capital pictures and family portraits, the ceiling is curiously painted and adorned with gilt cornices, and it yields a charming view of the gardens, and a delightful prospect of the adjacent country.

Most of the other apartments are small; but the tapestry hangings and other furniture are very splendid. One room exhibits ten battles in which prince Eugene signalized himself by his conduct and courage; and in the bishop's drawing-room is a copy of Corregio's night-piece, in which is represented the birth of Christ. Over the fire-place in the bed-chamber is a very fine picture of an old man praying to a crucifix, and in the same room is the birth of Christ in Mosaic work. Adjoining to this room is a looking-glass closet, in which is a great quantity of valuable China ware, and some of the finest Dresden porcelain. On the tables are placed crystal vases, cups made of precious stones, and other curiosities; a-

mong which is an exquisite piece of workmanship in amber, representing our Saviour in his agony in the garden, supported by an angel. The dining-parlour is hung with gilt leather, on which is represented David's triumphant entry, after he had killed Goliath. In this piece, which is very old, the figures are as big as the life, and well executed. The chapel is not answerable to the magnificence that appears in every other part of this palace. Before the altar are deposited the bowels of the late elector of Mentz, whose heart lies buried at Bamberg, and his body at the city of Mentz. On the top of the palace stands an image of Atlas, with an armillary sphere on his shoulders.

The garden is on a slope or gentle declivity, and on each side is a small wood of linden-trees planted in vistas.

S E C T. II.

Of the Bishopric of WURTZBURG.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce; the Religion of the Inhabitants; the Titles, Arms, and Officers under the Bishop; with a particular Description of the City of Wurtzburg.

THE bishopric of Wurtzburg is bounded on the east by the bishopric of Bamberg, the principalities of Schwartzenberg, Brandenburg, Onalzbach, and the signiory of Rothenburg; on the south by the county of Hohenlohe; on the west by the archbishopric of Mentz, and the abbey of Fuld; and on the north by the county of Henneberg, and the principality of Coburg; extending about sixty-five miles in length, and fifty in breadth.

The soil is very fruitful, and produces more corn and wine than the inhabitants consume. The principal river in this country is the Main.

The established religion is that of popery, but there are also Lutheran and Calvinist churches within the territory of Wurtzburg; but these frequently make the most grievous complaints of oppression and injustice to the diets of the empire, from which they seek redress.

The title of the bishop is, Of the holy Roman empire, prince, bishop of Wurtzburg, and duke of East Frank-
enland.

His arms on account of the bishopric are, an ensign gules and argent, obliquely waving, quartered, and supported on a lance or, in a field verte; and on account of the duchy of Frankenland, a cross striped quarterly gules and argent, with three points terminating gules. Behind the shield armorial project a crozier and a sword.

The bishops of Wurtzburg cause a naked sword to be carried before them, and in 1752 pope Benedict XIV. granted them the privilege of bearing the archiepiscopal pall and cross; but in other respects they are suffragans to the archbishop of Mentz. At the diet of the empire this bishop is possessed of the fifth place on the spiritual bench in the council of the princes; but in that of Franconia he has the first voice.

The episcopal high colleges are the following: The spiritual regency, which has the management of such affairs as relate to the episcopal jurisdiction; the vicariate, which determines all disputes relating to religion; and the consistory, which has the management of matrimonial affairs. From these two last an appeal lies to the metropolitan.

The temporal colleges are the privy council: the regency and Aulic council, which judge in all criminal and civil affairs: the Aulic tribunal, to which an appeal lies from the provincial: the provincial tribunal, which judges matters of inheritance, guardianship, and the like: the upper council, to which belong matters of police, and the town council.

The episcopal revenues are estimated at four or five hundred thousand guldens. This prince and bishop maintains five regiments of foot and horse, and all military affairs are subject to the Aulic council of war.

In this principality are thirty-three boroughs, and about ten market towns, the principal of which is the following.

Wurtzburg, in Latin Wirceburgum, was antiently called Herbipolis, and is seated on the river Main, in the

the forty-ninth degree thirty-nine minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree forty-eight minutes east longitude. It is the capital of the bishopric, and is well fortified and defended by a castle that stands on a high and rocky mountain, and in which is an episcopal palace, and a well provided magazine. The above citadel is called Marienberg. The first gate is defended by two bastions paved with hewn stone, and a deep broad moat. Over it are the arms of Philip of Schonborn, elector of Mentz and bishop of Wurtzburg, who built it in 1652. It is adorned with eight statues of stone, three without, in Roman armour, and five within, one in the middle representing Hercules leaning on his club. The fortifications are all lined with hewn stone; but are irregular on account of the situation. The apartments in this castle are very commodious, and well furnished, and the tapestry, in particular, is very magnificent. The chapel is built in a fine taste, and has a handsome dome, with four beautiful altars covered with stucco; two in imitation of porphyry, and two that resemble jasper. In the cellar belonging to this castle is an avenue, bordered on each side with fifty lofty tons, holding each about fifty hogheads of wine, French measure. This avenue is so extensive, that you can hardly see the end of it, though it is well lighted; for each ton has a great iron candlestick that holds a flambeau of yellow wax. These enormous tons are neatly adorned with grapes, glasses, and goblets in basso relievo.

The town is divided into four quarters and four suburbs, which lie on both sides the Maine, over which is a stone bridge of eight arches, at the entrance upon which is a triumphal arch of hewn stone, adorned with two statues of Pallas in niches on the outside, and two of Mars in niches within. The city has a very gay aspect: its public squares and streets are very neat and agreeable; the houses very commodious, the situation and air pleasant and wholesome, and enjoying every thing in plenty that human life requires.

Among the other public buildings the most remarkable are the new palace, the churches and convents; the former, in which the bishop resides, is a very noble building, the first stone of which was laid by bishop John Philip Francis, count of Schonborn, in 1720.

The cathedral, dedicated to St. Kilian, is an antient Gothic structure, with no other ornament on the outside but four lofty spires, two to each front. The roof is supported by twenty pillars, which form two porticos, the ceilings of which are ornamented with stucco divided into compartments. At each pillar is a sculptured altar adorned with pictures, gilt columns, and statues; each altar dedicated to some saint. The pulpit is of white marble, embellished with the history of our Lord's sufferings in basso relievo gilt, and the pedestal which supports it, is adorned with eight statues of the four evangelists, and the four doctors of the church, inclosed within an iron balustrade very neatly wrought. At the two corners of the choir are two magnificent altars, with pillars of black marble, and much gilding: one is dedicated to St. Joseph, spouse to the virgin Mary, and to St. John Nepomuc; the other to St. Philip and St. Cunibert. The statues of these saints, with those of two angels, are all richly gilt. The pictures on one of these altars represents an Ecce Homo, and the other old Simeon holding the infant Jesus in his arms. The principal altar in the middle is a magnificent dome, richly adorned with sculpture and gilding, and supported by four large columns of black marble with white veins, the bases, capitals, cornice and festoons richly gilt. Between these columns are five grand busts gilt; one of the virgin Mary, another of St. Andrew, and the three others St. Kilian, St. Colonat, and St. Totnam, who are here called the apostles of Franconia. Among the treasures in the sacristy are shewn, a large cross of gold, enriched with a multitude of diamonds; another cross of massy gold adorned with large sapphires, rubies, and emeralds; a large chalice of solid gold, set with diamonds; five busts of solid silver, representing the virgin Mary, St. Andrew, and the three apostles of Franconia; and it is pretended that the heads of the three last are inclosed within their busts.

To this cathedral belongs a chapter, consisting of fifty-four canons, twenty-four of whom are called capitulars, and the other thirty domiciliars; but the income is equal, each having three thousand crowns a year; but no person is admitted who cannot give proof to his nobility for four generations, both on his father's and mother's side.

The collegiate church dedicated to St. John the Baptist is pretty, but small. It is built of hewn-stone, and has a handsome front, with a high and well enlightened dome, under which are the statues of our Saviour, the Virgin Mary, and the four Evangelists. Every part of this church is covered with carved work and gilding, as the pulpit, the organs, thirteen altars, including the principal one, of which the large fluted columns and palisadoes are gilt from top to bottom, as well as the statues of the twelve apostles as big as the life, which are placed between these columns. The painting of the altar-piece represents the assumption of the Virgin; and, in short, the benches of the canons are also gilt, it having as many canons as St. Kilian's.

Here are also the parish-church, and foundation of St. Burchard, instituted for noblemen; the parish-church of St. Peter and St. Gertrude; the foundation of St. Anne; an abbey of Benedictine monks of the order of St. Stephen, and another of the order of St. James; a college of Jesuits; a house and church of the Teutonic order; with a house and church of the order of St. John; a seminary dedicated to St. Kilian; and several other religious structures. The great hospital of St. Julian, which is a vast edifice of hewn-stone, is said to be built with greater magnificence than even the palace itself, and the gardens adorned with fountains and statues; with the Aulic, the Theodorian, and the Burgher hospitals.

SECT. III.

Of the Principality of CULMBACH, or BRANDENBURG-BAREITH.

Its Situation, Produce, and Rivers: the Religion and Manufactures of the Inhabitants; the Titles and Arms of the Margrave, with the Orders of Knighthood; the Offices of the Government, and the Revenues and Forces of that Prince.

THE principality of Culmbach projects eastward from the circle of Franconia, to which it is in a manner only joined on the west. It is bounded on the north by Upper Saxony, on the east by Bohemia, and on the south by Bavaria, and a very small part of the territory of Nuremberg; and on the west, by Bamberg.

Part of this country is very mountainous, and the rest, which is sandy, with good cultivation produces various sorts of herbs and fruits; and in general this country affords every thing necessary for the support of man, wine alone excepted.

With respect to its minerals, the principal of these are copper, lead, and iron; for its antient gold and silver mines are gone to decay. It has plenty of marble of all colours, together with crystals.

The principal of its mountains is the Fichtelberg, which extends nineteen miles from east to west, and about the same distance from north to south. It receives its name from the great number of pines with which it is covered, fichte signifying a pine, and berg a mountain; but it also produces fir and beech, and in some places oak, elm, and lime trees. From these woods the peasants that live about the mountain derive most of their subsistence by making charcoal, and in winter bringing the timber down in sledges to sell. It is one of the highest mountains in all Germany, and contains many lofty rocks and desarts, and a number of bogs and morasses.

The rivers of this country are the White and Red Maine, both of which rise here, and having united their streams, obtain the single name of Maine, which, under that denomination, enters the bishopric of Bamberg.

The other rivers are the Nabe, the Eger, the Roslaw, the Thuringian Saale or Sala, and the Pegnitz, which all rise in this country.

This

This principality contains six head towns, as they are called, with ten others, and twenty-six market towns.

The Lutheran church, which is the established religion of this country, is under the inspection of a general superintendent, who resides at Bareith; besides whom there are nine other superintendents, besides the inspector of Rednitz. There are also Calvinists and Roman Catholics, who are in some places permitted the exercise of divine worship.

With respect to the manufactures of this country, the principal of these are woollen cloth, stockings, and hats; a brown and white porcelain, into which silver and gold are very ingeniously and durably annealed; and the marble of this country is polished and worked into a variety of forms. Of these articles large quantities are exported.

The princes of this country and that of Anspach are of the family of Brandenburg, and hence the name of Brandenburg has been prefixed to Bareith and Anspach. The electors of Brandenburg, several centuries ago, gave these countries to two of their younger sons; but in length of time the want of issue made them more than once revert to the electoral line. This was the case for the last time in the year 1603, when Christian, the second son of the elector John George, obtained the principality of Bareith, and Joachim Ernest, his third son, that of Anspach; the lines founded by both of whom are still in being. Erdman Augustus, son to the margrave Christian, propagated the Bareith reigning line, which at present subsists in the margrave Frederic Christian. On the other hand, Frederic and Albrecht, the sons of the above margrave Joachim Ernest, obtained successively the regency of Anspach; and in like manner three grandsons of the latter, of whom only the youngest had succession.

The margraves of both lines bear the following titles: Margraves of Brandenburg in Prussia, of Silesia, Magdeburg, Cleves, Juliers, the Berg, Stettin, and Pomerania; of the Cassubian and Wenden, of Mecklenburg and Crossen, dukes; burgraves of Nuremberg; princes of Halberstadt, Minden, Camin, Wenden, Schwerin, Ratzeburg, and Mors; counts of Hohenzollern, the Mark, Ravensberg, and Schwerin; and lords of Ravenstein and the countries of Rostock, Stargard, &c.

Their arms on account of the margravate of Brandenburg, are an eagle gules, together with trefoil-stalks of the same in the wings, all placed in a field argent. For Magdeburg, a shield quartered gules and argent. For Cleves, eight lilies or, ranged in form of a St. Andrew's cross, and bordered in the middle by a shield argent in a field gules. For Juliers they bear a lion sable in a field or. For the Berg, a lion crowned gules and azure, in a field argent. For Stettin, a griffin gules, crowned or, and weaponed, in a field azure. For Pomerania, a griffin gules, weaponed or, in a field argent. For Cassubian, a griffin sable turned to the sinister side, weaponed or, in a field of the same. For Wenden, a griffin transversely striped, gules and vert, in a field argent. For Mecklenburg, a buffalo's head sable, having horns argent, and crowned gules, with a ring argent running through his nose. For Crossen, an eagle sable, with wings, tail, and weapons expanded in a field or, on whose breast is a crescent argent, and over it a small cross of the same. For Jagerndorf, an eagle sable, with a silver hunting-horn on his breast, in a field argent. For the burgraviate of Nuremberg, a lion sable, prepared for combat, with a red tongue exerted, weaponed and crowned in a field or, placed on another shield, which is intersected five times to the dexter point, gules and argent. For Halberstadt, a shield divided, argent and gules. For Minden, two keys argent, placed in form of a St. Andrew's cross, in a field gules. For Camin, an anchor-cross argent, in a field gules. For Wenden in Mecklenburg, a griffin or, in a field azure. For Schwerin, a divided shield, in the upper part of which is a griffin or, in a field azure; but the under part green, with a silver border. For Ratzeburg, a cross waving and argent, in a field gules. For Mors, a fess sable, in a field or. For Hohenzollern, a shield quartered sable and argent. For the Mark, a fess chequered, gules and argent, in a field or. For Ravensberg, three chevrons gules, in a field argent. For

Schwerin, an arm issuing out of a cloud bearing a ring. For Rostock, a buffalo's head placed obliquely to the dexter side and crowned gules, with an exerted red tongue, and silver horns, in a field or: and for Stargard, a shield divided gules and or.

The margrave of Bareith has an order of knighthood termed the order of Sincerity, but commonly called the order of the Red Eagle; the symbol of which is a square white enamelled cross of gold worn pendant at a scarlet watered ribbon, reaching from the neck to the breast. In the star which the knights of this order bear on their breast is seen the Brandenburg red eagle, and round it the words *SINCERE ET CONSTANTER*. The master of this order is always the reigning margrave.

The reigning prince has on account of the principality of Bareith a seat and voice in the council of the princes of the empire, and is also co-summoning prince of the circle of Franconia.

The princely colleges here are the privy-council, in which the margrave himself presides, and under which are the privy-expedition and the privy-chancery; the regency-college, and regency-chancery; the aulic tribunal; the tribunal for noble fiefs; the chamber-college; the feudal-court; the consistory, and the matrimonial-tribunal.

The prince's revenues, according to Keyser, in the year 1730, scarce amounted to five hundred and fifty thousand guldens; but he observes, that they might be improved to a much greater sum.

This margravate always keeps up a guard of horse, a small body of hussars, and two regiments of foot; besides which a militia is maintained.

The principal places in this country are the following:

Bareith, the residence of the margrave, and the capital of the principality, is the seat of the above offices, and of the mint. It is surrounded with three streams, the Red Maine, the Mistelbach, and the Sendelbach; and is seated in the fiftieth degree of latitude. The prince's palace was burnt down in the year 1753; but has been rebuilt in a grand and beautiful taste. The places of worship in this town are a Lutheran church, that of the Spital, a Calvinist church, and a popish chapel. Here is a seminary founded by the margrave Christian Ernest in the year 1664, and also another seminary and an orphan-house.

St. George on the Lake, a town situated by the side of a lake, at the distance of two miles from Bareith. It was founded in the beginning of the present century by the margrave George William, and endowed with several important privileges. St. Sophia's church, which was dedicated in 1715, is called The chapel of the order and knights, that margrave allotting it for the meeting-place of the order of Sincerity, which he had instituted. The palace of the margrave is a noble edifice, and has a very fine pleasure-garden belonging to it. In this town is also an orphan-house, and a manufacture of white and brown porcelain; in the latter of which gold and silver are very durably annealed. Mr. Keyser observes, that a set, consisting of half a dozen cups and saucers, a small tea-pot, a slop-bason, a sugar-dish, and tea-canister, is sold for twenty dollars. The art of polishing marble, which this country abounds with of all colours, is carried on here by an engine moved by horses, or criminals taken out of the house of correction; and so well contrived, as to polish nineteen or twenty marble vessels of different shapes at the same time. They also here make very beautiful snuff-boxes of yellow and white plaster.

Culmbach, the second of the six head towns, as they are called, and formerly the residence of the margraves, is seated in a fertile and beautiful valley on the banks of the White Maine; and is also the seat of the prefecture captainship of Culmbach, of a superintendent, revenue and cloister-office. This town has frequently suffered greatly by fire.

Erlang is seated near the Rednitz, which at this place receives into it the Schwabach, and consists of two towns, the Old and the New; the latter of which is also called Christian Erlang. Old Erlang is very antient, and about four hundred paces in length, but not near so wide; it has a peculiar magistracy of its own, and a Lutheran church. New or Christian Erlang began to be erected

in the year 1686, by the margrave Christian Ernest, from whom it received its name: it lies close to Old Erlang, and is distinguished from it only by the straitness of its streets. This is one of the finest towns in all Germany. The houses in the principal streets are all of them two stories high, except those at the corners, which are three stories. It has a square eight hundred paces each way, and a market-place a hundred and ten paces in length and breadth, the east side of which is taken up with the palace of the margrave, which is built of free-stone, and is three stories high. Behind it is a large and beautiful garden, planted with rows of chestnut and lime-trees, ever-green hedges, fountains, and statues. Here is a Lutheran church, which is a very handsome building, together with one for the French Calvinists, and another for the German Calvinists. Here is an university, which has a church of its own. The French refugees have set up some considerable manufactories in this town, among which those of stockings and hats are the most profitable.

Round the town are vast numbers of firs, and instead of vineyards and corn-fields are plantations of hops and tobacco.

S E C T. IV.

Of BRANDENBURG-ANSPACH.

Its Situation, Produce, and Rivers: the Trade and Religion of the Inhabitants: the Offices of the Government: the Revenues and Forces of the Prince; with the principal Towns.

THE principality of Anspach, Ansbach, or Onolzbach, is bounded on the north by the country of Schwartzenburg and the bishopric of Bamberg; on the east by the territories of Nurenburg, and a part of Bavaria; on the south by the bishopric of Aichstadt, and a part of the circle of Swabia; and on the west by the counties of Hohenlohe and Limburg, the territory of the imperial city of Swabian Hall, the domain of the Teutonic order, and the bishopric of Wurtzburg.

This country has some sandy and mountainous tracts; but is in general more fertile than Bareith, it abounding in corn, fruit, and tobacco; and all along the Maine are vineyards that produce good wine. The richness of the pastures render the breed of cattle excellent. There are likewise plenty of game and fish. In the earth are quarries of marble and iron mines.

The principal river in this country is at first called the Retzat, and rises partly in this country, where it is termed the Under, or Franconian Retzat, and partly in Swabia, where it is termed the Upper or Swabian. Both these rivers here unite their streams, and then obtain the name of Rednitz, which afterwards receives the Pegnitz; after which some give it the name of Regnitz, while others still call it the Rednitz. The Altmuhl rises in Brandenburg-Bareith, and passes into this country. The other rivers are the Jagst, or Jaxt, the Wornitz, or Wernitz, the Sulz, and the Tauber.

The inhabitants subsist by the breeding of cattle, by tillage, and by the culture of their vineyards and plantations of tobacco. In the towns various branches of mechanic arts and manufactures are carried on, as the weaving of tapestry, cloth, stuffs, gold and silver lace, and stockings. The making of porcelain, looking-glasses, leather, wire, needles, &c.

The inhabitants are of the Lutheran religion, and their clergy are divided into nine decanates; but at the city of Schwabach is a colony of French Calvinists, who have a church.

Of the family, title, and arms of the reigning margrave of Anspach, we have given an account in treating of Bareith; and we have only to add, that he, as well as the margrave of Bareith, has, on account of this principality, a seat and voice in the council of the princes of the empire, and is also co-summoning prince of the circle of Franconia.

The princely colleges or offices of state are the privy-council, the aulic and regency-college, as also that of the council of justice, the court of appeals, the chamber and

provincial council-college, the war council-college, the chief-court, and the consistory and matrimonial courts.

The yearly revenues of the prince are estimated at near a million of guildens, and his military force consists of a life-guard of horse, and one regiment of foot of seven companies.

This principality contains sixteen boroughs and seventeen market towns, the principal places in which are,

Anspach, or Onolzbach, in Latin Onoldum and Onoldinum, the princely residence and capital city, is situated on the Under Retzat, and is the seat of the abovementioned colleges, of the Aulic revenue office, and of a mint. The palace of the prince was chiefly built by the margrave George Frederic in 1587, and 1588; but suffering considerably by fire in 1710, was partly rebuilt in a much more beautiful manner than before, and also enlarged by the addition of some new and grand edifices. The public library was founded by the margrave Charles William Frederic in 1738. The princely chancery and regency-chamber are fixed in the old buildings belonging to the foundation of St. Gumbrecht, which have been repaired. This foundation was erected by one Gumbrecht in the eighth century, as a Benedictine monastery; but in the middle of the eleventh century was converted into a foundation of canons, and in 1563 secularized. In St. John's church is to be seen the new burying vault of the princes; this, with the new building of the Gymnasium Illustre Carolinum opened in 1737, the Jews school, and other public buildings, are to be seen in what is properly called the city. Without it are the porcelain manufacture, with the prince's garden and pleasure-house. Behind Jager-street, which is well laid out, lies a large and beautiful garden belonging to the court, in which is a fine green-house and orangery. In one of the suburbs is the church-yard of the Holy Cross, and in another the spital, the orphan-house, and the widows-house.

Schwabach is situated on a fruitful spot by a river of that name, and, though not large, is very populous. It has a Lutheran parish church, an hospital with a church in it, and a Latin school. The French Calvinists have also a church here, and the Jews a school. In the market-place is a fine fountain adorned with cascades and jets of water. The mint is commodiously laid out. The new suburb before the Zollner-gate is built with great regularity. There was formerly a letter foundry here, in which were cast the Schwabach letters, which in the German tongue answers to our Italic; these were invented and took their name from this place. Here are artificers in gold and silver lace, workers in Leon or Spanish steel, iron wire-drawers, brass turners, model cutters, needle-makers, who make above thirty different sorts of needles, which are much admired, and exported to a great distance, stocking-weavers, tapestry-weavers, and cloth manufactories.

The Hofmark Furth is a large commercial and populous town, situated on the river Rednitz. It is built irregularly, except the new streets; but contains many grand and fine houses. In this town reside an uncommon number of mechanics and artists: those who cannot be received into the fraternities at Nurenburg, settling here, where every one is sure of being well received. The Jews, who are very numerous, constitute one third of the inhabitants, and have a great school in the printing-house. The inhabitants are partly subjects of Brandenburg Anspach, partly of Nurenburg, and partly of the chapter of Bamberg.

S E C T. V.

Of the Imperial City of Nurenburg, its Government and Territories.

NURENBURG, or Nuremberg, a large and beautiful city, situated on the river Pegnitz, in the forty-ninth degree forty-one minutes latitude, and in the eleventh degree twelve minutes east longitude, is the capital of the republic of the same name, and besides four other towns, namely, Altdorf, Hersbruc, Lauff, and Graffen-

Graffenberg in the Upper Palatinate contains under its jurisdiction five hundred villages. This city contains one hundred and twenty-eight large streets, forty lanes, and is adorned with twelve large and one hundred and thirty-three small fountains. It has also sixteen churches, forty-four religious houses, twelve bridges, six of which are of stone; ten market-places, three hundred and sixty-five towers, and about twenty-one thousand houses, said to be inhabited by seventy-five thousand families; and the Pegnitz, which runs through the city, puts in motion about one hundred and sixty mills of different sorts within the territory of Nurenburg.

The houses are generally very lofty, built of hewn stone, and adorned with pictures on the outside. The streets are broad, clean, and well paved, but not straight. The castle is seated on a high rock; but all the rest of the city lies upon a level, and in one of the halls of this castle are to be seen four Corinthian columns forty-five feet high, which it is pretended were brought from Rome by the devil, upon a challenge made him by a monk.

The ornaments used at the anointing of the emperors are preserved in the church of the hospital, among which is the diadem of Charlemagne, termed the *insula*, which is of pure gold, weighing fourteen pounds, and is covered with precious stones. It is not closed on the top, as the imperial crowns are generally represented. The sceptre and globe are of gold, and the sword is said to have been brought from heaven. The robe of Charlemagne is of a violet colour, adorned with pearls, and the imperial cloak is edged with them, scattered over with eagles of gold, and a great number of precious stones. Here are also the cope, the stole, and the breeches adorned with jewels, the stockings and the buskins covered with plates of gold.

Among several other relics, they keep in the church of the hospital the iron head of St. Longinus's lance; and as they are sensible that it is shewn in above ten other places, they maintain that all those are counterfeits, and that their's was found by St. Andrew, and brought from Antioch to this city: indeed, they have the bulls of five popes to vouch for its authenticity.

The arsenal here is one of the most famous in Germany. In the two great halls, each of which is two hundred and fifty paces long, are three hundred pieces of cannon, among which are many of a very large bore, the biggest of them carrying a ball of three hundred pounds weight; but most of these arms serve only for shew, they being of greater antiquity than use.

The public library is in a cloister that formerly belonged to the Dominicans, and is said to contain twenty thousand volumes. The most ancient manuscript is nine hundred years old; this is a copy of the Gospels, with the prayers and hymns used in the Greek church.

The town-house is a very large edifice of hewn stone; the front is very fine, and has a noble portal in the middle, adorned with several statues; and the architecture of the whole is regular, and in a good taste. There are two other very grand gates at equal distances, that are no less splendidly ornamented; but this building is too much crowded, it has no court before it, and that behind is so narrow, that it scarcely deserves to be called one. There is an ascent up a very indifferent stair-case to a long gallery, upon the ceiling of which is represented in relieve a famous tournament held in this city about three hundred years ago. In one of the chambers deputies from the circle of Franconia meet every day on the affairs of the province. Over the door of this chamber is a picture, which contains the portraits of the three brothers John George, Frederic, and John Christian, princes of Saxony, who supported Luther in promoting the reformation. The tapestry of this chamber contains the history of Nebuchadnezzar, in six pieces. Among the several pictures in the many chambers of this building are, a large painting which represents the homage rendered by the magistracy of Nurenburg to the emperor Leopold; a very ancient Madona, given by Frederic elector of Saxony; a St. Luke painting the virgin Mary; Adam and Eve by Albert Durer, which is highly esteemed: here Eve presents the apple with a very arch insinuating smile; another picture by Albert

Durer, in which are the saints Peter, Paul, John, and Mark; the murder of Abel by Preisler, where Cain kills his brother with a large flint stone; the history piece of Esther and Ahasuerus, a fine picture much esteemed; but Ahasuerus has the face and dress of king Francis I. and the queen is dressed like the ladies at Nurenburg. In the council-chamber, which is very small, is a picture of the last judgment, said to be six hundred years old, in which Joseph is painted in the habit of a Carmelite.

The city of Nurenburg is divided into eight parts, and one hundred and thirty-one captainships: I. The quarter at the wine-market, which is divided into thirteen captainships. Here is the parish church of St. Sebald; in which the principal things to be seen are the brass monument of St. Sebald, with the creation of the world by the celebrated Albert Durer, who was a native of Nurenburg. The Latin school near it is supplied with eight teachers.

II. The quarter at the milk-market, which contains fourteen captainships. In this quarter is the imperial fortress, seated on a mountain. What is most remarkable here is the emperor's chapel, with the old tower belonging to it, as also the chapels of St. Walburg and St. Margaret, together with the observatory. The church of St. Mary, which is also called the Predicant, or Dominican church, in which is kept the great library belonging to the town. In this part also stands the chapel of St. Maurice.

III. The quarter at the Gilben-hof, which consists of fourteen captainships; there is here St. Giles's church, which is built in the modern taste, and is the finest in the whole city. In an old cloister near it is a seminary, in which the upper classes are under the care of a certain number of professors, and the lower under one rector and four preceptors.

IV. The quarter at the salt-market, which contains twenty-two captainships. Here is the council-house just described, with the church of our Lady. Near the Spital, in which four hundred people are constantly maintained, is the church of the Holy Ghost.

V. The quarter near the Bare-footed Fryars contains in it twenty-one captainships, in which is the parish-church of St. Laurence, near which is a Latin school under the direction of eight teachers. In this quarter is the church of the Bare-footed Fryars, an hospital for foundlings, the church of St. Catharine, that of St. Martha, with a small hospital, the church of St. Clare, and the building belonging to the academy of painting.

VI. The quarter at the corn-market consists of seventeen captainships, containing the church of St. Salvatore and the arsenal, which contains two hundred and seventy-four brass cannon, and two of iron, with small-arms sufficient for eighteen thousand men; the largest cannons are forty-eight pounders, except two pieces of ordnance that carry balls weighing eighty pounds. One of the cannons is charged at the breech, and may be fired eight times in a minute. Here are also fifty field-pieces that are called by the names of the twenty-four letters of the alphabet, the twelve months, the twelve signs of the zodiac, and of Mars and Pallas. The small-arms are very beautifully disposed in columns, shields, trophies, suns, and the arms of the city; being curiously arranged, like those in the Tower of London. All these implements of war are kept in two large halls, one of which is a hundred and seventy, and the other two hundred and twenty common paces in length.

VII. The quarter near the Carthusians consists of fifteen captainships, and contains the church of Marienzell and the chapel of the twelve apostles.

VIII. The quarter near St. Elizabeth consists of fifteen captainships. Here is the church of St. James, a Latin school, which has three masters, and the Teutonic-house, which is the residence of the commandery of Nurenburg. In the church of St. Elizabeth in this quarter the Teutonic order celebrate their form of worship, and the deacons of St. Jacob have their mass or hours of prayer there every day early in the morning.

One of the greatest beauties of this city is its fountains; these we have just mentioned; but it will be proper to give a more particular account of them. In the new square are three fountains, the most remarkable of which

which is that in the middle. In a large oval basin is a rock, on the top of which four large dolphins spout water, and support a large shell, out of which rises a triton, which jets a plentiful stream into the air, through his marine trumpet, and from the bottom of the basin rise four smaller water-spouts, which throw their water into the triton's shell, through the hollow slopings of which it returns into the basin. The whole is inclosed within a fine iron balustrade.

Our author mentions another magnificent fountain, which when he was at Nurenburg was nearly finished, but not erected. In the middle of a vast marble basin, says he, will be placed a large rock, in which are two caverns opposite to each other. From these grottos spring with great fury two sea-horses, of brass, with riders, who manage them with large sea-reeds. Above these grottos are little infants of the same metal, each sounding a marine trumpet. Upon the rock sit two naiads, with oars in their hands, in large basins, and four dragons mounted by little children. All the figures are of brass, as big as the life, and the attitudes admirable. Out of the middle of this rock rises a pedestal, adorned with festoons composed of coral and various shells, with cartouches, &c. and with all these ornaments are intermixed some dolphins heads. The finest figure in the whole is a Neptune standing on the pedestal. This beautiful statue is nearly ten feet high, and weighs two thousand two hundred pounds. This fountain will throw out two hundred hogheads of water in an hour, and is valued at between thirty and thirty-five thousand crowns.

Among the stone bridges is one of a single arch, fifty paces in length, over the river Pegnitz. At one extremity is a large flesh-market, built of hewn-stone, and on its gate is a vast ox of stone lying on its belly, with gilt horns and hoofs; under which is a Latin couplet in gold letters, "that every thing has its beginning and increase; but the ox you see here never was a calf."

On the new bridge, which is said to have cost the city a hundred thousand guldens, are two pyramids, on the apex of one of which is the imperial black eagle, and on the other a dove with an olive branch in its beak, with a distich in Latin to the following purpose:

"In passing over this bridge, dedicated to Charles, pray that his imperial race may flourish while the waters flow under it."

Here are many noble museums belonging to private persons, and which are visited by all travellers of taste and learning. There is also an anatomical theatre founded at the expence of the city, in which are about a hundred skeletons of different animals, especially of the winged species. This anatomical theatre, Mr. Keyser observes, is under the management of Dr. Treu, whose house is near it; and in his cabinet is a collection of about six thousand kinds of plants, several petrifications, a set of all kinds of seeds, some delicate and curious skeletons of leaves and fruit, and several pieces shewing the curious mechanism of the human body. In this museum is set up an elegant Latin inscription, which may be thus translated:

"Mortal, if ignorant of the structure of thine own body, and of that of the animals, &c. created for thy use, if thy sight be good, and thy mind inclined to knowledge, stop here a while. Hither, for thine, and his own benefit, an abstracted mind and curious hand has collected the skeletons of men, animals, and vegetables; with the various kinds and forms of minerals. Every particle of these is a kind of natural hieroglyphic, which delineates the infinite goodness, bounty, and glory of the Creator much more distinctly than those invented by the Egyptians; and at the same time teaches thee to celebrate the unsearchable power of the Deity, to admire the inimitable and wonderful formation of all things, to confute the absurdity and obstinacy of the wicked atheist, to observe the sudden change of vain beauty into loathsomeness, and from thence, and the frailty of human life, to learn true wisdom."

It is remarkable that the principal clocks in this city strike the hours from one to twelve progressively from the rising of the sun, and begin again after sun-set, which at

first puzzles strangers; but by the table of the equation of time published here, this may be easily reduced to the common method of calculation.

There are several other customs which seem very extraordinary, particularly the manner of celebrating marriage: the bridegroom, attended by his relations and friends, walks to the church, and is soon after followed by the intended bride and her friends. Mr. Misson, who was present upon one of these occasions, says, that on their entering the church the bridegroom sat down with his relations on one side, and the bride on the other opposite to him; and over each of their heads against the wall was painted the figure of Death. From thence they both walked up to the minister, who stood in the midst of the choir; and he had no sooner performed the ceremony, than four or five trumpets sounded from the top of the steeple. Upon this the new-married couple returned in the same manner to the place from whence they came.

The bridegroom appeared all in black, with a cloak trimmed with lace, with a large ruff, and a little crown of gold plate lace upon his periwig. But the bride's dress is not so easily described: the best way to form an idea of it is, to fancy a head-tire composed of gilt wire like a bob periwig half a foot higher than the forehead, and frizzled out on the sides; these threads or wires are so close together, that there is no more distance between them, than is just sufficient to fasten to them an infinite number of very small, thin, round plates of gold, which hanging both within and without waved with the least motion. Her habit was a kind of black vest with long skirts; but the body was very short, and had the seams covered with gold lace, as the skirts were with small knots of black satin ribbon. She had straight sleeves and cuffs that reached down below her wrists. About her neck she wore a handkerchief of very fine lace shaped before like a clergyman's band, but reaching down to the middle of her back, ended in a point. She had also a gold chain about her shoulders, and another about her waist, instead of a girdle. The petticoat was pretty short, and trimmed towards the bottom with black bone-lace and gold fringe. This bride danced at the wedding with one of the senators, who wore a great ruff. Indeed the customs I observed, says our author, at this feast were so very different from any I had seen before, that I rather fancied myself in China than in Europe.

Nurenburg boasts of having better artizans, and in greater numbers, than most cities in Europe: particularly the curious works made here in wood, ivory, alabaster, and even of paper and starch, are very famous; and those who are fond of mechanical arts and manufactures, may here abundantly gratify their curiosity. The toys of Nurenburg are indeed exported all over the world; but their trade is not now so considerable as it was formerly.

The few Calvinists here have a preacher of their own, and perform divine service out of the town, in a house seated in a garden, and fitted for that purpose. The papists are allowed the public exercise of their religion in the Teutonic-house: but the Jews are obliged to live in a village near the city, from whence they have the liberty of coming daily into the town, on paying a small piece of money; but they are not suffered to stay all night, and must therefore return before the gates are shut.

The nobility here took their rise in 1198, when the emperor Henry VI. assisting at a tournament, raised thirty-eight burghers families to the degree of nobility. The council of Nurenburg consists of thirty-four noble and eight handicraft counsellors. The former are divided into twenty-six burgomasters, and eight old senators, called Alt Genanten. These twenty-six burgomasters consist of thirteen old and thirteen young ones, and every four weeks an old and a young one preside. Out of the thirteen old burgomasters are chosen the seven first counsellors, who are stiled the septemvirate, and manage the most important and secret affairs of the city; together with the six next to them, who compose the council of appeal. Of the former the three first are stiled the supreme head people, and are always imperial counsellors:

and



A Nuremberg Marriage.

and the first of these is also imperial bailiff; he resides at the imperial fort, and is stiled the castellan. Out of the thirteen younger burgomasters, as well as out of the older ones, all the offices of the government are filled up. The eight counsellors chosen out of the tradesmen go annually at certain times to council; and these are selected from the goldsmiths, the brewers, the tanners, the taylor, the cutlers, the clothiers, the bakers, and the furriers, who are nominated the lesser council. The great council, which must consist of two hundred persons, is composed of those elected by the burghers.

The judicatories in Nuremburg are the appeal and upper court, together with that of the town and marriage-court; the country peasant-court; the under-court, instituted for the recovery of small debts; the quinquevirate-court, for the reparation of injuries; the forest-court, belonging to the wood of Sebald; the forest-court of Laurence wood; and the wild honey-court in the latter.

The jurisdictions here are the bailiff-office, the tax-office, the administrative office for the county, the war-office, the supreme guardian and ecclesiastical-office, the building-office, the toll-office, the brewery-office, the office for levying of toll upon wine, the pawn-office, or lending-house, the corn-office, the censor-office, established for the government of the artisans, the tallow-office, the rent-master's-office, the sheriff's or inquisition-office, the office belonging to the town charity, the arsenal-office, the chest-office, the mint-office, and several others.

The military force of this town consists of seven companies of foot, each of which in time of peace contains a hundred men, but in time of war a hundred and eighty-five; of two troops of cuirassiers, each consisting of eighty-five men; and two companies of invalids, amounting to two hundred and twenty-six. Besides these, which are regular troops, the burghers form themselves into twenty-four companies of about three hundred and fifty men each, who are all well disciplined, and go through the several evolutions and manual exercise with great exactness and activity. Two hundred men also belong to the train of artillery; and the city selects two troops of horse out of such of the burghers as are remarkable for their height and comeliness. The latter, on the breaking out of a fire in the city, have their particular stations assigned them, to which they immediately repair; and the men belonging to the artillery secure the arsenal. They have here an excellent regulation with respect to fires, in order to excite the people to activity and vigilance; a ducat is given as a reward to that person who brings the first pail of water, two guildens to the second, one gulden to the third, eight grosches to the fourth, and to every one of the rest fifteen cruzers.

The tract called the Nuremburg circle is surrounded by the rivers Schwartzbach, Pegnitz, and Schwabach, to which the Nurembergers give the title of the border-waters. It comprizes within it two considerable imperial forests, called the Sebald and Laurence forests, which are covered with pines; and in this compass are a considerable number of towns subject to Nuremburg, one of the principal of which is

Altorf, or Altdorf, a small town that consists principally of one large street, and several little ones. At the parish-church a professor of divinity always preaches, and the two deacons belonging to it are likewise professors of divinity. The citadel is an ancient stone building, that has twelve large courts, in which the administrator of Altorf resides. Here is also an university; the building consists of three stories, and has two wings; and contains in it a valuable library, an anatomical theatre, a chemical laboratory, and an observatory. Without the town is a large botanical garden, which is kept in good order.

S E C T. VI.

Of the Bishopric of Aichstadt; its Situation, and Rivers. The Arms of the Bishop, and the Offices by which the Government is administered; with a Description of the City of Aichstadt. Of the Teutonic Order, and particularly the

Masterdom of Mergentheim; with an Account of that Town.

THE bishopric of Aichstadt, or Eichstett, terminates on the Upper Palatinate, Upper Bavaria, the duchy of Neuburg, the county of Pappenheim, and the principality of Anspach, by which also several detached parts of it are surrounded.

The principal rivers by which this country is watered are the Altmuhl, which flows out of the principality of Anspach, and here receives the little rivers of Anlauter, Schwartzach, and Sulz; after which it enters Bavaria. The Upper and Under Retzat also runs through some parts of this bishopric.

The episcopal title is, By the grace of God, bishop and prince of Aichstadt.

The episcopal arms are a crossier argent, in a field gules. A bishop's mitre crowns the shield, and behind it appears a sword and crossier.

These bishops formerly stiled themselves arch-chancellors of the holy see of Mentz, and maintained that, in virtue of this dignity, they had several privileges during the vacancy of that archbishopric. The bishop of Aichstadt is perpetual chancellor of the university of Ingolstadt. He sits in the council of the princes of the empire, on the spiritual bench, between the bishops of Worms and Spire, and at the diets of the circle of Franconia between the reigning margraves of Brandenburg-Bareith and Anspach.

The chapter consists of fourteen capitulars and fourteen domicelli, who must be all of a nobility suitable to the foundation, and swear to sixteen degrees of descent.

The principal offices here are the spiritual council, the regency, the aulic council, and the aulic chamber.

The inhabitants are of the popish religion. The episcopal territories are divided into eleven upper prefectures, the principal place in which is

Aichstadt, or Eichstett, the episcopal residence, which lies in a valley on the banks of the Altmuhl, in the forty-eighth degree fifty-six minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree ten minutes east longitude. It has an ancient cathedral, to which one of its bishops presented a fine pyx for the host, which is of pure gold, in the form of a sun, and weighs forty marks; it is adorned with several diamonds, rubies, and other precious stones; the whole being valued at sixty thousand guilders. Besides the great choir, there is the choir of St. Willibald, in which it is pretended the bones of that saint were found in the year 1744, in honour of whom John Anthony II. caused a new and expensive high altar to be raised, which was dedicated in 1745. At St. Walburg's church is an high altar as broad as the church itself, and above it is a small cavity, the sides and bottom of which are lined with gold, and covered with a stone. This is called the coffin, and is said to contain the breast-bones of St. Walburg, out of which an oil is said to flow and force itself through the stone, where it is collected in drops, which are received into a golden trough, and from thence conveyed into a golden bowl, and deposited in small vials for the use of pilgrims and benefactors resorting thither, and employed in miraculous cures. This holy flux happens twice a year, that is in the spring and fall; but it frequently appears at different seasons. To this church belongs a Benedictine nunnery. In this town is also a college of Jesuits, a parochial and collegiate church of our Lady, in which is a foundation consisting of a provost, a dean, a cathedral and town minister, and some canons. Here is also a Dominican convent, a cloister of regular canonists of the congregation of our Lady, a Capuchin cloister and church in the east suburbs, and another church dedicated to the Holy Ghost.

We shall now give an account of the Teutonic order in general, and in particular of the masterdom of Mergentheim.

The Teutonic order was founded in Palestine in the year 1190, and those who entered into it were called knights of the virgin Mary, or brothers of the Teutonic house of our Lady of Jerusalem. They bound themselves by a vow to defend the Christian religion and the Holy Land, and to serve the poor and sick; to be all of them

them Germans, and of true antient nobility. The knights of this order were driven from Jerusalem by the Saracens, and afterwards gradually subdued all Prussia, Courland, Semigallia, and Livonia; but again lost those countries.

The superior of this order, or the grand and Teutonic master, styles himself administrator of the grand masterdom of Prussia, master of the Teutonic order in Germany and Italy, and lord of Freudenthal and Eulenberg. He is a spiritual prince of the empire, and enjoys a high rank in the council of the princes, sitting on the spiritual bench next after the archbishops, and preceding all the prelates; but in the circle of Franconia, he is the last of the spiritual princes.

The arms and ensigns of this order are an erect cross sable in a field argent, granted by pope Celestine III. In the field is a cross or, conferred by king Henry of Jerusalem, and in its center is seen the imperial eagle bestowed by the emperor Frederic II. On each of the four corners is a lily or, which was added to these arms by St. Lewis of France.

These knights must be of old German nobility, and prove their descent. Both the protestants and papists may be invested with the order, and the protestant knights are permitted to marry. On solemn occasions the knights wear a white mantle with a black cross upon it, edged with silver; but their dress in other respects resembles that of other seculars, though it is not ornamented, or of the gayest colours.

Did the signories and estates which the Teutonic order still possess in Germany lie contiguous, they would form a considerable principality. These estates consist, in general, of what is properly called the masterdom of Mergentheim and twelve bailiwics.

The regency at Mergentheim is composed of a vice-stadtholder, presidents, house commendaries, and purveyors, with a certain number of privy, regency, spiritual, and chamber counsellors.

To the circle of Franconia belongs only the proper masterdom of Mergentheim, and the bailiwick of Franconia, the principal place in which is,

Mergentheim, Mergenthal, or Marienthall, a small city seated on the Tauber, twenty-five miles to the south-west of Wurtzburg; the residence of the grand master of the Teutonic order, and also the seat of the regency. In this town is an academy, and a seminary. Here is also a rural deanery belonging to the ecclesiastical jurisdiction of Wurtzburg, and on a mountain near the town stands a citadel, in which the grand master usually resides. It was taken by the Swedes under the command of general Horn in 1681; but was soon after retaken by the French and the duke of Saxe-Weymar; but has been since restored to its antient proprietor, the grand master.

SECT. VII.

Of the Counties of Hohenlohe, Wertheim, and Erbach. Their Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers; with a concise Account of the Princes of each, their Arms, Government, and principal Towns.

THIS country borders on the masterdom of Mergentheim, the bishopric of Wurtzburg, the principality of Anspach, the territories of the imperial cities of Rotenburg and Swabian-Hall, the dutchy of Wurtemberg, and a part of the electorate of Mentz. Its greatest extent from east to west is about eight and twenty miles, and from north to south about thirty. It was antiently much larger, and formed nearly one third of all Franconia.

The south side of the country furnishes the traveller with a prospect of fine vineyards, which, in some places, join to each other for several miles together. The north side is proper for agriculture, and on the tops of the mountains are commonly found valuable woods of oak, fir, pine, beech, and birch, in which a variety of game find shelter; and in the valleys is good meadow ground, which feeds an excellent breed of cattle.

The principal rivers are the Kocher, which issuing out of the territory of the imperial city of Swabian-Hall, enters the county of Hohenlohe, and runs into the dutchy of Wurtemberg. The Jagst, which flows into this country from the principality of Anspach. The Tauber, and the Wernitz, both which rise in this country.

With respect to the religion of this country, it is necessary to observe, that the reformation which was begun here in 1540, was thoroughly completed in 1556, and ever since the whole country has been of the Lutheran church. But in 1667, count Lewis Gustavus embracing the Romish religion, and his elder brother count Christian of Hohenlohe-Bartenstein, soon after following his example, the protestants were oppressed, and suffered various grievances, which have been in a great measure removed by the interposition of the empire.

The counts of Hohenlohe are of a very antient family, and are divided into the principal branches of Neuinstein and Waldenburg; the former is also subdivided into those of Weckerheim, and Lagenburg, and the latter into those of Pfedelbach and Schillingsfurst. The whole of this capital line was raised in the year 1744, to the dignity of princes of the empire; but tho' the princely dignity was at the same time offered to the collateral branches of the line of Neuinstein, they have as yet scrupled to accept of it.

The princes of the younger Waldenburg capital line, style themselves princes of the holy Roman empire, counts of Hohenlohe and Waldenburg, lords of Langenburg, &c. but the counts of the elder Neuinstein line, style themselves counts of Hohenlohe and Gleichen, and lords of Langenburg Cranichfeld, &c.

The arms of the princely capital line of Waldenburg are, for Hohenlohe, a shield quarterly, in whose first and fourth quarters argent, are two leopards sable, running directly against each other: and in the second and third upper quarters, a lion advancing and crowned or, with an open throat, a red exerted tongue, and a double rolled up tail, in a field sable; and in the lower ones, on account of Langenburg eight rustres sable, in a field or.

The arms of the Neuinstein capital line, are also a shield quarterly, in whose first and fourth quarters are to be seen in a field argent two leopards sable running at each other; and in the second and third, above, a lion crowned or, in a field sable, and below it eight rustres sable in a field or. In a middle shield is a lion crowned or, in a field verte.

At the diet of the empire the princes and counts of Hohenlohe belong to the Franconian college of counts; and at the diet of counts are possessed of six voices with the right of precedency in the Franconian college; but at the Franconian diets they have only two voices, which follow directly after those of the princes.

This county contains in it ten cities, three market-towns, and twelve citadels, the principal place in which is,

Oringen, the capital of the country, seated on the rivulet of Ohrn, which runs between the old and new town. One half of this place belongs to the Oringen line, and the other to the whole princely line of Waldenburg. The former resides at a magnificent castle in this city, to which adjoins a beautiful pleasure garden. The building called the stone house is a grand structure enclosed by a wall, with a spacious court before it, and belongs to the princely line of Waldenburg. At this place is also a building allotted for the residence of the countess dowager. The churches and preachers are also in common. Of the former there are two, the principal church, and that of the Spital. The Lazar-house has a chapel, and the burial-place without the town has also a church. The seminary here was in the year 1735 formed on the plan of a Gymnasium Illustre. In this town are also kept the common archives. In the neighbourhood of this city are several eminences that yield excellent fruit, and fine wine.

The county of Wertheim, which we shall next describe, lies between the archbishopric of Mentz, and the bishopric of Wurtzburg, a part of it being also bounded

by

by the county of Erbach. The Maine runs through it, and in this county receives the Tauber. It produces a variety of fruit, and of the grapes a good wine is made.

At the diet of the empire the princes and counts of Lowenstein Wertheim, are possessed, on account of this county, of two voices in the Franconian college of counts, and at the circle of Franconia, they enjoy a seat and voice between Castell and Rieneck.

The capital of this county is Wertheim, which is seated on the Maine; where it is joined by the Tauber. It contains two residentiary palaces, and also a parish church, which both the Lutherans and Roman catholics make use of in common; and also a Latin school. The magistracy here are, however, all Protestants.

The county of Erbach is seated on the Odenwalde, and is surrounded by the archbishopric of Mentz, the electoral palatinate, and a part of the county of Wertheim, extending about twenty-four miles in length; and about nineteen in breadth.

It is a mountainous country; but well cultivated and pretty fruitful. The more barren lands are sometimes suffered to rest between five and ten years, after which the bushes, heath, and whatever else they are over-run with, are cut down in time of harvest, dug up by the roots, and these, with a part of the turf, being laid together on heaps, as soon as they become dry, are set on fire, and the ashes being spread abroad, the land is ploughed up and sown; by this means the land is rendered fruitful, and the inhabitants procure a sufficient quantity of corn for their subsistence; they cultivate abundance of potatoes, and also prepare a great deal of pot-ash. The forests, however, become thin, and many pieces of ground which were formerly covered with woods, have been converted into arable land; but at present they begin again to plant trees. The best pastures and meadows lie in the valleys, and the breeding of cattle is here pretty considerable.

This country has some good quarries of stone and marble, and it has also some good mines of iron.

The rivulets which rise in this country, among which the Mumling is the principal, all discharge themselves into the Maine, the Rhine, and the Neckar, and abound in fish.

The inhabitants amount to near twenty-four thousand souls; they are of the Lutheran church, and export fine meal made of spelt, with oats, buck-wheat, wood, coals, pot-ash, cattle, iron, nuts, honey, and wax. The wool produced here is manufactured into cloth.

The county of Erbach is for the most part a fief of the elector Palatine, and on the raising of the house of Erbach to the dignity of counts, the feudal rites were expressly reserved to that of the elector. These counts are possessed of two voices at the diet of the empire in the college of the counts of Franconia.

Within this county are nine prefectures, one of the principal places in which is,

Erbach, an old citadel, and a small town situated on the Mumling, in a narrow valley amidst high mountains, and contains only a few houses which stand by the citadel, and are surrounded with a wall; but other houses have been built on the out-side of this wall, which have the appearance of a suburb; but the place is so inconsiderable as to have only one church. At a small distance from the town is the village of Erbach; through this place runs a rivulet, which in a meadow near the town, sinks into the earth, and passes through a mountain, on the other side of which it issues out again, and at length runs into the Mumling.

S E C T. VIII.

Of the Counties of Henneberg and Schwartzenberg, with a concise Account of the free imperial City of Rottenburg.

THE county of Henneberg is bounded on the east by Coburg; and Schwartzenburg; on the north by Gotha and Eisenach; on the west by the landgrave of Hesse, and the bishopric of Fulda; and on the south by the bishopric of Wurtzburg, extending from

north to south near twenty-eight miles, and from east to west about twenty-five.

In most of its districts the inhabitants apply themselves to agriculture, with tolerable success, and in some places cultivate tobacco. It has mines of silver and copper; but those of iron are by far the most numerous. In some parts of this county salt is made, and it has also some medicinal springs.

The principal river is the Werra, which after its entering into this county, divides itself into two parts, and receives into it several small streams.

No other religion than that of the Lutherans is tolerated here, except at Schmalkalden, where is a church belonging to the Calvinists.

The manufactures of this county chiefly consist of fustian, and the making of arms and hard-ware.

At present the princely county of Henneberg has the following lords for its possessors, namely, the elector of Saxony, the dukes of Saxe-Weimar, Meinungen, Gotha, Coburg Saalfeld, and Hilburghausen, and the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Schleusingen, formerly the residence of the princes of Henneberg, and at present the seat of the electoral Saxon superintendency, is seated on the little river Schleufz, forty miles to the north-west of Bamberg, at the foot of a hill, upon which are the ruins of a castle or palace. The town is not large, and on account of the adjoining Thuringian wood, has but little land fit for tillage; it has, however, a seminary, which belongs in common to all the dukes of Saxony, who are possessed of any share in this county. Schleusingen also contains a commandery belonging to the order of St. John, founded in the year 1291.

Meinungen, or Meiningen, a town seated on the river Werra, amidst high mountains, which duke Bernhard of Saxony, on his obtaining it in 1681, chose for his residence; and caused a new palace, with a chapel to be built, naming it from his consort Elizabethenburg. In this palace are the princely library, a cabinet of medals, and the archives of Henneberg, which belong in common to the princely and electoral houses of Saxony. In this town is one parish church, a Latin school, an orphan-house, a house of correction, and a spinning-house. It had formerly a very considerable manufacture of fustian, which is now less flourishing, and the burghers chiefly apply themselves to the culture of tobacco.

Smalkald, a town situated at the foot of the Thuringian wood, on a rivulet of the same name, which here receives into it the Stille. It is a pretty large, thriving, and populous town. On a hill near it stands the citadel of Wilhelmsburg, thus called from its being rebuilt by the landgrave William IV. In the center of the town stands an old palace of the prince of Hesse-Cassel, called the Hessenhof. In this town is also a collegiate church, in which were formerly twelve canons, with a town-church possessed in common by the Lutherans and Calvinists, and a Latin school. The salt-pits here, in conjunction with the neighbouring mines of iron and the forges, are of great advantage to the town, which has a considerable trade in hardware. The numerous meetings held by the protestant princes in this town, with the league they concluded here in 1531, and the theological articles drawn up by Luther, which they caused to be confirmed by their teachers, have rendered this town famous in the German history.

The county of Schwartzenberg is for the most part surrounded by the bishopric of Bamberg, the county of Castell, the signiory of Speckfeld, the principalities of Bareith and Anspach, and the bishopric of Wurtzburg. This county in its greatest extent is about nineteen miles long; but in some parts it is only two miles, tho' in others about three miles broad. The inhabitants of this narrow slip of country are partly of the Lutheran and partly of the Romish church.

The prince of Schwartzenberg is possessed of several other districts in Bohemia and Stiria. His title is prince of Schwartzenberg, of the holy Roman empire princely landgrave in the Klettgau, count of Sulz, duke of Crumau, and lord of Gimborn, of the holy Roman empire

pire hereditary aulic judge of Rothweil, and lord of the signiories of Murau, Wittingau, Frauenberg, Postelberg, Wildschutz, Worlic, &c.

His arms are a shield quarterly, the first and fourth fields of which are argent and azure, divided eight-fold lengthways for Schwartzenberg; and in the third and fourth quarter is a black raven picking out the eyes of a Turk's head, in memory of the fortress of Raab in Hungary, which was taken from the Turks by count Adolphus in 1598.

In this little district are six prefectures; but no town worthy of notice, most of them being villages, and the rest only little market-towns, with only one parish-church.

There are some other little districts in the circle of Franconia, as the counties of Castell and Reinec; the feigniories of Limburg, Seisheim, Reichelberg, Weissenheid, Welzheim, and Hausen, which, though their possessors have a seat and voice in the diet of the empire, are too inconsiderable to merit any farther notice.

There are also several free imperial cities in the circle of Franconia that have a voice in the diet of the empire, the principal of these, next to Nuremburg, which has been particularly described, is

Rothenburg, or Rotenburg, which is seated on an eminence by the Tauber, in the forty-ninth degree twenty-six minutes latitude, and in the tenth degree eleven minutes east longitude, thirty-five miles to the west of Nuremburg. It receives the water for its necessary uses out of the river Tauber, by means of an engine, by which it is forced up the mountain, and from thence ascends in a direct line to what is called the Klingenthurn, from which it falls down again, and produces three fountains in the town. Rotenburg is surrounded with walls that are fortified with towers, and defended by ditches. The inhabitants who are Lutherans have five churches in the city; but there is generally no preaching but in two of them, that is, in the parish-church of St. James, and in the church near the hospital. The academy here consists of seven classes, and the like number of teachers.

At the diet of the empire this city possesses the eighth place in the college of the imperial cities on the Swabian bench, and the second at the circle of Franconia on the bench of the imperial cities. To this city belong several villages.

C H A P. XVI.

The ELECTORAL RHENISH Circle, or the Circle of the LOWER RHINE.

S E C T. I.

Of the electoral Rhenish Circle in general; and first of the Electorate of Mentz: its Situation, Extent, and Produce. The Religion of the Inhabitants; their Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. The Dignity, Titles, Arms, and Prerogatives of the Archbishop, and of the high Chapter of Mentz. The Offices by which the Government is administered; with the electoral Revenues and Forces.

THIS circle extends from the circle of Swabia, which bounds it on the south, to that of Westphalia, which lies to the north; to the east it is bounded by Franconia, and the lower part of the circle of the Upper Rhine; and to the west by the upper part of the circle of the Upper Rhine, Lorrain, and Luxemburg. It divides the circle of the Upper Rhine; but its extent is difficult to determine.

It includes the three archbishoprics and electorates of Mentz, Triers, or Treves, and Cologne, with the Palatinate.

The elector of Mentz is the summoning prince and director of the circle, the diets of which have ever since the middle of the seventeenth century been held at Frankfurt on the Maine. This is one of those called the anterior circles, which, in the years 1697 and 1702, entered into a mutual compact with each other for their defence against the attacks of an enemy.

With respect to religion, this circle is reckoned among the mixed.

The archbishopric of Mentz is seated on the Rhine, and is bounded on the north by Wetteravia and Hesse, on the south and east by Franconia and the palatinate of the Rhine, and on the west by the electorate of Triers; extending about fifty miles in length, and twenty in breadth.

This country affords sufficient subsistence for the inhabitants; for, besides corn and excellent wine, it produces fine garden-fruit, and plenty of cattle; in some parts are raised large quantities of flax and tobacco, and in others are iron mines.

The principal rivers with which this electorate is watered are, the Rhine, the Maine, the Jaxt, and the Lahn.

The countries seated on the Rhine and Maine, which, ever since the Reformation, have been in the power of

the elector of Mentz, have invariably adhered to the Romish church; but on the Eichsfeld, as also at Erfurt, Cronberg, and some other places, there are many Protestants; and at Bonnigheim the protestant worship is alone used. In several places the Jews are also tolerated.

In this archbishopric are some woollen and other manufactures, in some places looking-glasses, and in others fine porcelain is made; while in other parts the inhabitants apply themselves with great diligence to the cultivation of flax and tobacco. With respect to commerce, they carry on an important trade in wines, serge, linen, tobacco, almonds, chesnuts, nuts, &c. The late elector, John Frederic Charles, has not only established two annual fairs at Mentz; but has endeavoured to make commerce flourish both in that city, and in all the archiepiscopal countries; for which purpose commissioners of commerce are appointed there. The electoral exchequer of Lohnec expedites all mercantile affairs, and examines into complaints relating to exchange and all commercial subjects of dispute. The electoral magazine here has a president, four magazine masters, and two brokers.

The archbishop obtains his dignity by the free choice of the chapter, and must swear to an election-capitulation. The papal confirmation is very expensive; the pallium is also obtained at a high price, and the annalis, which each new archbishop is obliged to pay to the pope, amounts to ten thousand florins. This prelate is, however, the first archbishop in Germany, and the archiepiscopal dignity is inseparably connected with that of elector; and indeed he is esteemed the first among all the spiritual and secular electors.

His title is J. F. by the grace of God of the holy see of Mentz archbishop, of the holy Roman empire throughout all Germany arch-chancellor and elector, &c.

The archiepiscopal arms are a wheel argent, in a field gules, to which each elector also adds his family arms.

The elector of Mentz has great prerogatives with respect to the supreme judicatory of the empire. At the imperial aulic council the vice-chancellor of the empire, who is nominated by him, follows immediately after the imperial president. He has also the nomination of all the secretaries; and the imperial aulic chancery, which is appointed by him, expedites all matters of which cognizance has been taken. He likewise collects, and has the direction of the money received for all dispatches; keeps

the acts of the imperial aulic council, and the assessors of the elector are possessed of the first place among all those of their order. The chancery of the chamber-court is likewise appointed and regulated by him alone.

The high chapter of Mentz consists of twenty-four persons; that is, of five prelates, and nineteen capitulars. The former have the privilege of wearing a mitre; but the latter need not be priests, though they generally are. This chapter has several syndics and other officers. The electoral stadtholder, together with the presidents of the aulic council, with the chamber and town jurisdiction, are always chosen from among the capitulars; and in all stipulations with the neighbouring states, and other important affairs in which the privileges of the archbishopric are concerned, the consent of the chapter is also mentioned. A capitular is always vicar-general to the archbishop in spiritual matters. These capitulars must be born in the Rhenish province, and prove by oath their being descended from noble ancestors for six descents. At the electoral court of Mentz is held no regular privy-council; but important affairs of state are proposed in what is called the privy-conference. The privy-chancery consists of the aulic-chancellor, the privy-secretary, the secretaries, privy-registers, and privy-clerks of the chancery. The aulic council, or the electoral regency-council college, is under the direction of a president, a great steward, an aulic chancellor, a chancery, director, privy-aulic, and regency counsellors, &c. The revision-judicatory has a director, revision-counsellors, a secretary, and proctors. At this court a person may sue, within thirty days, for revision of the sentences of the aulic-judicatory, the offices of appeal, commission, and works. The other colleges are, the aulic-judicatory, whose sentences are notified in four general aulic-judicatory days, the aulic-chamber, the military conference, the chamber-office, and town judicatory at Mentz, the poor-house commission, and the office of works.

The electoral revenues are estimated at about one million two hundred thousand florins. The military forces consist of the elector's life-guard of horse, and a number of dragoons, with three regiments of foot, and the like number of provincial regiments, established on a regular footing. The city of Mentz being reckoned a barrier fortress of the empire, the circle of the Upper Rhine considers it as one of its fortresses, and frequently keeps in it, under certain restrictions, a number of troops belonging to the circle.

In the electorate of Mentz are forty-one cities and twenty-one boroughs.

S E C T. II.

A particular Description of Mentz, Cronberg, and Aschaffenburg, in that Electorate.

WE shall begin the description of the cities of this electorate with Mentz, or Mayence, called in Latin Moguntia and Moguntiacum, which is seated at the confluence of the Rhine and Maine, in the forty-ninth degree sixteen minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree sixteen minutes east longitude from London. The city is pretty large and populous; but consists for the most part of narrow streets and old fashioned houses belonging to the burghers. In the year 1735 two Roman months were granted for the better fortifying of this city; but though the fortifications that were afterwards begun are excellent, they are still unfinished.

The archbishop's palace is built of a kind of red marble, in a very magnificent manner. It is only two stories high; but the apartments are very fine, the ceilings richly adorned, and the furniture very splendid. The ceiling of the hall where the elector dines, contains in different apartments the history of St. Martin, the patron of Mentz; and the tapestry with which it is hung represents the story of Æneas and queen Dido. At the end of this first apartment is a large and sumptuous cabinet of looking-glasses, enchased in little gilt squares; the bases are adorned with cartouches, upon which are painted fine landscapes, which are, amazingly multiplied by the reflection of these mirrors. From hence you have

a prospect of the Rhine, the Maine, and all the adjacent country, which is extremely delightful.

The second story has nothing remarkable, except the elector's bed-chamber, which is a very small one for a prince, but magnificently furnished. The tapestry is exquisitely fine, and represents in six pieces the whole fable of Perseus and Andromeda. The bed is of crimson brocade with a gold ground, and the canopy is covered with pearls. The chairs are carved, gilt, and covered with embroidered crimson velvet and gilt fringe; even the frame of the looking-glass, which is eight feet high; is covered with crimson velvet laced with gold.

The arsenal kept in the palace is no more than a large closet lined with fusils, muskets, carabines, and pistols; made by the most famous gunsmiths in Europe, and many of them are of exquisite workmanship. Here are also some air-guns. This palace, in the year 1750, received the addition of a beautiful new wing, and has the advantage of fine gardens.

The cathedral is a vast pile of reddish marble: immediately on entering it you see the sepulchral monuments of six antient archbishops of Mentz, whose statues stand leaning against the pillars that support the arched roof. On the other side are those of the two last electors; the statue of one of them stands in his episcopal robes, and is as large as the life: the tomb of the last elector is of black marble, and his statue, which is of white marble, is sitting: two little angels of white marble stand, one before him, presenting him an open book, which he seems to read; the other at his feet, playing with the archiepiscopal mitre. On each side of him is a cross of white marble, on one of which is an inscription. This work is esteemed here a finished piece; but there is nothing in it very extraordinary. In the choir are two other monuments, one of George Christian landgrave of Hesse, the other of a count of Lamberg, who was killed the same day that the marquis d'Uxelles, who defended Mentz against the allies, caused a parley to be beaten, and capitulated, which was on the ninth of September 1689. The statue of this count has something very particular, it being of white marble, and covered with armour, except a helmet and gantlets. He is in the attitude of one using all his efforts to get out of his coffin, which is of black marble, and pushes up the lid with one hand, while he supports himself with the other against the bottom of the coffin. The sculptor, besides making a man in a coffin with his armour on, has also ridiculously given him a full bottomed peruke, quite in buckle. The high altar of this cathedral is so contrived, that the priest faces the people, and need not turn about at mentioning the words *Dominus vobiscum*. The principal thing worth seeing here is the treasury, which is shewn for a ducat or two, by two officers nominated by the dean, and consists of jewels, rich vestments, and other church furniture, particularly an ostensorium valued at twenty-four thousand dollars.

The Augustine nuns of St. Agnes have a very elegant church, and the Carthusian monastery without the city is worth seeing, on account of the beauty of the church; in which are thirty-two stalls of a fine sort of wood, curiously inlaid with ivory. These seats were made by a Hamburger, and the monks value them at no less than a thousand dollars each.

There is a bridge of boats over the Rhine at Mentz, which is seven hundred and sixty-six paces in length, and leads to a little town on the other side, named Cassel.

The religious foundations here are, that of St. Alban's, the *ecclesiæ collegiatae insignes B. M. V. ad gradus*, with those of St. Peter, St. Stephen, St. Victor, the Holy Cross, St. Gangolph, St. John, and St. Maurice. It has an archiepiscopal seminary, dedicated to St. Boniface, with seven parish churches, and a Benedictine prelatrice, seated on Jacob's mount; as also a college of Jesuits, six monasteries and five nunneries; with a chartreuse, and two other nunneries near the city. There is also an university, and six hospitals.

About a mile from the city is the elector's palace, called la Favorita, which is a modern edifice, and is a most elegant and delightful place, both on account of its situation and prospect over the Rhine and Maine, the architecture, and the disposition of the garden, which

is adorned with pyramids, statues, cascades, and other water-works. The building designed for the orangery belongs to the main body of the palace, and the three pavilions on each side, serve for lodgings for the gentlemen of the court, officers and domestics, when the elector is here; but the apartments in which he resides, are void of all symmetry and elegance, and except one hall, have nothing to recommend them.

This city was besieged and taken by Gustavus Adolphus king of Sweden in 1631. Among the other booty which this prince found here, was a massy crucifix of gold, as large as the life. Frederic V. elector Palatine, and king of Bohemia, died here the year following of grief for the death of that prince, who was killed at the battle of Lutzen; being persuaded that had he lived a year longer, he would have reinstated him in his dominions. Prince Charles of Lorraine, with the electors of Saxony and Bavaria, laid siege to the city in 1689, and took it forty days after their opening the trenches.

Cronberg, or Kronberg, a small town seated on a mountain. About the year 1528, the Protestant doctrine was introduced here by the landgrave of Hesse, who then possessed the place; but in the year 1541, the landgrave ceding the town to the lords of Cronberg, they promised to leave religious worship in the state in which they found it. A part, however, of the inhabitants embraced the doctrines of the Romish religion, while the rest continued Protestants. After the peace of Westphalia the protestant religious worship was alone restored; but it afterwards falling to the elector of Mentz, the immunities which the Protestants alone enjoyed, were shared with the Roman catholics; and in 1738 the ancient citadel, which stood in the middle of the mountain, was in a great measure pulled down, and the stones belonging to it used for the new popish church. In this district are some fine woods, a variety of fruit, and a vast quantity of chesnuts.

Aschaffenburg, one of the best towns in the archbishopric, is seated on the Maine, in the fiftieth degree fifteen minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree five minutes east longitude, and takes its name from the rivulet of Aschaff, which in its neighbourhood falls into the Maine. The citadel, in which the elector frequently resides during harvest, as long as the hunting season lasts, is grand and beautiful. It is a vast square building of red stone flanked by four large towers, with a platform in the middle; over the first gate is an equestrian statue of St. Martin, patron of the archbishopric of Mentz, and quite at the top the statue of Christ. On passing through the second gate you enter a spacious square court, surrounded with buildings three stories high. To the left is a portico of twelve columns, upon which rests a terrace railed breast high, and from hence you enter a chapel, the altar of which is of white marble, adorned with columns of jasper, and basso relievos, representing the history of our Saviour's passion, in several compartments, with a large crucifix of white marble at the top. On each side of the altar is a fine statue of the same marble, as large as the life; one of St. Martin cutting off a part of his cloak, in order to cover the nakedness of a poor beggar: the other of St. Wichard, archbishop of Mentz. The pulpit is also of white marble, and is adorned with statues of Jesus Christ, St. Peter, St. Paul, the four evangelists, and the four doctors of the church, St. Jerom, St. Ambrose, St. Gregory, and St. Augustine, all finely executed. In four niches of the pedestal supporting the pulpit are statues of Moses, David, Isaiah, and Daniel.

The apartments in the castle are spacious and richly furnished. In the great church dedicated to St. Peter are two altars adorned with excellent sculptures; one representing the crucifixion, and the other the adoration of the wise-men. The author of this piece, though well skilled in his profession, has given the king, who usually presents a large gold cup to the infant, nothing but a little box, into which the infant is going to put through a chink, a small piece of silver, which he holds between his finger and thumb.

In this town is also a college of Jesuits and a Capuchin cloister. The town is walled, and has a fine bridge of nine arches.

In the above castle, or palace, king George II. took up his quarters the night before the battle of Dettingen, in the year 1743, when being attacked the next day by the French, who crossed the Maine, they were repulsed, and the king continued his march to Hanau.

Aschaffenburg stands in a fine sporting country, about a league from the entrance of the Black Forest; and near it is a pleasant vale planted with vines and tobacco, besides some corn.

S E C T. III.

Of the other Territories subject to the Elector of Mentz, namely, the Eichsfeld, and the City of Erfurt, with the Country belonging to it.

THE Eichsfeld, frequently called Eisfeld, antiently belonged to Thuringia, and is environed by Hesse, Thuringia, and the principalities of Grubenhagen and Calenberg, it being in its greatest extent from north to south about thirty-six miles, and from east to west about twenty-four.

This country, agreeably to its natural situation, is divided into Upper and Lower Eichsfeld; both which are in a manner separated by the mountains of Duhn. The Lower Eichsfeld constitutes the northern part of the country, and is smaller than the Upper, but more level, warm, and fertile. It affords a sufficient quantity of corn, together with a good breed of cattle, and a great deal of flax and tobacco. The Upper Eichsfeld, which lies to the south, is for the most part mountainous, and has a cold, though wholesome air; but as it does not produce a sufficient quantity of corn, the inhabitants are supplied with what they want from Thuringia. This division is, however, very populous; and there are made here great quantities of serge and linen.

The high situation of this country is the reason that no river enters the Eichsfeld; though some run out of it, as the Leina, the Lutter, which on leaving this country soon falls into the Wesel, the Unstrut, the Wipper, and the Rume.

In the sixteenth century there were many Protestants in the Eichsfeld; but their number has gradually decreased, and the prevailing religion is the Popish. Such of the inhabitants as devote themselves to the study of the sciences, are instructed either at Heiligenstadt by the Jesuits, or at Duderstadt by the clergy; after which they visit foreign universities. In the Lower Eichsfeld the Lower Saxon language is spoken, and in the Upper the Thuringian.

The provincial states consist of the prelates, with the abbesses of the nunneries, whose places are filled by the provosts; of the nobility, and of the towns of Heiligenstadt, Duderstadt, Stadt-Worbis, and Treffurt. Their provincial diets are held in the open air, about four miles from Heiligenstadt; or, when the weather is very unfavourable, in the council-house at Heiligenstadt, in the presence of an electoral envoy and two commissioners.

The elector governs the Eichsfeld by a lieutenant, whose place is supplied by an administrator. At Heiligenstadt are the supreme temporal courts, namely, the provincial regency, which manages matters political, public, and criminal; the upper land-court, to which appeals lie from the prefectures of the noble and claustral courts, in both which the lieutenant, or his administrator, presides; together with the electoral provincial tax-office, and the electoral forest-office. In this country are also six claustral and fifteen noble judicatories.

Heiligenstadt, the capital of the country, is seated at the confluence of the Leina and the Geisled; it is the seat of the lieutenant and the supreme temporal judicatory, and contains in it a castle finely built of free-stone, where the regency and provincial judicatory hold their meetings; together with an electoral town-judicatory, a town-council, and a collegiate foundation dedicated to St. Martin. It has also a Jesuit's college, a school, and three churches. In 1739 this town was almost wholly destroyed by fire, but has been again rebuilt.

We now come to the city and territory of Erfurt. This city is situated in Thuringia, of which it is esteemed the capital, though it was never owned by the circle

of Upper Saxony as a state of that circle. It was founded in the beginning of the fifth century, and much dispute has arisen concerning the right of the elector of Mentz to that city; but those electors maintain, that from antient times they have had the sovereignty over it, and that they have granted the inhabitants all their immunities and privileges. However, in virtue of the stipulations between those electors and the house of Saxony, the protestant doctrine and worship has been agreed to be maintained in the state they were in when those stipulations were made; and this has been confirmed by the elector and chapter. Hence the greatest part of the inhabitants, both of the city of Erfurt and of the whole country, are Protestants.

The city of Erfurt is seated on the Gera, in the fiftieth degree forty-nine minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree fourteen minutes east longitude. It is large but not sufficiently populous, and is for the most part built in the old fashioned taste. It is fortified and defended by the citadels of Petersburg and Cyriacburg, and has a garrison of two battalions of imperial and electoral troops; and a number of noblemen reside in the town, on whom several privileges have been conferred by an ordinance published in 1755. It has a large cathedral, which is a secular foundation, consisting of a provost, a dean, six canons, and six vicars, which was founded as a cloister by St. Boniface in the year 752. The whole of this large structure rests on vaults, without any pillars to support the roof. The celebrated great bell in this church weighs two hundred and seventy-five centners, or thirty thousand two hundred and fifty pounds. The towers of this church have been demolished by fire. Here is also a collegiate church dedicated to St. Severus, which has six canons and four vicars. Here are likewise a college of Jesuits, and a rich monastery of Benedictines, under the direction of a mitred abbot; with seven other cloisters, four popish churches, and three chapels. The Lutherans perform their worship in six churches, and have five others which they make no use of. They have also a seminary in a building which was formerly an Augustine cloister. Here is likewise a celebrated university, which has five colleges. The theological faculty is entirely Roman catholic, but the senior of the Lutheran clergy is professor of the Augsburg confession, and receives a yearly salary of two hundred rix-dollars from the elector. The other faculties are filled up equally with the Lutheran and popish professors. To this university belong a botanical garden, an anatomical theatre, an astronomical observatory, and a riding academy. In the year 1754 an academy of the useful sciences was also founded at Erfurt.

The territory belonging to the city is for the most part fertile, and abounds with corn-fields and vineyards; but wood is scarce. This territory includes in it two towns and seventy-three villages.

SECT. IV.

Of the Electorate of TRIERS, or TREVES.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. Of the Archbishop, his Election, Titles, Arms, and Power: the Offices by which the Government is administered; his Revenues and Forces; with a Description of the Cities of Treves and Coblentz.

TRIERS, or Treves, is bounded on the west by the dutchy of Luxemburg, on the south by the dutchy of Lorrain, on the east by certain territories which belong to the elector Palatine in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and on the north by the archbishopric of Cologne; extending in length about ninety-five miles, but its breadth is very different.

The country is pretty mountainous and woody, yet contains good pastures for cattle, and in many places fruitful arable land; but does not produce corn sufficient for the inhabitants: however, the growth of wine on the Moselle is very considerable. The country also abounds with game, and has mines of silver, tin, copper, lead, iron, calamy, and coal.

The Moselle is the principal river of this country, where it receives the Saar and the Kyll, after which it runs through the greatest part of the country of Triers, with several windings, particularly between the mountains, and at length, having received the Lahn, falls into the Rhine.

The people of this archbishopric are of the Romish church, and the whole of the archiepiscopal jurisdiction is divided into five archidiaconates, to which belong twenty decanates or provincial deaneries.

The archbishop of Treves is elected by the chapter, and swears to a capitulation, which the canons of that chapter propose to him; and the pope confirms such election in the usual manner, empowering one of the new elected bishops, allotted for that purpose, to consecrate him.

The archiepiscopal titles are, By the grace of God archbishop of Treves, of the holy Roman empire throughout Gaul and the kingdom of Arles arch-chancellor and elector, and also administrator of Prum.

The arms of the archbishop are, on account of Treves, a shield quartered, bearing in the upper dexter field and also in the lower field sinister a cross gules in a field argent; and, on account of Prum, in the upper field sinister and the lower field dexter, a lamb argent, bearing a small trophy, on which is depicted a cross on a mount verte in a field gules.

This archbishop is in rank the second spiritual elector. At the election of an emperor he delivers the formula of the election-oath to the elector of Mentz, to be sworn to by him; and he has the first voice at the election of the emperor. As elector he enjoys both a seat and voice in the electoral council at the diets of the empire, and, as archbishop of Treves, obtains the second place in the electoral Rhenish circle. The suffragans of this archbishop are the bishops of Metz, Tull, and Verdun.

The chapter of Treves consists of forty canons, among whom are sixteen capitulars, and twenty-four domicelli. All these canons must, at least, be descended from antient noble families, and have it in their power to exhibit sixteen ancestors capable of being admitted to tournaments. The regency of this country consists of a chancellor, a privy and regency counsellors. The court of revision consists of a director, four revision counsellors, and one actuary: before this court processes are brought from both the aulic judicatories, one of which is at Treves in the upper archbishopric, and the other at Coblentz; and to these aulic-courts appeals lie from the several courts in the towns and prefecturates.

The revenues of the elector are said to amount annually to about seventy thousand pounds sterling. The taxes raised are agreed to at the land diets by the land states. In the year 1714 these states mutually agreed in what manner and proportion the aids to be granted yearly to the sovereign should be levied from each state: namely, that there should be annually paid by each married couple one Rhenish florin; but by widowed persons only half a florin: and that a certain sum should be annually paid by persons of every occupation; as for instance, by haberdashers, manufacturers, innkeepers, &c.

The archbishop has regular forces and a militia: the former generally consist of the circle troops, which the elector of Treves is bound to maintain, and which amount to between eleven and twelve hundred men. The elector has also a life-guard of forty persons.

The principal places in this electorate are the following:

Treves, or Triers, the capital of the upper archbishopric, is seated between two mountains on the river Moselle, over which it has a costly stone bridge. This city is situated in the forty-ninth degree fifty-eight minutes north latitude, and in the sixth degree ten minutes east longitude, and is so antient, that it was inhabited by the Treveri long before the birth of Christ. The antient Roman emperors afterwards resided here; and in the days of Constantine the Great, it was the capital of all Gaul. Here are some remains of an antient Roman theatre. The archiepiscopal court or palace was rebuilt by the elector Francis George, and stands near the cathedral

thedral church of St. Peter, which is seated on a hill, and is a large building. There are also three collegiate and five parish churches, with three colleges of Jesuits, and thirteen monasteries and nunneries; a house of the Teutonic order, and a mansion belonging to the order of St. John. Here is also an university.

Coblentz, in Latin Confluentia, the capital of the lower archbishopric, is seated near the influx of the Moselle into the Rhine, in latitude fifty-six degrees thirty-nine minutes, and in longitude seven degrees twenty-three minutes. Here was a citadel in the time of the Romans, and the kings of the Franks kept their court here. The Rhine on the one side, and the Moselle on the other, render the spot on which the city stands a sort of peninsula, and serve it for ditches. Over the latter is a stone-bridge of fourteen arches; but it is so narrow, that two coaches can hardly go a-breast. At its extremities are double gates, towers, and port-cullises, with some pieces of cannon to command the passage. The fortifications of the city consist of strong bastions, provided with cavaliers, ravelins, half-moons, large and deep ditches, a good counterscarp and covered way, all well paved, palisadoed, and mounted with brass guns. The Moselle is very rapid, as well as the Rhine, and when the two rivers meet, you may easily distinguish the water of the one from the other; that of the Rhine being yellowish, and the Moselle so clear, that you may distinctly see the bottom; but what is surprising is, that they have such scarcity of fish in this place, that there is hardly enough for the elector's table on fast days.

Besides the principal church, here are two collegiate churches, an episcopal seminary, a college of Jesuits, and a seminary, with seven monasteries and nunneries.

The citadel, which is named Ehrenbreitstein, is an important fortress, seated on a mountain opposite to Coblentz; the ascent to which is pretty difficult, it being by a winding road cut out of the rock. There are three gates to be passed before you can enter the citadel, and upon the outermost is a statue of brass representing the Virgin Mary with the infant Jesus in her arms, and holding a lily in her hand: this figure is about fifteen feet high. On passing through this gate, you come to a square, on one side of which is the governor's house, and the magazines and barracks occupy the three others. Here among other curiosities is a cannon of a prodigious magnitude, it being eighteen feet and a half long, its bore a foot and a half in diameter, and its breech three feet four inches: it carries a ball of one hundred and eighty pounds weight, and consequently its charge is ninety-four pounds of powder. From this square you proceed to another, in which is a fine fountain. In the middle of a large stone basin stands a marble pillar upon a brass pedestal, adorned with the elector's arms, and surrounded with four dolphins of the same metal. On the top of this column is a statue of the Virgin Mary bruising the serpent, which is also of brass, about twelve feet in height. The well of this fortress is said to be five hundred and fifty feet deep, and to have cost great sums, they being obliged to dig it out of the solid rock.

The fortifications of this citadel are good; but irregular, from the inequality of the rocks on which they are built, and indeed it may be esteemed impregnable; for in it is all that art can add to nature. The gate is covered by a vast horn-work, with a ditch before it, beyond which is a large half moon. There is no advanced work, or sally port, but what is flanked. On the side toward the river, there are lines of communication to the right and left, worked through the steepest parts of the mountain; and where the situation would admit of it, they have built well-faced redoubts, which render the access to it very difficult. The fort below is on a straight line, and consists of three bastions, with their curtains commanding the river.

From this citadel is the most delightful prospect in all Germany. First, one sees at the foot of the mountain the elector's palace, which stands on the brink of the Rhine, this river and the Moselle, with the whole city of Coblentz from one end to the other built upon a neck of land at the confluence of these two rivers. You see in the middle of the Rhine two little islands, one about

half a league above the town, shaped like a heart, about a quarter of a league long, and in it is a very fine convent of Benedictines: the other, about a league below the town, is twice as long as the former, and upon it stands a pretty considerable village, and a convent of Bernardines: the chartreuse, seated on a rising ground, adds greatly to the beauty of the prospect; and the farther part of the landscape presents a pleasing variety of little hills, vineyards, plains, valleys, villages, castles, convents, and pleasure-houses. In short, this fortress commands all the adjacent country, and is justly reckoned one of the strongest places in Germany, and called the key of the Rhine and Moselle.

The apartments of the elector's palace are not very large; but they are adorned with beautiful tapestries. There is, however, a hall above one hundred feet in length, on the ceiling of which are painted in several compartments, several events in the history of Marcus Aurelius and Ælius Verus. It is also adorned with many good portraits: among others are those of the emperor Leopold, and Charles VI. with Frederic the Great, elector of Brandenburg. Among the principal tapestry hangings, are the history of Joseph and his brethren, in twelve pieces: that of Belshazzar, in eight pieces; but the finest of all represents the story of Meleager and Atalanta, in six large pieces. His highness's chamber is hung with red damask, the bed and arm-chairs are of the same, and the whole adorned with gold fringe.

The chapel is small, but very elegant, and beautified with paintings in separate compartments, representing the most remarkable passages in our Saviour's life, some of them by Baptista, an Italian master, and the rest by Hector, a famous German painter. The ceiling is adorned with gilt sculptures.

The garden is of no great extent, there being but little earth between the rock and the Rhine; it is, however, embellished with statues, fountains, and a fine orangery. A large harbour which extends along the river, is one of its most considerable ornaments, it being above three hundred feet in length; and from the openings of this bower you see the Rhine, the Moselle, the town of Coblentz, the bridge across the Moselle, the chartreuse, and a very fine country to the distance of three or four leagues.

The chartreuse is delightfully situated, about the distance of three quarters of a league from the town: in the way to it you continually meet with chapels in the manner of oratories, adorned with statues representing the principal actions of Jesus Christ from his birth to his resurrection.

SECT. V.

Of the Electorate of COLOGNE.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce. The Prerogatives, Titles, Arms, Revenues, and Forces of the Elector; with a particular Description of the Imperial City of Cologne, and the other remarkable Places in that Electorate.

COLOGNE, the last of the three spiritual electorates we have to mention, extends along the western bank of the Rhine, between the duchy of Cleves on the north, the electorate of Treves on the south, the duchy of Juliers and the Netherlands on the west, and the duchy of Berg, from which it is separated by the Rhine, on the east, extending above ninety miles in length, but hardly any where above seven or eight in breadth. The archiepiscopal countries, however, do not lie together; but many of them are separated by other countries. The longest connected part is that just mentioned; but another portion of it lies chiefly between the duchy of Juliers and the archbishopric of Treves; and another is in Westphalia, and terminates to the east on the bishopric of Paderborn, Waldec, and Hesse; to the south on the counties of Wittenstein and Nassau, and on the duchy of Berg; to the west on the same, and the county of Mark; to the north on the bishopric of Munster and the county of Lippe; extending from north to south forty-seven miles, and from east to west thirty-eight.

The countries subject to the archbishopric are of a very different nature and goodness: one part of them is very mountainous and woody, another sandy, and another fruitful. The woody tracts afford much game, the country situated on the Rhine abounds with vineyards, and the rivers with fish.

In this archbishopric none but those of the Romish church enjoy the public exercise of their religion; but, notwithstanding this, there are many Protestants in it.

This country was a bishopric in the year 314, and was made an archbishopric in the eighth century. The archbishops early obtained the honour of the *pallium*, and that of bearing the cross, and in the tenth century they were deemed equal to the archbishops of Mentz and Triers, and they still bear the title of arch-chancellor throughout all Italy, though they have no opportunity of exercising their office. Besides the prerogatives which this prelate enjoys in common with all the other electors, he is possessed of some peculiar to himself. Thus, at the election of the king of the Romans, and of the emperor, he has the next voice after the elector of Treves; and sits at public assemblies, when held within his ecclesiastical jurisdiction, or out of it in Italy and Gaul, at the emperor's right hand; and both he and the elector of Treves, share the honour of precedence alternately.

The constant title of the elector of Cologne runs thus, By the grace of God, archbishop of Cologne, and arch-chancellor of the holy Roman empire throughout all Italy, as also elector and *legatus natus* of the holy apostolic see, duke of Engern and Westphalia, &c.

His arms on account of the archbishopric of Cologne are, a cross sable in a field argent; for the dutchy of Westphalia, a white horse saliant in a field gules; for the dutchy of Engern three hearts or, in a field gules; and for the county of Arensberg, an eagle argent in a field azure.

The chapter has its residence at the archiepiscopal cathedral in the imperial city of Cologne, and consists of twenty-five canons, and a number of domicelli.

The elector of Cologne has the following offices, the privy-conference, the aulic council, or regency-college, and the aulic judicatory.

The electoral revenues arising from the archiepiscopal countries, according to Mr. Busching, are not very considerable; but others say, that in time of peace those of Cologne amount to one hundred and thirty thousand pounds sterling per annum, and that of his other territories to nearly as much more; but he cannot commence a war without the consent of the chapter, who may convene the states in order to oppose him. The elector maintains a life-guard of halberdiers and yeomen, together with a regiment of foot guards.

The land-states here consist of the prelates, nobility, and towns; and the land-diets in the proper archbishopric are usually held at Bonne.

In the archiepiscopal countries are fifty-two towns and above seventeen boroughs, the principal places in which are the following:

Bonne, a small, but well inhabited city, in which the elector resides, is situated on the west side of the Rhine, in the fiftieth degree thirty-five minutes north latitude, and in the seventh degree five minutes east longitude, twelve miles to the southward of Cologne. It stands in a fruitful country that produces good wine, and the woods with a ridge of mountains abound with game. The fine palace in this city was begun in the year 1718. Besides the principal church, which is a stately building, there is a collegiate and parish church. The Jesuits have likewise a college, and several orders have their convents. In the years 1673, 1689, and 1703, this city was besieged and taken by the Imperialists and their allies: in the last mentioned year it was taken by the duke of Marlborough, and upon its restitution by the treaty of Utrecht, its fortifications were to be demolished.

The imperial city of Cologne, by the Germans called Keulen, in Latin Colonia Agrippina, is one of the oldest and largest cities of Germany, and is seated on the Rhine, in the fiftieth degree fifty minutes north latitude, and in the sixth degree forty-five minutes east lon-

gitude. It was originally built by the Ubii, who were taken into the protection of the Romans, and removed to the west of the Rhine, where they founded a town, to which, by order of the empress Agrippina, consort to Claudius, who was born there, a Roman colony was sent; whence arose the name of Colonia Agrippina, from the first word of which the appellation of Cologne received its origin. It was the chief town of Germania Secunda, and continued under the power of the Romans till the Franks put an end to their dominion in the fifth century. At present it is the residence of the chapter of the archbishopric of Cologne, as also of a pope's nuncio.

This city affords a very agreeable prospect at a distance, and being situated in a plain and level country, the vast number of its steeples make a fine appearance. It is built in the form of a half moon, and has one strong wall on the side next the Rhine, with out-works, half-moons, and ravelins; the walls of the city have also eighty-three towers, and three deep ditches round them; they are planted with rows of fine trees, and the roofs of the houses are slated. A flying bridge extends over the Rhine to the town of Duits, which is on the opposite side of the river. This flying bridge, as it is called, is well contrived; it is built on large flat boats, so well belayed with ropes and iron chains, that it is impossible they can be loosened, and there are five or six boats of a smaller size, that lie at anchor in a straight line, in the middle of the river, at equal distances from each other, and two musket-shot above the bridge. To these boats are fastened two strong cables, the ends of which pass through pulleys fixed at the top of posts within the bridge, and make it when loosened tack and veer merely by the current of the water, without any need of rowing, or any other working, except steering. It is said that the continual passage by this bridge brings into the chapter of the cathedral a revenue of above ten thousand crowns a year.

Among the buildings of this city, the cathedral of St. Peter deserves particular notice, and it would be very magnificent were it quite finished; for a part of it is extremely fine. The steeple is two hundred and fifty feet high, and affords a fine view of the city. The choir is said to be the highest in Germany, and the chancel is supported by four rows of large pillars. Upon the principal altar in the choir, lies in a silver coffin the corpse of St. Englebert, archbishop of Cologne, who suffered martyrdom under Dioclesian and Maximian. His statue of white marble, in his pontificals, lies upon a table of black marble, leaning his head upon his hand, and at his feet stand two angels of white marble, the one holding a crown, the other a branch of palm gilt. There are several other antient tombs; but the most celebrated of them all are those of the three kings, or eastern magi, who came to offer presents to the infant Jesus; for it is pretended that their remains were removed hither from Milan in the year 1162, when Frederic Barbarossa laid waste that city. These bodies are deposited in a large purple shrine spotted with gold, upon a pedestal of brass, in the midst of a square mausoleum of marble. This mausoleum is in a small chapel behind the choir, and the shrine is opened every morning at nine o'clock, when these kings are shewn lying at full length; but two of the canons must always be present. They here report abundance of miracles wrought by them, and among the rest, that there being a great drought in Hungary, many people came from thence to implore the assistance of these three magi, who are said to have promised them rain, which falling soon after in great plenty, a body of the Hungarians, in remembrance of this miracle, come every seven years in pilgrimage to Cologne, where they are entertained by the magistrates for a fortnight in a handsome house built for that purpose. The heads of these pretended kings have each a crown of gold adorned with precious stones of various kinds, and their names Gaspar, Melchior, and Balthazar, are in purple characters upon a little grate before the shrine; which is immensely rich, it being adorned with an infinite number of large and valuable pearls, besides other precious stones of all colours, among which is an oriental topaz, as big as a pigeon's egg. A little above the shrine hang two large golden cups, and

a man on horseback of the same metal, votive pieces offered to the three kings. Opposite to them are six large silver branches, with tapers of virgin wax, which burn day and night. Under a vermillion grate before the shrine are two Latin verses cut on marble, that "here three bodies of the magi lie entire, and no part of them any where else." At the top of the front of the mausoleum the history of their adoration is represented in basso relievo upon white marble; over the sculpture is a large star gilt, and in another part of the mausoleum are six Latin lines, alluding to their three offerings, and the three devotional uses to be made of them; namely tears, a pure heart, and prayers offered to Christ from an humble soul. Upon the back of the mausoleum is represented in basso relievo, upon white marble, the history of the translation of the three magi from Milan to Cologne, with the procession made on that occasion.

In the church of St. Ursula are shewn the tombs of the eleven thousand virgins massacred by the Huns at Cologne. This idle story has been fully refuted by archbishop Usher, and even by learned men of the church of Rome, who all agree, that it is founded on a mistake with relation to the antient manner of setting down the names and titles of the saints. The above learned protestant divine supposes that St. Ursula's companion was named Undecimilla, and that her name was mistaken for Undecim millia, or eleven thousand, a conjecture which is supported by an antient Missal in the Sorbonne, where the feast of St. Ursula, patroness of the Sorbonne, is thus expressed, *Festum S. S. Ursula Undecimillæ & sociarum Virginum & Martyrum*.

But to return, it is pretended that the earth is here rendered so holy by these virgins, that it will not receive any other corpse; as a confirmation of which they shew the tomb of the daughter of a certain duke of Brabant, who, on their going to bury her, they say, raised herself up, and remained suspended in the air; this obliged them to put her into this tomb, which is fixed upon iron supporters two or three feet from the ground, against one of the pillars of the church. In a large chapel on one side of the same church are to be seen the bones of those eleven thousand legendary saints; the walls are adorned with rows of busts gilt, in which they pretend the heads of many of these virgins are preserved; and some of them have cases of cloth of gold, velvets, and rich silks. Besides, their bones are hung up in as decent a manner as the swords and pistols are ranged in an armoury; and among these some appear to have belonged to children five or six years old: but a celebrated physician of this place was treated as a heretic for saying there were among them two or three bones of large mastiff-dogs, and boasting he could incontestibly prove it; for which he was condemned to pay a considerable fine, and banished the diocese of Cologne. The church is full of the tombs erected for these virgins: that of St. Ursula is of black and white marble, about two palms long and six in breadth; her statue of white marble lies at full length crowned with a garland of flowers, and at her feet is a dove. The revenue of this church, which must be very considerable from the offerings made by pilgrims, and other devout persons, belongs entirely to an abbess and six canonesse, who, to do honour to St. Ursula, must be all countesses.

The collegiate church of St. Gerion has ten canons, and a great number of chaplains, all of whom enjoy a very handsome revenue. The choir of this church is covered with tapestry, and with nine hundred heads of Moorish cavaliers, the companions of Gregory, an Ethiopian prince. These were all Christians, and going to the emperor Constantine's army, when they were taken and slain. They are ranged in little niches, between every two of which is a gilt foliage of carved work; and a cap of scarlet, adorned with pearls, upon every head. In a corner of this church is shewn one of the pillars of the scaffold on which all these holy martyrs were beheaded; and this pillar of a scaffold is of fine jasper spotted with blood, and about a foot in diameter.

The church belonging to the Jesuits-college is a very lofty and elegant building, and against the pillars which support the ceiling are statues of the twelve apostles, and of many other saints, as large as the life. The pulpit de-

serves attention on account of the sculptures with which it is adorned. Before the principal altar hangs a silver lamp of exquisite workmanship, six feet in height: the figures of Christ, with the five wise and five foolish virgins in the parable, are represented in relievo with great delicacy. This church has few good pictures; but its wealth is immense; one altar is upon occasion entirely covered with a kind of embroidery with gold wire and pearls; another is enriched with a vast number of rubies, some of them very large; another is of massy silver, and contains in basso relievo the history of the assumption of the holy Virgin, with St. Ignatius upon one side, and St. Francis Xavier on the other. There is also one of massy silver, with a border of gold embellished with pearls; another of gold brocade, with pearls and emeralds, among which are many of great value; another of crimson embroidered with gold, and decorated with carved figures of Jesus Christ, St. Joseph, the Virgin, Ignatius, and Xavier. The last is of exquisite workmanship, and of a very extraordinary magnitude; these ornaments being only used to adorn the great altar on certain solemn festivals, and are therefore kept in the vestry, where is an innumerable quantity of branches, candlesticks, lustres, busts, vases, as well as rich chalices, pattens, cups, plates, and other utensils for mass; and all the latter are of gold enriched with precious stones.

The refectory belonging to this college is very large and well wainscotted, the ceiling is adorned with sculpture, and is hung all round with pictures representing the principal events of our Saviour's life.

The church of the Maccabees has on the outside of the gate a picture representing Salomone, the mother of those martyrs, trampling Antiochus Epiphanes under her feet. She holds her seven sons crowned with laurel under her gown, four on one side and three on the other. Their history is painted on the wall in the corner of the church, in eight different pieces. The heads of the Maccabees are kept in the tabernacle of the principal altar, which is of purple embroidered with gold; and each of these heads has a crown richly adorned with pearls, rubies, and emeralds. They likewise shew here the pretended head of St. Joachim, the father of the Virgin Mary, and that of St. Anne her mother, with numberless other relics. The history of the martyrdom of the eleven thousand virgins is also painted on several parts of the walls, and near the church is a well into which they pretend their blood was poured. The Benedictines, to whom this church belongs, pretend, contrary to a tradition among the Ursulines, that the princess Ursula was massacred on the spot where the principal altar stands.

The church of St. Pantaleon is adorned with pictures of the history of that saint, who was a physician in Nicomedia, and is represented in eighteen pieces. The emperor Galerius Armentarius ordered him to be put to a variety of torments, on account of his adherence to his religion. In the tenth piece he is plunged into a cauldron of melted lead, which one would have thought would have burnt him to the very bone; but the legend says he came out unhurt. In the two last paintings he is precipitated from a high rock into the sea, with a millstone tied about his neck; but he does not sink. After all this they were obliged to cut off his head, which was no sooner done than they pretend there sprung out two fountains, the one of blood and the other of milk. They also shew here a gold box, which they say contains the ashes of St. Pantaleon, his body having been burnt at Nicomedia. In this church is also the history of St. Alban, in twelve capital paintings; and behind the great altar they pretend to shew his bones deposited in a fine silver shrine.

The entrance of the church of the Apostles is particularly remarkable for the story it represents, which is that of a burgomaster's wife of this city, who being buried here in 1571, with a valuable ring on her finger, the sexton, resolving to steal the ring, paid a visit to the grave; but was so extremely frightened when he found the supposed deceased lady grasp him by the hand, that he made a precipitate retreat. The lady, however, rose from her tomb, and returning home, knocked at the door, and calling to a servant, told him the whole adventure; but the fellow, taking her for a ghost, ran in a great fright to his

his master, and informed him of what had happened; when the gentleman immediately cried, that he would as soon believe his horses were in the garret. These words were no sooner uttered, but a great noise being heard in the garret, the servant ran up, and to his great amazement found six coach-horses there. By this time the lady had made a shift to get in, and by the care of her servants was soon so well recovered, that there was no great appearance of her returning to the grave for that time, and the next day the horses were let down out of the garret by certain machines prepared for that purpose. Absurd as this story is, it is here firmly believed, and to this day there are shewn in the same garret several wooden horses, said to be covered with the skins of those that were seen there; and in the church of the twelve Apostles is a large piece of linen cloth spun by the lady after her being released from the grave, which she survived seven years. We find some authentic testimonies of the truth of this memorable story; but in these no notice is taken of the horses, as being an evident, and very ridiculous fiction, invented to heighten the wonder.

The town-house is a vast Gothic structure, which those who shew it say was built after the model of the antient capitol at Rome. In the front is a basso relievo representing a man fighting a lion; and in the great hall are five pictures, with several Latin inscriptions in verse on each, to perpetuate the memory of the celebrated battle of Hochster, gained by the bravery and conduct of the duke of Marlborough and prince Eugene over the French and Bavarians; with elegiums both on queen Anne, those generals, and the English and Dutch. The entrance of the chamber where the city-council meet is a vestibule of inlaid work, after the antique taste, and on each side is a Latin distich, advising the counsellors to leave all partiality behind them, and declare their judgment freely, and, at their going out, to observe fidelity in execution, and a prudent taciturnity. Upon the inside of the chamber-door are six verses, intimating the duties which belong to the office of a ruler. In this apartment is a picture of the last judgment, sixteen feet in breadth, and eight in height. On the chimney-piece is a very fine crucifixion by Van Dyke; on one side of it is the portrait of the emperor Leopold, and on the other that of the empress his consort. In this structure are several rooms, in which are deposited a vast number of bows, arrows, cross-bows, bucklers, and other antique arms. One of these cross-bows is of whalebone, and is said to be twelve feet long, eight inches broad, and four inches thick. From the tower of this building is a very fine prospect of the whole city and the adjacent country.

In short, there are in this city ten collegiate and nineteen parish churches, with four abbeys, seventeen monasteries, thirty-nine nunneries, sixteen hospitals, and about fifty chapels. The numerous protestants who dwell in the city resort to Mulheim, where they publicly perform their religious worship. The Jews live chiefly at Duits, a mean borough entirely dependent on the elector; its houses are of wood plaistered with white clay, and its few streets extremely filthy and ill paved. In the town, says our author, one sees more swine than men, three fourths and upwards of the inhabitants being Jews, who, for the sake of profit, fatten whole herds of those animals, which their law forbids them to eat, in order to sell them at a high price to the Christians. The Jews are indeed not permitted to lie one night at Cologne, nor so much as to enter the city about their affairs, without paying a gold florin for every hour they stay, and being escorted by one of the town guards, whom they are obliged to pay for his trouble. This is done as a punishment, their ancestors having, it is said, intended to kill the inhabitants by poisoning the wells and fountains. This, however, serves for a pretence, which the magistrates probably make use of to prevent the Jews undermining them in their trade.

Cologne is one of the Hanse towns, and pretends to have preserved its liberty without interruption for many centuries; but the calamities of war have often occasioned great disorders in its government and commerce. The Dutch make use of it as a magazine for their trade upon the Rhine, and this has engaged that state to defend Cologne on all occasions against the pretensions of

the elector. Cologne is governed by the chapter and magistrates, the latter consisting of two burgomasters and forty-nine counsellors. The elector has also some power, and nominates a magistrate who is judge in criminal causes; and the city swears allegiance and homage to the new elector, so long as he continues to protect them in their just rights and privileges, and confirms their immunities. As a free imperial city, it has a seat and voice at the diets of the circle of Westphalia, and at those of the empire in the college of the imperial cities, and enjoys the first place on the Rhenish bench. Cologne maintains four companies of soldiers, but in time of war the emperor, or an ally, usually places a garrison in the city.

Near Renfe, a small town seated on the Rhine, is to be seen a remarkable piece of antiquity, called the Konigstuhl, or Regal throne, consisting of a round vault built of free-stone, resting upon nine stone pillars, one of which stands in the middle. This vault is eight German ells and a quarter high, above forty in compass, twelve and a quarter in diameter, and furnished with seven seats, agreeable to the antient number of electors. The ascent to it is by twenty-eight stone steps, and it has two strong doors. In this place the electors formerly held previous consultations on the election of a king and emperor, and whenever the election, on account of any impediments, could not be performed at Franckfort, it was done here; the electors here also consulted on the weighty affairs of the empire, and here the emperors confirmed their privileges. At this place was established the electoral league concluded in 1338. It was particularly chosen by the electors, because the four electors of the Rhine have places belonging to each of them lying near it; the elector of Cologne being possessed of Renfe, the elector of Mentz of Upper Lahnstein, the elector of Treves of Capelle, and the elector Palatine of Brauhach.

SECT. VI.

Of the PALATINATE OF THE RHINE.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. The Revolutions the Palatinate has undergone with respect to Religion. The Titles and Arms of the Elector; the public Offices of the Government, with the Elector's Revenues and Forces, and a Description of the Cities of Mannheim and Heidelberg.

THE country of the elector Palatine, also called the Palatinate of the Rhine, and the Lower Palatinate, to distinguish it from the Upper Palatinate, in the circle of Bavaria, is bounded on the east by the archbishopric of Mentz, the bishopric of Worms, and a part of the territory of the Teutonic order in Franconia; to the south by the dutchy of Wurtemberg and the bishopric of Spire; on the west by Alsace, the dutchy of Deuxponts, and certain districts belonging to the elector of Mentz; and on the north by a part of that archbishopric and Triers; extending about a hundred miles in length, and seventy in breadth.

This country is indeed partly mountainous, but yet uncommonly fertile, producing in abundance all sorts of corn, pulse, fruit, chesnuts, and walnuts; with fine pastures, and a good breed of cattle; together with plantations of tobacco, and vineyards which produce Neckar and Rhenish wine. The Bergstrasse is an agreeable highway between Heidelberg and Darmstadt, which is planted with walnut-trees, and on both sides has fruitful fields and meadows, intermixed with hills and mountains, which on the right side of the road, in travelling from Heidelberg to Darmstadt, extends to a considerable length, and are covered on their summits with woods; but towards the plain with vineyards. The numerous walnut-trees on the Bergstrasse and the Odenwalde, as well on account of their fruit as wood, are of great advantage to the country. On all parts of the Bergstrasse grow almonds in great plenty, and in the vineyards are chesnut-trees.

With respect to the rivers of this country, the Rhine runs partly through its borders, and partly through its center. Near Germerheim and Selz, out of the sands

of this river is washed the best Rhenish gold, to which the Rhenish gold florins owe their original. The gold thus washed is looked upon by the elector as a royalty, and accordingly farmed out by him. There are several rivers which here fall into the Rhine, particularly the Neckar and the Nahe. These rivers, as well as the smaller ones, abound in fish.

The state of religion has been here subject to alterations unheard of in other nations. The people were prepared for the reformation when, in the year 1518, Luther held his disputation with much approbation in an assembly of Augustine monks at Hiedelberg, and the pacific measures of the elector Lewis contributed to promote it. The reformation was carried on by his brother and successor Frederic II. but under Frederic III. some French and Swiss divines coming into the palatinate, a warm dispute arose between the Protestants concerning the Lord's Supper, which gave occasion to the electors joining the Calvinists in 1560, and he was the first German prince who introduced the religion of Calvin into his country. But, notwithstanding the zeal he shewed for the doctrine of the Calvinists, Lewis VI. his son and successor, with equal zeal brought in again Lutheranism, dismissed the Calvinist preachers, and appointed Lutherans in their stead. After his death John Casimir, guardian to his son Frederic IV. reversed all he had done, and with such zeal introduced the Calvinist doctrines, that only a few churches remained to the Lutherans; and in the following reigns Calvinism still more prevailed: the popish doctrines and worship were afterwards introduced in several places, and the Protestants oppressed by the Bavarian troops, till affairs were settled by the peace of Westphalia. At length the Calvinist line of princes becoming extinct, and the succession falling to the Roman catholic line of Neuburg, the popish doctrines and worship were gradually more and more introduced, and the Protestants deprived of the power they had hitherto enjoyed. The French afterwards ravaged the Palatinate, and oppressed the Protestants.

In the year 1705 the elector John William tolerated the three religions, and declared that they should enjoy full liberty of conscience; and, in particular, that the Calvinists and the Lutherans should be permitted the public and private exercise of their religion, together with the spiritual jurisdiction. To the Lutherans were confirmed their peculiar consistory, erected in 1698, independent of the Calvinist church-council. To their use alone were left all the churches, which belonged to them in the year 1624, as also those which since that time had been built or should be built by them for the future; and that they should likewise have whatever they could prove belonged to them in spiritualities, schools, rents, and incomes in 1624. To the Calvinists all churches and schools were confirmed in the manner they enjoyed them in 1685; except only that in the towns where they had two or more churches, and the Roman catholics none, they were to give up one of them to the latter: in such towns where there was only one church they were to give up to them the choir, and two out of every seven country churches, and also two-sevenths out of their revenues. The estates and incomes arising from the suppressed foundations, provostships, cloisters, &c. were to be administered by a spiritual administration, consisting of two popish and the like number of Calvinist counsellors, with other necessary officers. Something certain was also settled with respect to the popish holidays, mixed marriages, and other affairs which till then had been subjects of dispute. But, notwithstanding this agreement, and the small number of the Papists, alterations have been continually made, and the grievances of the Protestants greatly increased. To the disgrace of the Reformation the two Protestant churches have themselves been for a long time the zealous enemies of each other, to their mutual detriment, and the no less advantage of the Roman catholics. The Lutherans, according to their own computation, amount to about fifty thousand, and are possessed of eighty-five parishes; but one-half of their preachers and school-masters still want a competent maintenance. The number of Calvinist clergy is estimated at five hundred, and those of the Roman catholic at four hundred.

The titles of the elector are as follow: Palgrave of the Rhine; arch-treasurer and elector of the holy Roman empire; duke in Bavaria, Juliers, Cleves, and the Berg; prince of Mors; marquiss of Bergen-op-Zoom; count of Veldens, Sponheim, the Mark, and Ravensberg; and lord of Ravenstein.

The arms on account of the Palatinate on the Rhine are, a lion or, in a field sable: on account of Bavaria, lozenges or fusils: on account of Juliers, a lion sable, in a field or: on account of Cleves, eight regal sceptres conjoined in one small shield, in a field purple: on account of Berg, a lion gules, crowned verte, in a field argent: on account of Mors, a fesse sable, in a field or: on account of Bergen-op-Zoom, a shield damaskeened: on account of Veldenz, a lion verte, in a field argent: on account of the Mark, a fesse consisting of three chequers gules and argent, in a field or: on account of Ravensberg, three chevrons gules in a field argent; and on account of Ravenstein, a red deer's attire in a field argent.

The elector has an order of knighthood of St. Hubert, first founded in the fifteenth century; but revived by the elector John William in 1709. The badge of this order, is a quadrangular cross worn pendant at a red ribbon, and on the breast a star. The elector is supreme master of this order, and the knights consist of princes, counts, and barons.

The high colleges here are the privy state-conference, and the privy-chancery, the regency, the upper court of appeals, the aulic-jurisdiction, the aulic-chamber, and the war-council.

The annual revenues of the elector arising from the countries of the electoral and Upper Rhenish circle are estimated at nine hundred thousand guildens, exclusive of the large sums received from the administration of the spiritualities. The revenues of the duchies of Juliers and Berg, together with those of the signiory of Ravenstein, also amount annually to about the same sum, to which is to be added the revenue arising from the duchies of Neuburg and Sultzbach.

The elector maintains two regiments of horse-guards, and another of Swiss, with a body of horse and foot, amounting in the whole to about six thousand men.

The Palatinate contains forty-one towns, and several boroughs, the principal places in which are,

Manheim, the electoral residence, and the second town in the electorate, is a strong fortress seated in a low plain near the influx of the Neckar into the Rhine, in the forty-ninth degree thirty-six minutes north latitude, and in the seventh degree thirty-two minutes east longitude. In the year 1606, the elector Frederic IV. began to convert the old village and citadel of Manheim into a town, receiving into it some of the inhabitants of the Netherlands who had quitted their country, in order to enjoy liberty of conscience. And though it was dreadfully laid waste in 1622, when besieged and taken by the Bavarians, and in 1688, entirely demolished by the French, yet the electors John William and Charles Philip caused it to be rebuilt and fortified in such a manner, that it is now become one of the finest towns in Germany, and a place of great strength; but requires ten thousand men to defend it.

It has three fine gates, of which that of the Neckar is the most magnificent, and best adorned, it having basso relievos very beautifully executed. This gate opens into a long and spacious street, at the end of which is the elector's palace. The streets here intersect each other at right angles; so that at each corner the spectator has a view of four streets. Before the palace is a large square, in which is a considerable number of lodging-rooms, with a great and high pavilion in the middle, and two advanced wings, with ample pavilions at the ends, where two other very extensive wings rise on both sides, which are also terminated by pavilions, behind which are other lodging-rooms; and before the palace is an equestrian statue of metal, of the elector John William.

Within the palace are two great courts separated by an open gallery, very much adorned with architecture. The apartments are beautified with noble cielings and floors, and have the finest prospect imaginable to Spires, Fran-

Frankendahl, Worms, and over all the country, as far as the mountains of Alsace. The collection of paintings in this palace is very grand, and, in what is called the treasury, is a considerable number of antiquities relative to the Palatine-house, and among others the golden crown of Frederic the unhappy elector and king of Bohemia.

In the great market is the popish church, and the council-house, between which stands a tower, that is a great ornament to this square, as is also a fine fountain, which has four pillars, on which stands a lion. The Lutherans and Calvinists have also each a church, and the Jesuits a fine college, with a very beautiful church. There are here also a Capuchin and a Carmelite convent, and also a Jewish synagogue. The Jews indeed are very numerous, and two thirds of the houses are said to be theirs, either from their building them, or on account of mortgages; for some of them are very rich, and drive a great trade with those of their own nation at Mentz, Francfort, and Amsterdam.

The people of both sexes are here of a very amiable character, being extremely social and civil to strangers. The nobility here maintain a company of French comedians, who act in a very small theatre; but both the townsmen and foreigners pay for admittance. Mannheim has some manufactures, and carries on a considerable trade.

Heidelberg, the principal town of the electorate, is seated in a pleasant spot on the river of the Geisberg near the Neckar, in the forty-ninth degree thirty-six minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree fifty-five minutes east longitude, enjoying a wholesome air, and very good water. It is surrounded with hills covered with vines; except on the west, where is a large and fruitful plain, through which the Neckar runs. The town at present is but small, though finely built. It is adorned with an university, managed by an academical senate, consisting of three divinity professors, four for law, three for physic, and six for philosophy. They have a rector magnificentissimus, who is a kind of chancellor, and is commonly the elector himself; and likewise a rector magnificus, like the vice-chancellor of Oxford or Cambridge, who is president of the senate, and chosen annually out of the professors. The first chair instituted for publicly teaching the law of nature and nations, was founded here for the famous Puffendorf, who here began his system, which he finished in Sweden.

This city has suffered much by wars, especially from the French; so that since the disgrace of Frederic elector Palatine, it has been taken, plundered, and burnt four times. The elector's library, which was kept in the church of the Holy Ghost, was, according to Scaliger, better filled with valuable books than even the Vatican at Rome, and exceeded all in the empire for the number of its curious manuscripts; but when count Tilly, the imperial general, took this city in the year 1622, and put five hundred Palatines in it to the sword, great part of this library was sent to the Vatican. In 1688 the French again seized this city; but upon the approach of the imperial army, they, contrary to the capitulation with the Dauphin, blew up the castle, and laid the town in ashes, together with the elector's noble palace, the churches, and other public buildings. The French, to add to their brutality, would not suffer the citizens to leave the city; but shut them up in the great church till they burnt the city; and then also consumed that. Heidelberg was afterwards rebuilt, and had a considerable garrison; but the French under marshal de Lorge attacked it again in 1693, and by the treachery of the governor, the city was soon taken, and the people brutishly murdered, except those who could get into the castle. Upon the first entrance of the French, the ladies and others sent to solicit the general to spare their honour. This he promised, and ordered them all to retire into the great church, where, contrary to his promise, they were brutally ravished and stripped. The French at this time laid the city in ashes, broke up the electoral tombs, and turned the inhabitants, who amounted to about fifteen thousand out of the town by night, when being deprived of all they

had, many died of want, particularly women with child, who fell in labour with the fright.

After this the elector encouraged the people to rebuild the city, promising them exemption from taxes for thirty years, with full liberty of conscience; but being of the Romish religion, he was soon prevailed on by the Jesuits to make one of their society a professor in the university, and oppressed his protestant subjects, till the elector of Brandenburg and other protestant princes, interposed in their behalf.

In 1709 the French again seized Heidelberg, and laying the neighbouring country under contribution, the inhabitants were so impoverished, that several thousands of them fled to foreign countries, particularly England, from whence they were sent to Ireland and the British colonies in America. This city, however, began to recover itself, when the elector being disgusted at the Calvinists, for refusing to deliver up to him the body of the great church, which had been allotted them by the peace of Westphalia, the choir being in the possession of the Roman catholics, quitted Heidelberg, and went to reside at Mannheim, since which this city has ever since been decaying.

The principal beauty of Heidelberg consists in one large handsome street, with a spacious square, and uniform market. The elector's castle, or palace, on the ascent of a neighbouring hill called Conigstahl, which overlooks the whole city, was remarkable for its strength, and was beautified with fine gardens and grottos. Near it is a strong tower, which since the peace of Westphalia was called the Star-fort. This palace is enclosed with a wall hewn out of the rock.

Several towns have been already mentioned as famous for their having tons of an uncommon magnitude, which proceeds not only from the fondness of the Germans for drinking; but to shew that wine is one of the most profitable branches of their trade in the provinces near the Rhine and the Danube, and none of these tons is more famous than that of Heidelberg. In a cellar under one of the towers of the elector's palace stood one of an extraordinary size, it being capable of holding five hundred and twenty-eight hogsheads, or twenty-six thousand two hundred and fifty gallons Paris measure. This was rebuilt, and made to hold six hundred hogsheads English measure. The old one had iron hoops; but the new one had large ones of knee timbers, like the ribs of a ship, with several inscriptions, and was very neatly adorned with carved work and gilding. On one side was a handsome stair-case of forty-three steps leading to the top, on which was a gallery encompassed with balustrades, and on this platform the electors have had frequent carousals. This ton having been first emptied, was knocked in pieces by the French in 1688; but the elector has had a new one made which is larger; this is also decorated with variety of ornaments; but is inferior in size to that of Konigstein in Saxony.

The palace bears the marks of the ravages committed there by the French, a great part of it being so ruinous, that of four considerable mansions, of which it consisted, only one escaped undamaged. The remains of the palace are in a stile neither Gothic nor modern; but all the orders are jumbled together, without either fancy or judgment. It has a magnificent terrace towards the town, whence there is a prospect of the plain, and of the country for several leagues round. The inside is scarcely more regular than the outside, and the elector's apartment consists of a long suite of rooms, without beauty or proportion.

The Calvinists are in the possession of St. Peter's church, which stands in the suburbs, and the Lutherans of the church of Providence. The Jesuits have a fine college and a church; and there are also six convents in the town, with churches in them. The university of Heidelberg was founded in the year 1346, and entertains fourteen professors in ordinary, among which six Jesuits teach divinity, natural philosophy, mathematics, and moral philosophy. Mr. Keyser observes, that the number of protestant students amount to about a hundred and eighty; but the popish students do not exceed a hundred. The *collegium sapientiae* was formerly an Augustine cloister, which,

which, in 1553, was appointed for the residence of poor students: it at present belongs to the Calvinists, and in it are twelve students, who are provided with lodging and board.

One of the most remarkable structures in the city is the town-house, once famous for its curious clock, which had a variety of movements, with several figures of men fighting, and a cock which crowed when the hour struck.

The city is divided into five jurisdictions, and the inhabitants ranked under so many classes, the members of each not being obliged to appear before any court but their own. It is also divided into four wards under a burgomaster. The generality of the inhabitants being Calvinists, church affairs are usually managed by a presbytery, consisting of twenty-one deputies.

About a mile from Heidelberg are three streams, which spring from a hill, down which they flow; and, after filling five ponds, and passing three water-falls, run with so strong a current through the adjacent plain, as to turn several mills.

Among the principal places in the Palatinate of the Rhine are generally reckoned Worms and Spire; but as both these are in the Upper Circle of the Rhine, and neither of them subject to the elector Palatine, we shall defer treating of them till the beginning of the next chapter.

The most considerable towns in this electorate, next to those that have been described, are Frankenthal and Oppenheim.

C H A P. XVII.

The Circle of the U P P E R R H I N E.

S E C T. I.

Of this Circle in general; and first of the Bishopric of Worms: Its Situation, Extent, and Produce. The Religion of the Inhabitants; with the Dignity, Titles, Arms, and Prerogatives of the Bishop; and a particular Description of Worms, the Capital of the Bishopric.

FROM this circle most of the lands and states situated on the other side of the Rhine, have been gradually taken away by France; as the greatest part of the bishoprics of Strasburg, Mentz, Tull, and Verdun, with the archbishopric of Besançon, the dutchy of Lorrain, &c.

This circle is at present terminated by the electoral circle of the Rhine, by which it is also intersected: it is likewise bounded by the Westphalian, the Lower Saxon, the Upper Saxon, the Franconian, and Swabian circles; together with Alsace and Lorrain.

The circle of the Upper Rhine at present comprehends the bishoprics of Worms, Spire, Strasburg, Basil, and Fulda; the dutchy of Deux-Ponts, the landgravate of Hesse, Hersfeld, Sponheim; as also the margravates of Nassau-Weilburg, Nassau-Usingen, Nassau-Idestein, Waldec, Hanau, &c. with the imperial cities of Worms, Spire, Francfort, Friedberg, and Wetzlar. Hesse-Cassel and Hanau-Munzenberg have been for some time separated from the circle.

The diets of the circle of the Upper Rhine were formerly held at Worms; but during the present century they have been constantly held at Frankfort, yet the chancery-circle of the archives belonging to it are kept at the directory at Worms. This circle, with respect to its religion, is reckoned among the mixed.

After this short introduction we shall begin with the bishopric of Worms, which is about twelve miles long, and is, for the greatest part, surrounded by the Lower Palatinate, and the rest by the territory of Mentz.

This country is for the most part mountainous and woody, but has some fruitful arable lands, meadows, and vineyards. It is likewise plentifully watered; for the Rhine running through it, receives several smaller rivers in its course.

The Protestant churches in this bishopric retired in 1705 from the Palatinate of the Rhine to the bishopric of Worms, where they are at present in an oppressed state. They have no longer any particular church-government of their own; but are subject in ecclesiastical and matrimonial affairs to the regency of Worms, and that regency nominates the pastors and school-masters. However, one of the Protestant preachers is inspector over the rest.

The arms of this bishopric are a silver key, with the wards turned upwards, having on each side four golden stars in a black field.

The bishop of Worms is subject to the archbishopric of Mentz. In the circle of the Upper Rhine, he is the summoning prince and director; and in the council of the princes of the empire, he exchanges place on the spiritual-bench with the elector of Wurtzburg. The chapter is seated in the imperial city of Worms, and consists of thirteen capitulars and nine domicelli.

The princely regency here consists of a president, a chancellor, aulic and regency-counsellors, and secretaries; the aulic-judicatory, of a president, an aulic-judge, commissaries, and counsellors, who are all members of the regency, together with the secretary; the aulic-chamber, of a president, provincial-clerk, counsellors, secretary, and fiscal-general; and the episcopal vicarship, of a vicar-general, official and spiritual counsellors.

The principal places in this bishopric are the following:

The imperial city of Worms, which is the capital of the bishopric of the same name, is seated on the west side of the Rhine, within the limits of the Palatinate, in the forty-fourth degree thirty-six minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree ten minutes east longitude.

The magistracy here is Lutheran, the city being accounted one of the free Lutheran imperial cities, with toleration and freedom of worship to the Catholics. The Lutherans have a church which they have rebuilt in a handsome manner, in which Luther is represented as appearing at the diet in 1521. They are also in possession of the old church, as it is called, St. Magnus's now in ruins, and St. Leonard's a little way out of the town. Those of the Romish church are very numerous, and are in possession of all the rest. The Calvinists have a church at Neuhausel, about half a league out of the town, where the Lutherans sometimes bring their children to be baptized. The Roman catholics do not here carry the Host in public, nor make any procession except on the day after Easter.

The antient cathedral which was a long, lofty, and strong building erected in the Gothic taste, had a tower at each of the four corners. Over one of the doors was a figure of the size of an ass, with four heads, those of a man, an ox, an eagle, and a lion: the right foot was also that of a man, the left that of an ox, and the two hinder feet resembled those of an eagle and a lion. Upon the back of this figure sat a woman. The people here related very odd stories of this animal, which the learned supposed to be an hieroglyphic, composed of the four beasts in the vision of Ezekiel, and that the woman was designed to represent the Gospel. This cathedral, since its destruction by the French, has been rebuilt with great magnificence.

Near the entrance of St. Martin's church is a picture, just over a moveable altar, which, from the oddness of the conceit, and the low and profane idea of the painter, has not escaped the notice of travellers. It is about five

feet square, and at one of the corners on the top is represented the Almighty, whom the heaven of heavens cannot contain, in the figure of an old man, who seems to address himself to the Virgin Mary, who is placed on her knees in the midst of the picture, holding the infant Jesus by the feet, and ridiculously putting the head of the Redeemer into the hopper of a mill, which is turned by the twelve apostles, by the help of a wheel, assisted by the four beasts of Ezekiel, who are on the other side; while the pope is drawn upon his knees, receiving the hosts that fall from the mill into a golden chalice, one of which he presents to a cardinal, who gives it to a bishop, the bishop to a priest, and the priest to a layman.

In short, the Romans have, besides the cathedral, four collegiate, and the same number of parish-churches, in or near the city, a Jesuits college and seminary, three monasteries, and three nunneries.

Here are two public halls, in one of which the magistrates assemble twice a week upon matters of state, and in the other for the administration of justice. In the first of these Luther made his solemn appeal, in relation to which the people here say, that the doctor being much heated by the eagerness with which he discoursed, and also by a fire that was near him, desired a glass of wine, which being brought, he forgot to drink it; but being still eager in pursuing his discourse, set it down upon a bench, when it soon after broke without being touched by any body; whence it currently passed, that some poison was mixed with the wine, of which the Lutherans were so fully persuaded, that they broke the bench on which the glass stood into shivers, and kept some pieces of it, which are still preserved in memory of Luther's deliverance.

The bishop's palace was rebuilt in the year 1719, at the expence of Francis Lewis, the bishop.

The mint is a noble structure, with a spacious portico, where vast numbers of bones and horns hang between the arches; the former are said to be those of giants, and the latter the horns of the oxen that drew the stones of which the antient cathedral was built.

Since this city has been laid in ashes by the French, it has little left besides the shadow of its former beauty. The richest traders, considering how much both they and their ancestors had suffered on account of their lying so open to France, retired to Frankfort and Holland; so that the principal trade of the city, and the support of the inhabitants, depends on the bishop and his chapter. The citizens are, however, very complaisant to strangers. It is said that there is so much vacant ground in the city as, by being planted with vines, annually yields fifteen hundred fadders of wine, each containing two hundred and fifty English gallons; and it is so much esteemed, that the magistrates make presents of it, with some fish, to princes and other travellers of quality. The fine plain in which the city stands abounds with corn, vineyards, and fruit-trees; and here grows that Rhenish wine, which, from its delicious taste, is called our lady's milk.

The senate, or supreme council of Worms, is composed of twenty-five members, thirteen of which are for life. The city has the fourth seat on the bench of the imperial cities of the Rhine, and likewise votes in the diet of the circle of the Upper Rhine. The bishops of Worms have often contested its independence, and both by hostilities and excommunication have extorted conventions, among which that of 1519 is particularly remarkable, it being agreed, that in suits exceeding fifty guilders, an appeal lies from the city-court to that of the bishop; but if, before the appeal be entered upon, the appellant petitions for the removal of his cause to the emperor, or the aulic-council, the bishop must not only comply, but transmit the papers.

There is scarce any place so famous for interviews of sovereigns, the nuptials of kings and princes, and other solemnities; several diets have also been held here. This was the place where the reformation began in 1525, and in the year 1743 king George II. took up his quarters in this city, and lodged at the bishop's palace after the battle of Dettingen.

S E C T. II.

Of the Bishopric of SPIRES.

Its Situation, Extent, and Fertility. The Arms, Privileges, and Colleges of the Bishop; with a concise History and Description of the Cities of Spires and Philipsburg.

THE bishopric of Spires, or Spire, is seated on the banks of the Rhine, and is for the most part environed by the electoral Palatinate; but is in some places bounded by the margravate of Baden-Durlach, extending thirty-two miles in its greatest length, and twelve in breadth.

It is partly woody and partly mountainous, but enjoys good arable lands, and has groves of chefnuts, almonds, and vineyards. It is a pleasant country; but the natives wanting a vent for their commodities, the Palatinate by which it is enclosed being equally fertile, are very poor; besides, the people have frequently suffered the calamities of war.

The arms of the bishopric are a cross argent in a field azure.

The bishop of Spires is subject to the archbishop of Mentz, notwithstanding which he is a prince of the empire, and in the council of the princes has a seat and voice on the spiritual-bench between the bishops of Aichstadt and Strasburg, and takes the second place at the diets of the circle of the Upper Rhine.

The seat of the cathedral and chapter is in the imperial city of Spire. The chapter consists of fourteen capitulars and thirteen domicelli.

The colleges here are the regency, the episcopal vicarship, the aulic-jurisdiction, and the aulic-chamber.

The principal places in this bishopric are the following:

The city of Spire, or Spires, is seated in a delightful plain, on the east side of the Rhine, where it receives the small river of Spirebach, in the forty-ninth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree twenty minutes east longitude, sixteen miles to the southwest of Heidelberg. Its German name is Speir, and in Latin it is called Spira, Noviomagus, or Numetum, and is thought to have been built by the Belgæ. The Romans after its falling into their hands augmented and walled it, on account of the convenience of the passage into Germany; but it was taken and plundered by Attila in 451, and never recovered this disaster till the time of Charlemagne, who built here a royal palace. The emperor Henry IV. enclosed it with walls and ditches, kept his treasure here, made it an imperial city, and built many noble structures, particularly the cathedral, in which he and several bishops were buried. At length the Spaniards took this city; but soon abandoned it on the approach of the Swedes, and carried off the artillery, gun-powder, and salt-petre, after having exacted eight thousand rixdollars from the inhabitants. The Swedes took possession of it; but not being able to spare troops for garrisoning the place, they demolished it. In 1688 it was taken by the French, who the next year, upon the approach of the Germans, burnt most of the city, with the cathedral, since which disaster it has not recovered its pristine splendor; for after its total destruction by the French in 1689, and lying waste ten years, on the peace of Ryswic it was rebuilt, but with less beauty.

The choir of the cathedral is beautifully repaired; but the superb marble monuments of eight emperors and three empresses were broken in pieces by the French, who also opened and pillaged the vaults, and threw about the bones of the illustrious dead. This church has a large revenue; but its expences are also large. Besides three other foundations, among which is a college of Jesuits, there are several popish parish churches, convents, and nunneries. The Lutherans, indeed, outnumber the other inhabitants; but have only two churches and an academy; and the Calvinists, whose number is not considerable, have only one church. The magistrates of the city are of the Lutheran persuasion.

This

This city has the fifth seat among the imperial cities of the circle of the Rhine, and votes in the diet of the Upper Rhine.

The burghers are divided into fifteen companies, out of which a certain number is chosen, who have the executive power.

A new bishop, before his entrance into the city, is obliged to redress the complaints of the inhabitants; and afterwards sitting on horseback in the open air, between the two outermost gates, which during the ceremony are shut, with one hand in his left breast, he pronounces a blessing on the city; then binds himself not to infringe its privileges; but rather to vindicate and increase them, and to live in harmony with the inhabitants. He then makes his public entry, and the citizens pay him homage.

Before the destruction of this city by the French, the imperial chamber was held here; and in 1529, a diet was held in this city that was peculiarly remarkable, as having given rise to the name of Protestants.

Philipsburg was at first a small town called Udenheim; but lying conveniently for commanding the adjacent country, Philip, bishop of Spire, chose it for his residence, fortified it with seven royal bastions, and at length gave it his own name. But the combined electors and princes, particularly Frederic V. elector Palatine, as superior, with the margrave of Baden-Durlach, suspecting the bishop's design in fortifying this place, ordered him to desist; but he refused, alledging, that he had the emperor's placart to warrant what he had done. Upon which these princes agreed at an assembly summoned at Heilbrun, to send thither four thousand horse and foot, with twelve hundred pioniers, and the necessary artillery, who on the fifteenth of June 1618, demanded and took possession of the place, and upon this razed all its fortifications; for which the emperor summoned these princes before the chamber of Spire, and designed to proceed against them with the utmost severity. This was one of the causes of the thirty years civil war in Germany.

This city has suffered seven memorable sieges in the space of an hundred years, and its works have at different times been greatly increased; particularly Lewis XIV. of France in 1666, extended its fortifications to the Rhine, which lies a quarter of a league from the town, and over the great gate caused an inscription to be put up, "That this fortress he strengthened as a monument of his own valour, and of the recovery of the liberty of the Germans, for the terror of his enemies, the support of his allies, and the security of the French;" concluding with these words, "What he shuts no man opens, and what he opens no man shuts." But in 1678, it was retaken by the Imperialists, when the emperor ordered that inscription to be erased, and another to be put up, "That Leopold, the emperor, having undertaken a necessary war, took this fortress by siege, that it might be a monument to posterity of his breaking off the yoke of slavery from the neck of Liberty," concluding with "What the French shut, the Germans open." The Germans having thus regained it after a siege of four months, it was granted them by the peace of Nimeguen. But in 1688, the French retook it, and it was restored to the empire by the treaty of Ryswic in 1697, with its fortifications on the right side; but those on the left, together with the bridge, were demolished. This place was taken again by the French in 1734, after a long and bloody siege, in which the famous duke of Berwick, natural son to king James II. was killed by a cannon ball, between his two grandsons, as he went to take a view of the trenches; but it was restored in 1739.

The town belongs to the bishop of Spire, who has an office here; but it is considered as a fortress of the empire, and has a governor and commandant appointed by it. The castle, which is the residence of the bishop of Spire, is said to be a noble pile which stands in a plain surrounded with marshes; but the town is much fallen to decay.

SECT. III.

The Bishopric of FULDA.

Its Situation, Extent, and Rivers. The Religion of the Inhabitants. The Titles, Arms, and Prerogatives of the Bishop; with a Description of the City of Fulda.

FULDA is surrounded by Hesse, the counties of Isenburg and Hanau, the bishopric of Wurtzburg, and the princely county of Henneburg, extending in its greatest length sixty-two miles, and in its greatest breadth upwards of forty-seven miles.

It is a mountainous and woody country; but has rich arable lands, and salt springs. Its principal rivers are the Fulda, which rises here, and the Sala, which issues out of the territory of Wurtzburg.

It contains sixty parish, and ninety-four filial churches, among which nine of the parish, and a few of the filial churches are Lutheran; but the rest popish.

The title of the bishop of Fulda runs thus, Bishop and abbot of Fulda, prince of the holy Roman empire, arch-chancellor of the reigning Roman empress, primate of all Germany and Gaul.

The arms of Fulda are a black cross, in a field argent.

The bishop and abbot has a seat and voice in the council of the princes of the empire, and is also a member of the circle of the Upper Rhine. The high chapter consists of fifteen persons, and the high college is composed of the regency and the feudal court, the spiritual vicarship, and the aulic chamber.

The bishop, who is subordinate to the pope alone, has four great officers of state, rich equipages, a magnificent household, a company of horse guards well clothed and mounted, and a regiment of foot guards.

This bishopric is divided into twenty little bailiwicks, the principal place in which is,

Fulda, the capital and residentiary town of the bishopric, is seated on the river Fulda, and owes its original to the abbey, near which was at first a village, which being enlarged, was about the year 1162, surrounded with walls, and erected into a town. It has a royal palace built with free-stone, and the principal church is dedicated to Christ. The collegiate church of St. Boniface was antiently called the parish church of St. Blaise; but in the year 1650, the chapter of St. Boniface, which till that time had continued at Great Borsla, was translated to Fulda; it has also a college of Jesuits, with a gymnasium and papal seminary, a nunnery of Benedictines, and an university founded by the bishop in the year 1734.

SECT. IV.

The Landgravate of HESSE.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. Of the Diets of the Country, the Prerogatives of the Houses of Hesse-Cassel and Hesse-Darmstadt; their Titles, Arms, public Offices, and Courts, Revenues, Forces, and principal Towns.

THE landgravate of Hesse terminates on the bishopric of Fulda, the principality of Hersfeld, Thuringia, and Eichsfeld, as also on that of Calenberg, the bishoprics of Paderborn and Waldec, and the dutchy of Westphalia. This landgravate is above ninety-five miles in length.

The country is for the most part hilly and woody; but has pleasant valleys, and is interspersed with good corn and pasture-lands. It also produces plenty of excellent wine, and particularly abounds in cattle. With respect to minerals, silver, copper, lead, and iron are at present found in great quantities in this country; as also allum, vitriol, pit-coal, sulphur, boles, a porcelain earth, marble, and alabaster. It has likewise salt springs, baths, and mineral waters, with an uncommon plenty of game and fish.

With

With respect to the rivers, the principal are the Rhine and the Maine, with the Lahn, or Lahn, which after being joined by many smaller streams, falls into the Rhine: the Fulda, which proceeds from the bishopric of that name, and falls into the Werra; and the Diemel, which runs into the Weser.

The states of Hesse-Cassel consist first of the prelates, these are composed of the commandery of the Teutonic order for Hesse, at Marburg: of the rector and senate of the university of Marburg: of the four provosts of the canonries of Künffungen and Wetter, and the governors of several hospitals. The other parts of which the states are composed, are the nobility, who are distinguished by the five rivers Lahn, Schwalm, Fulda, Werra, and Diemel: and lastly, the towns, which are also divided according to the countries lying on these five rivers, in each of which is a summoning town that sends two representatives to the general and particular diets; but the other towns assist at them only in turns, according to a settled rotation.

In the diets of Hesse-Cassel and Hesse-Darmstadt presides the hereditary marshal. The sovereign of both houses may assemble at pleasure any particular diet, and then the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel sends orders throughout his whole country for them to appear by their deputies. Cassel is generally the place of assembly for those of Hesse-Cassel; but they sometimes meet at Treysa. The diets of Hesse-Darmstadt are invariably held at Gießen, and in both the sovereign is represented by a commissioner.

The house of Hesse-Cassel forms one of the states of the Calvinist religion, and that of Hesse-Darmstadt of the Lutheran; of the collateral lines Rothenburg is Popish, and Homburg and Philippsdale Protestants. It being known in the year 1754, that Frederic the hereditary prince of Hesse-Cassel had, in 1749, embraced the Romish religion, that prince voluntarily drew up and confirmed by oath an instrument declaring, that his present and future children should be brought up and instructed only in the Protestant religion; and that on his accession to the government, no manner of alteration should be made with respect to religion; but that he would preserve it in every particular as it then stood unmolested and entire.

In Hesse are two sovereign families, between whom all the Hessian territories are divided, namely, those of Cassel and Darmstadt; but many articles have continued in common, as, 1. The feudal power and investiture of the princes of Waldec, which has ever been performed in the name of both landgraves. 2. The joint-court of justice at Marburg, which has its judge and assessors, from whom, in processes of above a thousand guildens of gold, an appeal lies to the aulic-council; but if it exceeds only one hundred, to the court of revisions. 3. The court of revision, or appeals, held alternately six years at Marburg, and six at Gießen. 4. The portioning of the princesses, to which the subjects of both sovereigns contribute. 5. Both sovereigns have arbitrators, which are chosen in disputes between them, and to whose verdicts they submit.

Their titles are also nearly the same; as landgrave of Hesse, prince of Hersfeld, count Katzenellenbogen, Dietz, Ziegenhayn, Nidda, and Schomberg; to which Hesse-Cassel adds Hanau and Hesse-Darmstadt, Isenburg, and Budingen.

The arms of Hesse are a shield twice longitudinally divided, and three times transversely, with a scutcheon of pretence azure, the Hessian lion argent, and three diadems gules. In the first dexter shield argent, is a patriarchal cross gules, for the principality of Hersfeld. In the second shield, party per fesse, sable and or, with a star argent, for the county of Ziegenhayn. The third field has a lion rampant gules, crowned azure, for Katzenellenbogen. The fourth field gules, two lions passant or, for the county of Dietz. The fifth field party per fesse, or and sable, two stars with eight points argent, for the county of Nidda. The sixth field party per bend, gules and argent, within a nettle leaf on three segments, in each of which is a carnation argent, for Schomberg.

The landgrave William added the Hanau shield, which is quarterly; in the first and fourth fields or, three chevrons gules, for the county of Hanau; but in the second

and third field or, three bends gules, for the county of Reineck; likewise a scutcheon of pretence party per fesse, or and argent, for the lordship of Munzenberg. The landgraves of Hesse-Darmstadt also add to the arms of Isenburg and Budingen a shield argent, two bendlets sable. The two collateral princes of Hesse-Cassel bear the Hessian shield alone; but those of the line of Darmstadt add to it the arms of Isenburg.

Both Hesse-Cassel and Hesse-Darmstadt have a privy-council. In the former are two regencies, viz. one at Cassel for Lower Hesse, and the other at Marburg. In Hesse-Darmstadt are also the same number, one at Gießen and one at Darmstadt.

With respect to the courts at law, there are the joint-court of justice held at Marburg; besides which ecclesiastical and matrimonial cases come before the two consistories of Hesse-Cassel, held at Cassel and Marburg; and those for Hesse-Darmstadt at Gießen and Darmstadt. For the trial of noblemen, or persons of eminence guilty of any great crime, a particular criminal court, if desired, is erected.

With respect to the taxes, ordinary and extraordinary, the country seats of the nobility, with the lands and effects belonging to the clergy and the schools, are exempt from the ordinary taxes; but with regard to the extraordinary ones, the four hospitals, with the tenants and lands of the priests and schools, are excepted. The provincial chest is under the management of four receivers-general, who enjoy their office for life, and these nominate the collectors. The annual revenue of the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel is computed by some authors at a hundred and twenty thousand pounds a year, and that of Hesse-Darmstadt at about half this sum.

Cassel and Darmstadt have each their war-office, and the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel constantly keeps on foot twelve battalions and eight squadrons, with a troop of hussars and three hundred matrosses. Hesse-Darmstadt maintains a body of horse guards, two squadrons of dragoons, and four battalions of regular militia.

The principal city belonging to the sovereign-house of Hesse-Cassel is the city of Cassel, which is seated on the river Fulda, and flows between the Old and New Town, in the fifty-first degree eighteen minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree thirty-eight minutes east longitude, and has a stone-bridge erected over the river. The Old Town, which is the largest and most considerable, forms a semicircle on a hill, and, like the Lower New Town, is old-fashioned; but the French, or Upper New Town, is very regular and handsome; and between it and the Old Town lies the esplanade, which is delightfully planted with rows of trees. The palace of the prince is of free-stone and very handsome both within and without; it stands in the Old Town, on the banks of the Fulda, but is a distinct fortification. In the Lyceum is an anatomical theatre, a museum, a *collegium Carolinum*, a cabinet of antiques and natural curiosities, and an observatory well furnished with instruments. Over the stable is the sovereign's library. As all the public offices meet here, the building designed for their use is a noble piece of architecture. The arsenal is of free-stone, and contains arms for twenty-five thousand men, and in the room under it are two hundred cannon; it has a foundery, which stands at a small distance. In the French New Town the landgrave William VIII. has added to the house in which he formerly lived, a fine gallery of paintings. In this Upper New Town is also a beautiful church; but the principal church in Cassel is that of St. Martin's abbey in the Old Town, in which lies the burial-place of the princes, and near it is a public Latin school. In the Old Town are likewise two churches, one of which belongs to the garrison; and on the ramparts a third belonging to the Lutherans, the first stone of which was laid in the year 1734. The way from the palace-bridge over the lesser Fulda leads to the prince's flower-garden, near which is a large green-house, and an elegant marble bath. In the center of the garden is a spacious basin, in the midst of which is a beautiful mount. This delightful place is surrounded by the Great and Little Fulda.

At Cassel are manufactures of cloth, stuffs, gold-lace, hats, silk and worsted stockings, and other commodities.

The pleasure-houses belonging to the prince are Freyenhagen, which lies at the end of a road leading from Cassel, planted on each side with trees: Weiffenstein-house, also near Cassel; and at a small distance from it is Carlsberg, where is an admirable cascade, begun by the landgrave Charles. On each side are eight hundred steps leading up a hill, and at the top is a grand pyramid of huge stones arranged in a transverse and vertical position, and surmounted by a Hercules of copper thirty feet high. The prospect here is inexpressibly fine. The cascade has four platforms, with a spacious basin in each. Near the upper basin is a splendid grotto of large rough hewn-stones, that look as if only placed upon each other without cement. In the second is a rock consisting of heaps of stones disposed in a most beautiful confusion, and under it a giant lying on his back, and ejecting a stream of water six inches in diameter, to the height of forty feet; while the crystalline water falling nearly perpendicular, winds through apertures which are almost imperceptible in innumerable meanders. The descent of the cascade on each side the basin consists entirely of large square stones, over which the water runs about an inch in depth, and a little way forward over a thin sheet of lead about three inches broad, precipitating itself from one platform-stone to another, and having the appearance of crystalline mirrors; but by a spectator standing at the bottom, the brilliancy, when the sun plays his beams upon it, cannot be viewed without admiration. The water for this work is brought from several streams up the mountain, and collected in a reservoir one hundred feet deep, and of considerable extent.

Marburg, or Marburg, the capital of Upper Hesse, is seated on a hill near the river Lahn, in the fiftieth degree forty-four minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree fifty-three minutes east longitude; and above it is a fortified castle that was once the residence of the landgrave of Hesse. Besides the sovereign courts and public offices, it has an academy for classical learning, with three churches, one of which is French, and the Lutheran church of St. Elizabeth, in which it is pretended that saint lies interred. Her monument is plated over with silver gilt, adorned with a profusion of pearls. In this church have also been buried several of the landgraves of Hesse. The German-house is the residence of the provincial commander of the Teutonic order for Hesse, and the commander of Marburg; and near it stands Elizabeth's hospital, the care of which St. Elizabeth, they say, recommended to the above order. The provincial commander, by the convention of Cassel, is chosen alternately from each of the three religions. The prince of Hesse has a fine stud of horses here.

Marburg has been twice destroyed by fire, and in 1529 a solemn but fruitless conference was held here between Luther and Melancthon on the one side, and Zuinglius and Oecolampadius on the other. Towards the close of the year 1645, and the beginning of 1646, this town and castle were taken, after a furious cannonading, by the troops of Cassel, which the princess Amelia Elizabeth, at that time regent of Cassel, sent against it.

Gießen is a fortified town on the river Lahn, and has an old castle and arsenal. In this town, alternately with Marburg, is held the joint court of appeals: it is likewise the seat of the regency, a consistory and superintendency, and has also a Lutheran university founded here in 1607, a classical academy, and two churches. It is subject to the house of Hesse-Darmstadt, and is defended by a strong wall and regular fortifications.

Darmstadt is seated on a river of the same name, in a fruitful and pleasant country, and has a very stately palace belonging to that branch of the Hessian house to which it gives name. It has also a regency, a court of appeals, a consistory, and a grammar-school, and in the church are the vaults of the princely family. It is encompassed with a wall, and has several suburbs, near which is an orphan-house.

Homburg, a town subject to the house of Hesse-Homburg, by whom it was built, and inhabited by two French colonies, contains a palace in which that prince resides. Both the Lutherans and Calvinists here enjoy the public exercise of their religion. The landgrave

Frederic II. has added a handsome new town, in which an orphan-house and alms-house have been erected by the prince, who is proprietor of three prefectures in the territories of Magdeburg and the Halberstadt, exclusive of other personal rights and revenues.

SECT. V.

The County of WALDEC.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce. The Religion and Manufactures of the Country. The Titles and Offices of the Prince, and a Description of the principal Towns.

THE county of Waldec is bounded on the north by the diocese of Paderborn; to the eastward by Hesse, and the electorate of Mentz; to the southward also by Hesse; and to the westward by the dutchy of Westphalia; extending, according to Dr. Busching, about twenty-eight miles in length, and twenty-three in breadth.

This country abounds in grain and cattle. It has also large woods, and the mountains contain iron, lead, copper, and even some gold, which is esteemed equal in value to that of Hungary. Of the gold gathered out of the Eder the prince has caused medals to be struck, and a magnificent side-board of plate to be made. Some parts also afford alabaster, marble, and slate.

This country contains thirteen towns and a market village. The states are composed of the nobility and towns. It is only on extraordinary occasions that the whole body of the states are convened; for on ordinary occasions, none meet but the nobility and the representatives of the three deputy towns.

The greatest part of the inhabitants are Lutherans, and the rest Calvinists, except a few who are of the popish religion.

The manufactures of this country are coarse cloth, barragons, calamancos, dimity, ratine, and other stuffs; paper, and great quantities of hard-ware.

The titles of the Waldec family are, Prince of the sacred Roman empire, count of Pymont and Rappolstein, lord of Hoheneck and Gerolseck, &c.

The prince of Waldec has not yet obtained a seat and vote in the college of princes; but enjoys a seat at the diet of the circle of the Upper Rhine.

The prince has a privy-council and court of siefs, a regency, a chamber of finances, a forest court, and a court of law. The two last courts are composed of the same members, who also, in conjunction with the general, and one superintendant, form the consistory. From the court of law an appeal lies to the chancery. Over the prefectures preside four judges, who are subordinate to a rural chief justice.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Corbach, the capital, and the first of the three deputy towns, is also the seat of the high court of justice, and consists of the Old and New Town, each of which has its church. In that belonging to the New Town is a most stately monument of marble and alabaster, that takes up one side of the choir, and was erected by the republic of the United Provinces to George Frederic of Waldec, who was field-marshal of their forces. In the New Town is also a gymnasium of six classes, and seven masters.

Wildungen, a town seated on a hill, and the second deputy town, is both larger and better built than Old Wildungen; it has a Latin school, containing five classes, and an orphan-house. In the choir belonging to the church, the republic of Venice here erected a fine monument of alabaster to the memory of Josias prince of Waldec, who commanded their armies with great reputation.

Arolsen, a regular built, thriving town, seated near the river Aars. The prince's palace, of which prince Frederic Anthony Ulric was himself architect, makes a grand appearance. All the above-mentioned offices and colleges, except the chief court of justice, are held here. Besides the Lutheran church, the Calvinists and Romans have also theirs. This town stands at the end of a noble

ble avenue, formed by six rows of trees, two thousand paces in length.

S E C T. VI.

Of the County of HANAU.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Rivers; the Religion of the Inhabitants; with a Description of the City of Hanau.

HANAU is encompassed by the electorate of Mentz, the diocese of Fulda, with the territories of Hesse and Francfort; extending about forty-two miles in length; but some parts of it lie separate.

The soil is remarkably fertile in corn, wine, fruit, and vegetables, all which are excellent in their several kinds. It has also a silver and a copper mine, both of which are very rich, and likewise some cobalt-works and salt-pans. Great advantage is likewise made of the woods.

This country lies chiefly on the Maine, into which run all the smaller rivers by which it is watered. Among these the chief are the Kinzig and the Nidda, the latter of which is joined by the Nidder.

In the sixteenth century the inhabitants embraced Lutheranism; but in 1594, count Philip Lewis introduced the opinions of Calvin, which have prevailed, though there are still some Lutherans and persons of the Romish church, who are permitted the free exercise of their religion. Trade and manufactures flourish here, particularly in the city of Hanau.

The ruling count of Hanau-Munzenberg was a member of the college of the imperial counts of the Wetterau; but the landgrave William VI. separated himself from them, and in 1741 also from the circle of the Upper Rhine. The income arising to the last count of Hanau from his several territories, is said to have amounted to above five hundred thousand florins.

In this county are five towns and ninety-six villages, the principal place in which is the following.

Hanau, the capital of the county, is seated in a large plain on the river Kinzig, near the place where it runs into the Maine, and is composed of the Old and New Town, both of which are fortified. The Old Town which from time immemorial has belonged to the Hanau family, is ill built; but the palace called the Burg makes a good appearance, and has a fine flower-garden. Both the Lutherans and Calvinists have their particular church, and here is an university built by count Philip Lewis. The Jews dwell in a particular quarter, and are allowed schools. To this Old Town belongs a large suburb.

The New Town is not only of greater extent, but the streets are straight, broad, and clean; most of the houses on both sides are very regularly built; and it comes very near the Dutch towns in neatness. The streets terminate in a grand square in the centre of the town, where the public markets are kept. At each of the four corners of this square is a well of tolerable depth, walled round with marble, and adorned with some foliage and iron-work, on the top of which is a large lamp, that is lighted every evening. The church in which they preach both in Flemish and French is but one edifice, divided by a wall from top to bottom into two separate apartments. The gallery in the French part is very spacious, and is an amphitheatre supported by twelve columns of red stone upon which the roof rests, and the ceiling is of stucco, very well adorned. The Catholics have no church here; but perform their devotions at a village seated about a mile from Hanau.

The New Town was built in the year 1597, by the Walloons, or Flemish refugees, who enjoy extraordinary privileges; they have their own magistrates, and the disposal of all the town offices, which the members of the French and Dutch congregations can alone possess, though at present the German Calvinists constitute one half of the inhabitants, and the Lutherans a fourth. Here are several woollen manufactures, particularly of grograms, stockings, both silk and worsted, linen and porcelain. Hanau is more particularly famous for the great quantities of roll tobacco made up here; wax-

bleaching is also carried on in this city; but the greatest article in its imports is timber, which is brought down the Maine to this city, as is also rough and cast iron, corn, and meal.

In the neighbourhood of Hanau is Philipstruhe, a beautiful seat near the village of Kesselstadt on the Maine. It was built by count Philip Reinhard; but received very great improvements from count John Reinhard, his brother and successor.

S E C T. VII.

Of the free Imperial Cities of Francfort, Friedberg, and Wetzlar.

FRANCFORT, or Frankfort on the Maine, the usual place of the election and coronation of the kings of the Romans; also the place where the states of the Rhenish circles meet, and a celebrated Hans-town, is situated in the fiftieth degree sixteen minutes north latitude, and in the seventh degree thirty-six minutes east longitude, seventeen miles to the westward of Hanau, in a delightful, healthy, and fertile country along the Maine, by which it is divided into two parts, distinguished by the names of Francfort and Saxenhausen. The former of these being the largest, is divided into twelve wards; and the latter into two, and both are reckoned to contain about three thousand houses. The fortifications, which are both regular and solid, form a decagon, or figure consisting of ten bastions, faced with hewn stone, the ditches are deep and filled with fresh water, and all the out-works are placed before the gates. There are, however, few cannon on the works. At Saxenhausen there is little worth notice, except its fortifications, which are tolerably good. There is in particular a large horn-work, a ditch full of water, and a covert-way very judiciously contrived, ranging on the head of the ditch, which must be passed in order to go to Saxenhausen on the land side. There are six bastions in all; but they are very irregular.

The town-house of Francfort is a vast building worth seeing. The hall where the emperor is chosen is not very large; but it is adorned with pictures, among which are one of Esther and Ahasuerus: the figures are clothed according to the mode about one hundred and fifty years ago; that is, with fardingales, ruffs, doublets, &c. Here is likewise the history of Susannah and the two Elders; that of Dionysius the tyrant and his favourite Damocles, with a noble repast before him, which he does not touch for fear of a sword that hangs by a slender thread directly over his head; Sesostris king of Egypt, with his chariot drawn by captive kings; Eginhard, secretary to Charlemagne, and Emma his spouse, that emperor's daughter; Scipio Africanus restoring a young captive princess inviolate to her bridegroom; and Bathsheba in the bath.

The fore part of this structure is supported by arches, under which during the fair of Francfort are toy-shops of all kinds and over these arches is a hall, where the emperor usually dines after his coronation, and into which opens the chamber where the election of the new emperor is canvassed. In the above hall the emperor eats at a table by himself, and the electors have also their separate tables. The floor is covered with black and yellow cloth, the livery of the house of Austria, and upon the ceiling is painted the story of Ganymede carried away by Jupiter's eagle; and the history of a false witness who had accused a person of murder; but when he had confirmed his evidence by an oath, a large raven, it is said, having forced his way through one of the windows of this hall, perched on the villain's head, and tore out his eyes with his beak; on which the miscreant being touched with remorse, confessed his crime, and had his head struck off.

In the back part of this structure are the city offices, and the diet chamber of the circle of the Upper Rhine, as likewise that of the dictature of the circle. Among the archives of the town-house is kept the celebrated golden bull of the emperor Charles IV. which is a parchment book of forty-three quarto leaves, containing the

fundamental institutes of the empire written in Latin with capital letters. This famous piece is, according to some authors, kept in a gold casket: but Mr. Keyser says, it is in a tortoise-shell snuff-box set with mother of pearl, and lined with yellow velvet; and that the book is very much soiled.

The cathedral of St. Bartholomew is a large building, but there are only two or three things that render it worthy of notice. The first is a small, long, and narrow chapel, which is dark and without any ornaments, except the red cloth with which it is hung near the altar in that part where the electors or their representative sit. This altar is very mean for so celebrated a place, and the seats on which the electors sit, when they choose an emperor, are benches of very common wood placed against the walls. The other thing that deserves notice is a chapel, to which the elected emperor is conducted, in order to be crowned by the elector of Mentz, and is nothing more than an iron cloister, without any ornament, joined to the balustrade of the choir, and has some resemblance to a parrot's cage. The altar in it has no other ornament than a brass crucifix of very indifferent workmanship.

The above places attract the attention of travellers on account of the important business performed in them; but the curious clock in this cathedral, which consists of three parts or divisions, is perhaps more worthy of notice. In the lowest, which resembles a calendar, are several circles, the first of which shews the day and month; the second the golden number, with the age and change of the moon; and the third the dominical letter. The fourth and fifth circles represent the ancient Roman calendar. On the sixth are the names of the apostles and martyrs, the length of the days and nights, and the entrance of the sun into the twelve signs of the zodiac. The seventh and eighth circles exhibit the hours and minutes when the sun rises and sets. In the other circles within these are the divisions of the twelve signs of the zodiac, the four seasons, the moveable feasts, &c. The figures which strike the hours represent two smiths with hammers in their hands. This curious piece of clock-work was put up in the year 1605, and repaired for the first time in 1704.

This cathedral belongs to the Catholics, though most of the inhabitants are Lutherans. It is said to have been built by Pepin, king of France, and greatly enriched by his son Charlemagne; but the emperor Lewis of Bavaria took away the greatest part of its revenues, to punish the chapter, who had sided with the pope against him.

The churches of St. Leonard and Our Lady are both collegiate. In the church of the Predicants are two altars, standing opposite to each other, which are decorated with two pieces of painting by Albert Durer. One of them represents our Saviour's Ascension, and the other the Assumption of the Virgin Mary: but the latter is only a copy, the original having fallen into the elector of Bavaria's hands. There is here also a convent, with a church of the order of St. John; together with others belonging to the Carmelites, Dominicans, Capuchins, and two Romish chapels.

The Lutheran churches and convents are the Great church; that of St. Catharine, where, in 1522, the first Lutheran sermon was preached, and to which is annexed a nunnery of ladies of noble birth; the church of the White Women, so called from the convent belonging to it instituted for ladies, and other young women of high birth; St. Peter's church; together with the chapel of the Glauburg; the hospital church; St. Nicholas's church; as also the church in Saxenhausen.

Here is likewise a seminary of divines founded by Dr. Pridius, and completed by Dr. Munden; and a Lutheran gymnasium, which consists of seven classes, and stands contiguous to the church of the Bare-footed friars, and in it is the city library. The alms, orphan, and work-house is a well contrived building under good regulations, that are strictly executed. The hospital of the Holy Ghost is one of the wealthiest foundations in the whole city.

Frankfort is of a circular form, without any suburbs; but the streets are generally narrow, and the houses are mostly built of timber and plaister, and covered with slate;

but there are some handsome private structures of a kind of red marble that justly deserve the name of palaces; as the buildings called the Compestel and Fronhof, the Trierhof, the Cullenhof, the German-house, an august edifice situated near the bridge over the Maine, the Hesse-Darmstadthof, the palace of the prince de la Tours, and the houses of the counts of Solms, Schauenberg, and Schonborn; and there are three principal squares.

The bridge which forms the communication between Frankfort and Saxenhausen is four hundred and fifty paces in length; and over a gate as you enter upon it is a Latin inscription in gold letters to the following purpose: "In the reign of Leopold I. the most august emperor of the Romans and Germany, king of Hungary and Bohemia, the true father of his country, under whose happy auspices the empire enjoys an uninterrupted prosperity, this fortified gate was repaired by the city of Frankfort." The Jews quarter consists of a very narrow street about an English mile in length, and extremely dirty. At each end of it is a gate, which is carefully shut every evening, and the keys carried to the magistrates. The houses are mostly four, five, or six stories high; but the apartments are extremely filthy. This quarter is said to contain three or four thousand persons; but, according to the Jews themselves, they amount to some thousands more. The principal commerce they carry on here is in buying and selling old goods, in going from inn to inn to sell toys to strangers, and in exchanging such money as is not current here. They are obliged, under severe penalties, to fetch water when a fire happens in any part of the city, however distant it may be from their quarter; and in return the magistracy permit them to choose twelve judges out of their own body for deciding the differences and quarrels that happen among them; but those who will not submit to their decisions, are allowed to appeal to the tribunals of the Lutherans. As to their dress, it is suitable to the filthiness of their dwellings. The men generally wear cloaks, that are extremely coarse and thread-bare, with flapped hats, old greasy ruffs, and thick pointed beards. Their women indeed are not quite so ragged and dirty as the men; they wear over their cloaths short cloaks of black crape, bound about their necks by clasps of gilt copper, and round their shoulders a border of tinsel about a foot broad, shining like gold. Their head-dress formerly resembled that of the Christian women; but the magistrates have obliged them to wear a coarse wrapper about their heads, ending at their forehead in two large horns about four fingers in breadth, one of which is covered with black gauze, and the other with a piece of lawn dyed blue. Girls are not permitted to enter the synagogue, and are distinguished from the married women by their head-dress, which is a piece of red taffety bordered with gold gauze. Many Jewesses wear earrings that represent the signs of their houses, or shops; as for instance, if a cat be the sign, the wife or girl of the house carries dangling at her ears two cats in miniature of copper gilt.

But though the Jewish worship and that of the Papists is tolerated in this city, and the latter in particular have many churches and convents; neither the French nor German Calvinists are permitted to have one place of religious worship within the walls, and are obliged to go every Sunday to Bockenheim, which lies about a league from the city in the territory of Hanau. The wealthy persons among them have frequently offered a large sum to the magistracy, for leave to assemble for public worship in Frankfort, were it in ever so mean a place; yet such is their unchristian partiality against their brother reformers, and such enemies are they to religious liberty, that this privilege has been obstinately refused them. However, Mr. Busching says, that it is thought they will at last be permitted to build a church just without the town. The number of coaches which generally go to the two churches at Bockenheim every Sunday amount to about two hundred and fifty, many wealthy persons in Frankfort being of the reformed church; and it is there a common saying, "That the Roman catholics have the churches, the Lutherans the magistracy, and the Calvinists the money."

Among

Among the natural curiosities at Francfort, that of the hazel-tree, mentioned by Mr. Keyser, is highly worthy of notice: it is to be seen in Mr. Hassel's garden in the city, and is mentioned in the Francfort Chronicles above two hundred years ago. "The lower part of its trunk," says that gentleman, is seven Francfort ells in circumference, that is, fifteen feet nine inches: its height is equal to that of the houses near it, and it still bears nuts every year. The shells of the nuts it produces are very thick; but the kernel has the same flavour as those of other nuts. The emperor Leopold dined twice under this tree. The soil of this garden, he adds, must be particularly favourable to hazel-trees; for though the adjacent ground yields only common shrubs, four hazel-trees planted within these fifteen years in Mr. Hassel's garden, are already above twenty feet high. These recruits are the more necessary, as the above-mentioned old tree begins to decay."

The fairs held at Francfort are famous all over Europe; and Mr. Keyser observes, that some merchants, who are competent judges, assured him, that ten millions of dollars would hardly purchase the merchandize exposed to sale at one of these fairs, the goods in the ware-houses and shops included. Of the manufactures carried on here, those of silk and porcelain are the most considerable.

This has always been an imperial city. In the diet it holds the sixth place among the imperial cities of the Rhine, and also votes in the diet of the Upper Rhine.

The magistracy here consists of a judge, the bench of schoffen or aldermen; the second bench of the council; together with the third, which is composed of artificers and tradesmen. The last is also summoned in affairs of general concern, and executes the offices relating to the police; but the direction of important affairs is lodged in the two former, out of whom the two burgomasters are annually chosen. Law-suits are here determined by the schoffens and syndics. The members of the consistory are two schoffen, the *senior ministerii*, the two eldest pastors, and two civilians. The territory belonging to the city contains a number of villages, seats, and farms; and the sides of the Maine are adorned with a vast number of gardens and vineyards, in which some of the vines are propped up by stakes, and others supported in the form of arbours; but the wines they produce are not very strong.

We shall now take notice of the imperial cities of Friedberg and Wetzlar.

The imperial city of Friedberg stands near the Ufbach, on a very fertile spot on the ridge of hills called the Hohe, and was formerly much larger than it is at present. This city enjoys the twelfth seat on the bench of the imperial towns of the Rhine. The magistracy, with the greatest part of the burghers, are Lutherans. It is governed by a burgrave and six nobles, who are members of the general council, and of that of the states; and when any affairs relating to the empire and circle come on the carpet, notice is given them of it by the magistracy, that they may jointly agree on the person to be deputed, and on the nature and extent of his powers.

The imperial town of Wetzlar is seated on the Lahn, near its confluence with the Wetzbach, and on the other side the Dill. The magistrates and most of the burgherans are Lutherans. Besides the cathedral, which the Protestants hold in common with the Catholics, they have a chapel, and a grammar-school in a building that was originally a Franciscan convent, and the church of the hospital of the Holy Ghost. The Catholics have not only the use of the cathedral, but a Franciscan convent, with a church, and a Jesuits college. The Calvinists have likewise a church here. In the town-house are held the meetings of the imperial-chamber, which in the year 1693 was removed hither from Spire.

Wetzlar was an imperial city so early as the days of the emperor Frederic I. and has the thirteenth bench of the imperial cities of the Rhine, and also a vote in the diets of the Upper Rhine.

S E C T. VIII.

Of the Dutchy of Deuxponts, and the Principality of Nassau. An Account of the Family of Nassau, and the Titles, Arms, and principal Places belonging to each of those Princes.

THE dutchy of Deuxponts, which is situated in the most southern part of the circle, is in general a mountainous barren country; yet is interspersed with some fertile valleys. It extends in its greatest length about forty miles, and from eight to twenty-five in breadth. It belongs to the duke of Deuxponts, whose annual revenue arising from this dutchy is computed at three hundred thousand florins.

Deuxponts, the capital of this dutchy, is called by the Germans Zweybrucken, and in Latin Bipontium, all which signify Two Bridges, a name which it received from its two bridges over the rivulets of Blise and Swolb, on which it stands; and this name it gave to the whole dutchy. It is situated in the forty-ninth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree thirty-one minutes east longitude. It is a small, but neat well-built town, and has a fine palace erected in the modern taste. Of the great church here, the Calvinists have the nave, and the Catholics the choir. The Lutherans have likewise a church, and in this town is also a gymnasium. During the thirty years war it suffered extremely, as it also did in 1677, when it was taken by the French.

In a vale at a small distance is Schuslic, a pleasure-house erected by Stanislaus, the dethroned king of Poland, during his residence at Deuxponts; but it is now gone to ruin.

The principality of Nassau, which we shall next describe, is bounded on the north by Westphalia, on the east by Solms, on the south by the bishopric of Mentz, and on the west by the electorate of Treves. The length of the whole principality is computed at fifty-seven miles, and its breadth at thirty-two.

Though it is for the most part mountainous and woody, it is not without fine arable and meadow land.

The founder of the present princes of Nassau was count Henry I. surnamed the Wealthy, who, in the thirteenth century, left to his two sons, Walram and Otho I. the county of Nassau, with its feudal, patrimonial, and hereditary lands.

With respect to the first line, William Henry, prince of Nassau-Usingen, left two sons, who were the founders of the two present ruling lines; namely, prince Charles, of the Nassau-Saarbruck-Usingen line, and prince William Henry, of that of Nassau-Saarbruck, who, on the twenty-third of September, 1735, agreed to a partition, by which the last gave to the former all the inherited and escheated land on this side the Rhine, and the former gave to the latter those lying on the other side of that river.

The only remaining line of the descendants of Otho is that of Nassau-Dillenburg-Dietz, which subsists in the prince of Orange, hereditary stadtholder of the United Provinces.

The titles of the prince of the elder line descended from Walram are, Prince of Nassau, count of Saarbruck and Saarwerden, and lord of Lahr-Wisbaden and Idstein.

His arms for Nassau are a lion, in a field azure, semée of billets or: for the county of Saarbruck, azure, a lion argent semée of crosslets argent: for the county of Saarwerden, sable, a spread-eagle argent: for Mors, or, a fesse sable: for Weilnau, or, two leopards passant gules: for Mehreinberg, verte, a saltier cross or, semée with crosslets or: for Mahlberg, or, a lion sable: for Lahr, or, on a fesse gules.

The titles of William V. prince of Orange, and stadtholder of the United Provinces, with respect to the territories of Nassau are: Prince of Nassau, count of Katzenelnbogen, Vianen, and Dietz, and lord of Beilstein. His arms for Nassau are, azure, a lion or, semée of billets or; for Katzenelnbogen, or, a lion rampant gules; for

Q q q

Vianen,

Vianen, or, a fesse argent; for Dietz, gules, two lions passant or.

The princes of the antient line of Walram have no seat or voice in the college of princes; but have five votes at the diet of the circle of the Upper Rhine. The princes of the younger branch acquired a seat and vote in the college of princes in 1659, and have two other votes, both which are inherent in the stadtholder of the United Netherlands, who has also two votes in the diet of Westphalia.

The county of Nassau-Dietz lies on the river Lahn, and was formerly called the Golden Country, on account of its fertility, and consists of nine prefectures, the principal places in which are the following:

Dietz, the capital of a prefecture of the same name, is seated on the Lahn, over which it has a bridge of stone, and is divided into the Old and New Town. The prince has a palace here which stands on a hill. The Calvinists have two churches here, and the Lutherans one. At a small distance from the town is Oranienstein, a seat belonging to the prince seated on the Lahn.

Weilburg, a handsome town which stands on an eminence by the river Lahn, over which it has a bridge of stone. The prince's palace here contains some very elegant apartments, with a fine garden belonging to it, and a magnificent chapel. All the roads near the town form beautiful vistas, they being laid out in a direct line, and each planted on both sides with a row of trees. In the neighbourhood is a large menagerie, with a pleasure-house.

In the country belonging to Nassau-Saarbruck-Ufingen is Wisbaden, a handsome, populous, and thriving town, seated in the lordship of the same name, and in a good wine country. The prince's palace in this place was built in the beginning of the present century. The warm baths here were known to the antient Romans, and are still famous. This town suffered greatly in the wars of the seventeenth century; but has been since considerably improved by prince George Augustus.

The prince of Nassau-Ufingen has a beautiful seat in the village of Biberich, which is situated on the Rhine: it was erected by prince George Augustus, and embellished by prince Charles: the building is large and magnificent, and stands in a delightful situation.

The lands belonging to Nassau-Saarbruck, are situated between Lorrain, which lies to the west, and Deux-ponts to the east; but though it is for the most part sandy and woody, it abounds in iron and pit-coal, and the soil in some places produces good corn.

Saarbruck, the capital of this little district, lies on the river Saar. It was set on fire, and its walls destroyed by the Imperialists, on their recovering it from the French in 1676; but was again rebuilt, and at present consists of about two hundred houses, with a Lutheran and Calvinist church. The prince's palace in this place was erected by prince William Henry. Opposite to this town on the other side of the river is St. Johann, with which it has a communication by means of a bridge. It is equal to Saarbruck in extent, and is defended by a rampart and moat. The Catholics are in the possession of the old church, and since the year 1727, a new one has been erected for the Lutherans.

SECT. IX.

Of the Principality of Hersfeld, the Counties of Solms, Upper Isenburg, and Witgenstein; the Lordship of Westburg, and the other small States in the Circle of the Upper Rhine.

BESIDES the countries already described in the circle of the Upper Rhine, there are a considerable number of others, most of which are very small and inconsiderable, and are only remarkable for having a seat and voice in the college of princes, and in the diets of this circle.

One of the chief of these is the principality of Hersfeld, or Hirschfeld, which borders on Upper and Lower Hesse, and is about twelve miles long, and the same in breadth. It is subject to the house of Hesse Cassel, who

on that account have an additional vote in the college of princes, and at the diet of the circle of the Upper Rhine.

Hersfeld, its capital, is seated on the Fulda, forty miles to the south of Cassel, and is a neat but small city, in which is a palace, a cathedral, a town church, a seminary, and a wealthy hospital.

The county of Solms is chiefly situated on both sides the Lahn, and borders on the territories of Hesse and Nassau, and the district of the city of Wetzlar. It abounds in corn and cattle, and has many iron mines, which employ several founderies and other works.

The counts of Solms, which are supposed to be a branch of the family of Nassau, are divided into the two principal branches, that of Solms-Braunsfels, and that of Solms-Lich, each of whom has the following title, Lord of Munzenberg, Wildenfels, Sonnenwald, &c. and their arms are, for Solms, or, a lion azure; for Munzenberg, party per fesse or and gules; for Wildenfels, sable, a lion argent.

The counts of Solms have four votes in the college of the imperial counts of Wetteravia, and a like number in the diet of the circle of the Upper Rhine.

The principal place in the whole county is Braunsfels, which is seated on a hill, where is a handsome castle or palace belonging to the prince, fortified after the antient manner, and is a place of great strength. It contains within it a church that also serves the inhabitants of the town, which stands on the outside. Both the castle and town are supplied with water by works erected at the foot of the hill. In the seventh century this town was twice destroyed by fire.

Upper Isenburg is thus called to distinguish it from the county of Lower Isenburg, in the Palatinate, and properly consists of the lordship of Bidingen. It is a fine corn-country, that has also some considerable woods, pastures, and vineyards; and is watered by several little streams, as the Kinzig, the Semen, and the Nidder.

The four princes of the house of Isenburg govern different parts of this country, and sit in the college of the imperial counts of Wetteravia, and in the diets of the circle of the Upper Rhine.

The principal places in this county are the two following:

Offenbach on the Maine, a small town, which contains a palace, a German Calvinist, a French Calvinist, and a Lutheran church; and has several flourishing manufactures.

Bidingen, though a small town, is the capital of the whole country. The palace here has a fine parterre, contiguous to which is an orphan-house, in which a woollen manufacture is carried on. Here is also a free-school.

The county of Witgenstein is nineteen miles in length, and its greatest breadth is somewhat above thirteen. It borders on Hesse-Darmstadt, the principality of Nassau-Dillenburg, and the dutchy of Westphalia. Some parts of it are very mountainous, but yield plenty of wood, with mines of silver, copper, and iron. It has good pastures; but produces little grain, except oats.

This county is divided between the two houses of Sayn-Witgenstein of Witgenstein, and Sayn-Witgenstein of Berleburg. Each house has a distinct vote both in the college of the counts of the empire, the diet of the Upper Rhine, and the college of Wetteravia. The joint revenue of these counts is computed at fifty thousand rix-dollars a year.

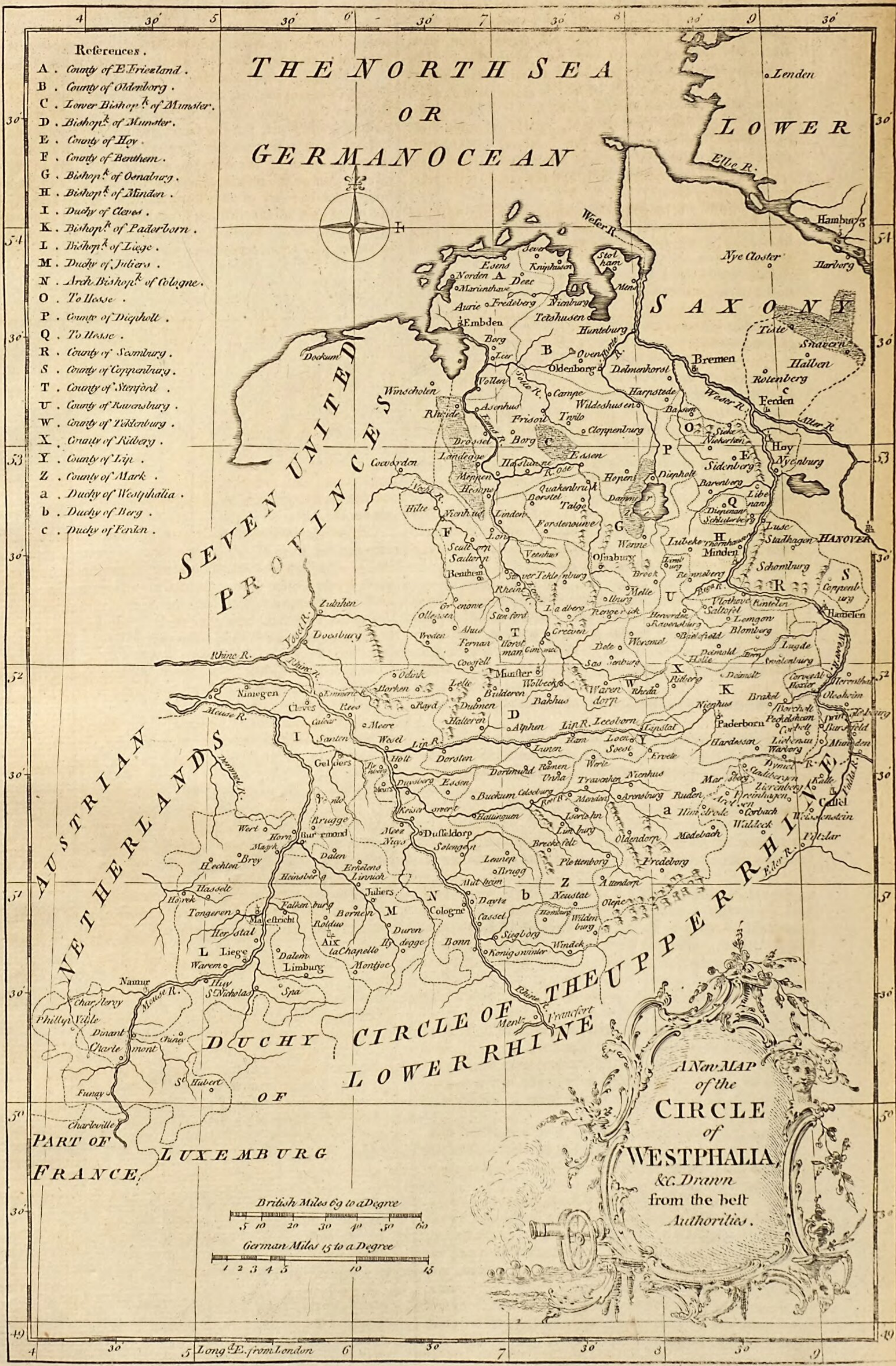
The principal places in this county belonging to each of the counts are the following:

Witgenstein, seated on a high mountain, and the patrimonial-house of the antient counts of Witgenstein, and where those of Sayn-Witgenstein still reside.

Berleburg, a small town seated on the little river Berlen, near the place where it falls into the Eder. In this town is a fine palace, and two other houses belonging to the count.

There are also the counties of Falkenstein and Wartemberg, whose counts enjoy the same privileges; but as they have no towns worthy of notice, we shall not trouble our readers with a dry description of these small districts.

The



References.

- A. County of E. Friesland.
- B. County of Oldenburg.
- C. Lower Bishop^r of Munster.
- D. Bishop^r of Munster.
- E. County of Hoy.
- F. County of Bentheim.
- G. Bishop^r of Osnaburg.
- H. Bishop^r of Minden.
- I. Duchy of Cleves.
- K. Bishop^r of Paderborn.
- L. Bishop^r of Liege.
- M. Duchy of Juliers.
- N. Arch Bishop^r of Cologne.
- O. To Hesse.
- P. County of Diepholt.
- Q. To Hesse.
- R. County of Schaumburg.
- S. County of Coppenburg.
- T. County of Stenford.
- U. County of Ravensburg.
- W. County of Teckenburg.
- X. County of Ribberg.
- Y. County of Lippe.
- Z. County of Mark.
- a. Duchy of Westphalia.
- b. Duchy of Berg.
- c. Duchy of Fentlen.

THE NORTH SEA
OR
GERMAN OCEAN

AUSTRIAN
NETHERLANDS

SAXONY

RHINE

CIRCLE OF THE UPPER
LOWER RHINE

DUCHY
OF
LUXEMBURG
PART OF
FRANCE

A New MAP
of the
CIRCLE
of
WESTPHALIA,
&c. Drawn
from the best
Authorities.

British Miles 69 to a Degree
German Miles 15 to a Degree

The lordship of Westerborg is a small territory seated between the electorate of Treves and the territory of Nassau, and contains fine pastures, and consequently sheep and horned cattle. It also produces barley, rye, oats, and pulse, with plenty of very fine earth-nuts. The woods are thinned, but it has a remarkable mine of what is called wood-coal, which is alone sufficient to furnish that neighbourhood with fuel. The colour, filaments, and twigs of this coal, nearly resemble those of wood, and the depth of the pit is about twenty feet. In this country are also deer and other game; the rivers abound with trout and cray-fish, and the ponds with pike, carp, and other kinds.

This lordship belongs to the counts of Westerborg, of which there are several branches: it only contains the little towns of Westburg and Waltersburg, and several villages.

There are also a few other lordships, as those of Kirchingen, Bratzenheim, &c. but they and some other little states are too inconsiderable to deserve a particular description in a work which has for its subject not a particular country, but the whole terraqueous globe.

The bishopric of Strasburg is also justly considered as a state of the empire, on account of a part of this bishopric lying in the Upper Circle of the Rhine; as is also the bishopric of Basil, for the same reason; and both these bishops have a seat on the spiritual bench of the council of the princes of the empire, and at the diets of this circle; but as the principal part of the bishopric of Strasburg, and the city of Strasburg itself, is in Alsace, and the chief part of the bishopric of Basil, with its capital, is in Switzerland, they will be more properly described in treating of those countries.

C H A P. XVIII.

The Circle of W E S T P H A L I A.

S E C T. I.

Of Westphalia in general; and first of the Bishopric of Paderborn. Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers: the Prerogatives of the Bishop. A Description of the City of Paderborn, and some remarkable Springs.

THE people who inhabit the country between the Weser and the Rhine were antiently called Westphalians, and from them that territory received the name of Westphalia; but the circle of Westphalia, which constitutes a part of that country, comprises in it other territories; and we ought carefully to distinguish between the circle of Westphalia, Westphalia itself, and the dutchy of that name.

This circle is surrounded by the Burgundian circle, the United Provinces, the Northern or German Sea, the Upper Rhenish, and the Electoral Rhenish circles; it being two hundred miles long, and between a hundred and fifty and two hundred broad.

Certain states were formerly reckoned in this circle, which at present no longer belong to it, as Utrecht, Guelders, and the bishopric of Cambray; in other respects also the antient and modern lists of the countries of the Westphalian circle differ greatly from each other. We shall include under it the bishoprics of Paderborn, Munster, Liege, and Osnabrug, the dutchy of Verden, the principality of Minden, the dutchy of Cleve, Juliers, and Berg, &c. the principalities of East Friesland and Mors, &c.

The summoning princes and directors of the circle are the bishop of Munster, and with him the electors of Brandenburg and the Palatinate, as dukes of Cleve and Juliers, both of whom, in this directory, enjoy together but one voice. The diets of the circle were usually appointed at Cologne; but none have been held since the year 1718. The archives belonging to it are kept at Dusseldorf.

With respect to religion, this circle is one of the mixed, and both the catholic and protestant states nominate two assessors, to assist at the imperial and chamber-court of the empire.

We shall begin this circle with the bishopric of Paderborn, which is bounded on the east by Hesse, and by the river Weser, which divides it from the principality of Calenberg; on the north by the county of Lippe; on the west by the counties of Rietberg and Lippe, and the dutchy of Westphalia; and on the south by the same, and the county of Waldec. Its greatest extent from east to west amounts to fifty-two miles, and from north to south about forty-two miles.

It is for the most part a very fertile country, and in particular produces a good breed of cattle. It has also

iron mines, salt and medicinal springs, with rivers that abound in fish; but it is most remarkable for its bacon and venison.

The Weser washes a small part of the country to the east, and the Diemel, after traversing a great part of the bishopric, discharges itself into it. The Bever and the Nette receive their source in this country, as does also the Great Hemmer, the Hee, the Niese, and other little streams, which fall into the Weser: the Lippe, which rises here, runs by Wesel into the Rhine. The other rivers are the Alme, the Pader, and the Ems.

In the whole bishopric are twenty-three towns, three boroughs, sixty-four parishes, and sixteen monasteries, all subject to the bishop.

The inhabitants are in general of the Romish religion; but there are many Lutherans among them, who frequent the churches of that persuasion in the neighbouring countries.

The bishop is a prince of the empire, and sits at the diets of the empire between the bishops of Hildesheim and Freylingen, and as a prelate is under the archbishop of Mentz. The episcopal chapter consists of twenty-four prelates and capitulars, who must be twenty-one years of age before they are admitted, and must prove their noble extraction four degrees backwards.

The revenues of this see, which is suffragan to Mentz, is thought to be about twenty-five or thirty thousand pounds.

The arms of the bishopric are, a cross or, in a field gules.

The high colleges here are the general-vicarship, the privy-council, the regency-chancery, the aulic-chamber, the officialship, and the temporal aulic-court.

This bishopric is divided by high mountains, called the Egge, into the Fore and Upper Forest district.

Paderborn is the capital of the bishopric, and is an antient city that stands in a pleasant fruitful country, in the fifty-first degree forty-five minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree twenty-five minutes east longitude, and takes its name from the river Pader, which rises in the center of it. Five of the largest springs rise under the cathedral and the adjacent houses, discharging so copious a stream that at twenty paces distance several mills, and afterwards a still greater number in the town, are driven by it. In the cathedral formerly stood the images of the twelve apostles made of the finest silver; but in 1622 duke Christian of Brunswick took them away, and caused rixdollars to be struck from them, with this inscription, GOD'S FRIEND, THE PRIEST'S ENEMY. He also took the silver coffin of St. Liborius, which he likewise converted into money. Here is a collegiate church, two parish-churches, a Benedictine abbey, a college of Jesuits, five other cloisters, an university erected in the year

1615, and a gymnasium. This city antiently enjoyed the immunities belonging to a city of the empire: it was reckoned among the Hanse-towns, and carried on a great trade; but this trade is decreased, and the inhabitants, for the most part, subsist by agriculture and the breeding of cattle.

At Metborn, two miles from Paderborn, are three springs, two of which are not above half a yard asunder, and yet are of very different qualities: the one is limpid, of a bluish colour, luke-warm, and contains sal-armoniac, ochre, iron, vitriol, allum, sulphur, nitre, and orpiment: the other is as cold as ice, turbid and whitish, yet has much the same contents; but the water has a stronger taste, and is heavier than the other. It is said to be a perfect cure for the worms, yet the fowls that drink of it are immediately thrown into convulsions; but are soon recovered by an infusion of common salt and vinegar. The third spring, which is about twenty paces distant from the other two, is of a greenish colour, but very clear; the taste has a mixture of sweet and sour.

In this territory is the famous field of battle, where the brave prince Arminius, general of the German forces, defeated and slew Quintilius Varus, and routed the Roman army under his command; a most important victory, which freed the Germans from the Roman yoke.

SECT. II.

Of the Bishopric of MUNSTER.

Its Situation, Produce, and Rivers; the Religion of the Inhabitants; the Arms, Prerogatives, and Revenue of the Bishop; with a Description of the City of Munster, and Coesfeld.

THE bishopric of Munster is bounded on the north by the principality of East Friesland, the county of Oldenburg, and the prefecture of Wildeshausen, which belongs to the electoral house of Brunswick; to the east by the bishopric of Osnabrug, with the counties of Tecklenburg, Lingen, and Ravensberg; to the south by a small part of the dutchy of Westphalia, the county of Mark, and the dutchy of Cleve; and to the west by the United Provinces, the county of Zutphen, and the provinces of Upper Uffel, Groningen, and the county of Bentheim; and is the largest of all the Westphalian bishoprics.

This country is generally level, yet is interspersed with some agreeable eminencies, but has no high mountains. The extensive heaths serve for the breeding of cattle; it has also fruitful plains, fine woods, and good quarries of stone.

The rivers here abound with fish; the principal of them are the Ems, which traverses the whole length of the bishopric, and is increased by several smaller streams, particularly by the Aa, which rises in this country; the Lippe, which forms its boundary to the south; the Vecht, which rises here; and the Berkal. The lake of Dummer, which is near five miles in length, and half a one in breadth, lies between this bishopric and the county of Diepholz.

Munster, besides its capital, contains twelve towns that are summoned to the land diets, with twelve others that have not this privilege, and the same number of smaller towns.

At the Reformation the doctrines of Luther gained ground in this country; but the exercise of that religion was afterwards suppressed. There are still, however, several nobles, among whom some are of the Lutheran, and others of the Calvinist church; and at Weerdt both are tolerated: the popish religion, however, prevails.

The principal commerce of the inhabitants is in hogs and Westphalia hams. They generally endeavour to preserve a neutrality, when their neighbours are at war; and though there are several fortresses in the diocese, they pay twelve thousand crowns per annum for the protection of the states of Holland, who have usually a great sway in the choice of a bishop.

The provincial states of this bishopric consist of the clergy, the nobility, and the above-mentioned towns; and are usually held at Munster.

The arms of this bishopric are, a fesse or, in a field azure.

The bishop is a prince of the empire, and in the college of the princes takes place alternately with the bishop of Liege; but in such a manner that Osnabrug always sits between both. He is the first summoning prince and director of the circle of Westphalia, and at the diets of the circle, enjoys the first seat and voice. As bishop he stands under the archbishop of Cologne. The chapter consists of forty members, who are all nobles, and must prove their nobility; and once a year the shield and helmet of the youngest canon are carried in procession with public beat of drum, that every one may enquire into his pedigree. The episcopal domains are more considerable than those of Osnabrug; and the chapter maintains seven regiments. The revenues of the bishop are said to amount to seventy thousand ducats. He becomes heir to such strangers as die here without children; a very unjust custom, unknown in any other part of the empire.

This bishopric is divided into four quarters, each of which is subdivided into a number of prefectures, the principal places in which are the following.

Munster, in Latin Monasterium, the capital of the bishopric, is seated in a very fruitful and pleasant spot on the river Aa, in the fifty-second degree sixteen minutes north latitude, and the seventh degree twelve minutes east longitude, thirty-eight miles south-west of Osnabrug. It is surrounded with double ditches and ramparts, and has also a citadel called the Brille, erected by bishop Christopher Bernhard, in order to curb the town. The city is almost of a circular form, and has eight gates. The houses are mostly in the antique taste, and the principal of them are in the four market-places, particularly the senate-house, and the halls belonging to the companies. In the south-east part of the city is a large square, where the fronts of the houses rest upon pillars, and form handsome piazzas. This city has five collegiate and six parish churches, besides a college belonging to the Jesuits, a great number of convents, and other religious houses, most of them stately piles, and some of them very delightfully situated in the midst of beautiful gardens.

This city is famous for the peace concluded there in the year 1648, between the Swedes and the emperor, and the princes of the empire, by which an end was put to a war which had lasted thirty years, with vast profusion of blood; a treaty which established the fortune of many sovereigns, the liberties of the empire in general, and the free exercise of the Protestant religion in the empire; and a treaty upon which those that have been since made with Germany and the northern parts, have in a great measure been founded.

Coesfeld, a town situated in a fine plain, is, next to Munster, the principal town in the whole bishopric. It was formerly one of the Hanse-towns, and at present contains two parish churches, one college of Jesuits, four nunneries, and one monastery, and has likewise a princely judge. In the year 1591, it suffered greatly by fire, and in 1631, it was taken by the Hessians.

SECT. III.

Of the Bishopric of LIEGE.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. The States of the Country; the Religion and Commerce of the Inhabitants; with the Titles, Arms, and Prerogatives of the Bishop; the Offices by which the Government is administered; and a particular Description of the City of Liege, as also of Huy, Dinant, and Spa.

THE bishopric of Liege lies in the Netherlands, and is bounded on the north by Brabant; on the east by Limburg and Juliers; on the south by Champagne and Luxemburg; and on the west by Brabant, Namur, and Hainault, extending from north to south above ninety-five miles; but dividing and running much to the southward, is of very different breadth: some small districts of this bishopric lie within the jurisdiction of Brabant and Luxemburg.

This is a delightful tract, abounding in corn-fields, pasture grounds, and cattle: the hills are covered with vineyards, which produce wines that resemble the middling

dling wines of Burgundy and Champagne, and the country has considerable forests, with many quarries of marble and free-stone; also mines of copper, lead, and iron, brimstone, vitriol, and pit-coal. This bishopric is likewise celebrated for its mineral waters, as those at Spa and Chau-Fontaine.

The principal rivers by which the country is watered, are the Maese and the Sambre.

The provincial states consist of the chapter of the nobility, and the burgo-masters of the towns; these have two general treasurers and six receivers. Each of the two first states choose four deputies annually. The burgo-masters of the city of Liege are born deputies of the third state; but have four deputies of the smaller towns to assist them. These deputies meet in the episcopal palace of Liege.

The principal exports of this country, and particularly of the city of Liege, consist of beer, arms, nails, serge, leather, and pit-coal, all which are exported from hence in prodigious quantities.

The titles of the bishop of Liege are the following, By the grace of God, bishop and prince of Liege, duke of Bouillon, marquis of Franchimont, count of Looz, Hoorn, &c.

His arms on account of Liege, are a pillar argent, on a pedestal of the same, with a crown or, in a field gules: on account of Bouillon, a fesse argent, in a field gules: on account of Franchimont, three lions in a field argent; and on account of Looz, four fesses gules in a field or.

The bishop of Liege in the council of the princes of the empire, takes rank alternately with Munster; but so that Osnabrug always sits between them. This bishopric is the third in rank in the circle of Westphalia. The ecclesiastical jurisdiction of the bishop is divided into seven archidiaconates, and the chapter consists of sixty persons.

The prince's privy council, which is filled with spiritual and secular counsellors, decides all affairs relative to the superiority and immunities of the country, and the rights and prerogatives of the prince. The aulic and rent-chamber determines all matters with respect to his revenues. The officialship has the direction of every thing relating to religion. The court of the scoffen, or high judicial court, determines all criminal causes. The ordinary council examines every thing that comes before it by appeals from the feudal and allodial court, as also all causes inconsistent with the privileges of the emperor. The feudal court judges in all feudal disputes, and the allodial court in all allodial controversies. The court of the twenty-two judge such officers as abuse their power.

This bishopric contains twenty-six towns, which are divided into the Walloon and Flemish, and has fifteen hundred parishes, seventeen abbies for monks, who must be gentlemen, and eleven for ladies: so that the annual revenues of the bishop are computed at three hundred thousand ducats, and he is said to be able to maintain eight thousand troops, without oppressing his subjects, the bulk of whom are of the Popish religion.

The principal places in this bishopric are the following:

Liege, by the Germans called Luyck, is seated on the river Maese, in the fiftieth degree forty-six minutes north latitude, and the fifth degree twenty-eight minutes east longitude, in a vale between two mountains, one of which stands to the north, and the other to the east. The city itself is generally divided into the Old or Upper, and into the New or Lower Town, and the last is subdivided into two parts, namely, into the island and the quarter beyond the Maese. The Upper Town stands on the declivity of the northern mountain, which is called the Holy Walburg, and extends on the south to an arm of the Maese, by which it is separated from that part of the Lower Town called the Island; but to the north terminates on the Great Maese, which divides it from the quarter beyond that river. The Lower Town, also called the Island, is encompassed by two branches of the Maese, which unite at the point of the island; and the quarter beyond the Maese is a peninsula situated between the river and the eastern mount

named Cornillon. These several parts of the town have a communication with each other by bridges.

This city is well fortified, and defended by a citadel, erected on the mountain of the Holy Walburg. At the foot of this mountain stands the grand episcopal palace, part of which was burnt down in the year 1734; but was rebuilt in 1737, at the expence of the provincial states, in a regular and fine taste. In it are not only held the meeting of the states; but the high colleges. The council-house, which was ruined by a bombardment in 1691, was magnificently rebuilt in 1714, and contains a public library. This city has sixteen gates, seventeen bridges, some of which are very handsome, twelve public squares, one hundred and fifty-four streets, most of which are broad and straight, a cathedral, and seven collegiate churches, thirty-two parishes, five abbies for men, and the same number for women, thirty-two cloisters of both sexes, two colleges of Jesuits, one seminary, ten hospitals, and a chartreuse. The endowments of the ecclesiastics are so rich, and the situation so pleasant, that Liege is commonly stiled the paradise of the clergy. The houses are high, and generally built of bluish marble. Here are also two fine quays adorned with rows of trees, and the city is four miles in circuit.

The cathedral of St. Lambert is extremely large; but is a heavy structure: it contains a great number of pretended relics, besides busts and statues of silver, and a St. George on horseback, which is said to be of gold. Among the many collegiate and parish churches, that of St. Paul is remarkable for its structure and fine ornaments. All the regular orders have very beautiful convents, and among the rest is the college of English Jesuits, and a fine nunnery for English ladies. In St. William's convent lies Sir John Mandeville, the famous romantic English traveller, and near his grave are kept the saddle, spurs, and knife he used, and on his tomb is an inscription in old French, requesting passengers to pray for him.

The city of Liege is not only called the paradise of the clergy, but the hell of women, they being obliged to drag the boats, carry burthens, and work harder than in any other place; as a consequence of this it is termed the purgatory of men, as their wives generally domineer over them.

In this city are a multitude of brewers, who export great quantities of beer. The manufacturers of arms and nails in this city have a great demand for them. Its leather and serge is also famous; and from this town, and its territory, the Dutch receive most of their pit-coal. The magistracy have been severely handled by their bishop for pretending that Liege is a free imperial city, and disputing his authority. In the year 1691, it was bombarded by the French, and in 1702, taken by the duke of Marlborough.

About two miles from the city is the episcopal palace of Sering, in which the bishop usually resides during a considerable part of the summer; and near it, on the Maese, is a well built village, that contains many pleasure-houses.

Hui, or Huy, is seated on the Maese, which at this place receives into it the little river Huy. It lies in a pleasant vale, and is divided by the Maese into two parts, that have a communication with each other, by means of a stone bridge. The small river Huy also dividing into several branches, forms a number of little islands in the town, that are inhabited and joined together by bridges. To the north of the town lie five or six suburbs. Huy was once well fortified; but it has been frequently besieged and taken, particularly in the year 1715, when its fortifications were destroyed; but tho' it has undergone various misfortunes, it has still many fine houses, with one collegiate, and fourteen parish churches; an abbey, a cloister of regular canons of the order of the Holy Cross, sixteen convents of both sexes, and a number of chapels and hospitals. On the river Huy are several paper-mills and iron-works, and the adjacent country yields corn, wine, allum, sulphur, and pit-coal.

Dinant, in Latin Dionantum, a city seated on the Maese, amidst hills and rocks, and consisting of the Town properly so called, of the Lower Town, the Island

quarter, and some suburbs. It contains one collegiate, and seven other churches, a college of Jesuits, with six cloisters and hospitals. Before the town are some fine quarries of marble, and other stone. The principal trade carried on here consists in leather. In 1554 it was severely handled by the French. In 1674 it was taken by the Austrians, and the following year by the French, who did not restore it till the peace of Nimeguen.

Spa, or Spaw, a town celebrated for its mineral waters, is seated in a valley surrounded with mountains, and contains three hundred houses. The part called the Old Spa, which is properly only a suburb to the other, consists of miserable cottages, and when strangers arrive, the poor inhabitants send out a swarm of children to get what they can by begging. The houses of New Spa are little, dark, old fashioned wooden buildings, and yet it is affirmed, that they can make twelve hundred beds for strangers. The church of the Capuchins, and the parish church are both seated upon eminences, and make a good appearance at a distance. The inn called the court of London is very large, and as it is the best in the place, is most frequented by strangers. The name of the five principal wells are Tunnelet, Watpotz, Saviniere, Geronflerd, and Poubon. The inhabitants are employed in making toys, and other things for strangers, to whom they are very civil, and ready to do them all good offices. Near the city there are excellent fish, and good game, to accommodate those who go to the Spa.

S E C T. IV.

The Bishopric of OSNABRUG.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. Of the Inhabitants, their Employments, Religion, and Trade. The Regulations established with regard to there being alternately a Protestant and Popish Bishop. Its Revenue, Arms, public Offices, and Chapter: with a particular Description of the City of Osnabrug.

THE bishopric of Osnabrug is seated in the center of the circle of Westphalia, and is bounded on the north by the bishopric of Munster; on the south by Munster and the county of Ravensburg; on the east by the same county and the principality of Minden; and on the west by Munster, and the counties of Lingen and Tecklenburg; but the prefecture of Rechenberg lies separate. This bishopric extends forty-seven miles from north to south, and between nineteen and twenty-eight from east to west.

Almost one-half of this bishopric consists of heathlands that yield pasturage, and above ten sorts of turf. The country, however, produces as much rye as supplies the necessities of the inhabitants and five hundred stills. Considerable quantities of wheat, oats, and most of the barley used here, are imported from the principality of Minden and the county of Schauenburg; and, as there are but few cattle bred in this bishopric, great numbers are brought from East Friesland. The country has but little wood, but, besides their turf, they have some coal-pits. Marble is also found here.

The principal rivers are the Hase and the Hunte, both which rise in this country.

The inhabitants are diligent and laborious, and the country people here seldom sit, as in other parts of Germany, by stoves; but usually by the fire-side, where they perform their principal work, which is spinning; and about six thousand peasants go every year to Holland, in order to mow, cut turf, and do other work for hire; and it is said that the meanest of them bring home twenty, and the best workmen seventy florins; so that the ready money thus brought into the country may be reckoned at two hundred thousand florins a year.

There are in this bishopric many vassals who belong partly to the chapter and popish clergy, and partly to the burghers. The number of Catholics and Protestants is thought to be nearly equal, though the former have thirty-two churches, and the latter only twenty; but no Jews are tolerated in the country.

The most beneficial employment of the inhabitants consists in spinning yarn, and manufacturing a coarse kind of linen, which is conveyed by the English, Dutch, and Spaniards to their settlements in Africa and America: there are also some coarse woollen cloths made in this country.

At the peace of Osnabrug, in 1648, it was settled that this bishopric should alternately have a catholic and a Lutheran bishop, and in consideration that the house of Brunswic had for the sake of a general peace made several valuable sacrifices, namely, of the coadjutorships of Halberstadt and Magdeburg to the elector of Brandenburg, of that of Bremen to the king of Sweden, and of the bishopric of Ratzeburg to the dukes of Mecklenburg, the Lutherans, who were to have the alternative, were to be a younger prince of the house of Brunswic-Lunenburg, the present royal family of Great Britain; and on failure of that, the alternative was to pass to Brunswic-Wolfenbuttle, now Brunswic-Bevern: so that the protestant alternative has been enjoyed by prince Ernest, grandfather to his late majesty, and afterwards the next turn by another prince Ernest, the late king's uncle, who was created duke of York; and upon the decease of the archbishop of Cologne, who was the last incumbent, Frederic, the second son of the king of Great Britain, was elected bishop in 1764.

But though this bishopric is alternately hereditary in the house of Hanover, it is not so with regard to its popish bishops, who are chosen out of different families by the chapter, which consists of twenty-five canons, the revenues of eighteen of whose prebends are enjoyed by the Romish ecclesiastics; those of four, by the Jesuits, for the support of their college; and the other three by Lutheran canons only, who are capable of electing, but not of being elected bishops, as the catholic canons are. When there is a popish bishop, he is suffragan to the archbishop of Cologne as metropolitan; but when there is a protestant bishop, the exercise of the metropolitan jurisdiction is to be suspended. Since the reformation introduced here in 1534, the bishop of either denomination has, with the dignity and power of a temporal prince, little more than the name of a bishop.

The revenue of this bishopric amounts to between twenty and thirty thousand pounds.

The arms of this bishopric are an orb gules, set with six spokes in a field argent.

The bishop is a prince of the empire, and may sit in the diet of the empire in the council of the princes between the bishops of Munster and Liege.

The public offices are the prince's privy-council, which has the care of the episcopal board-lands, and the supreme inspection of the country. The prince's chancery of lands and justice, consisting of two catholic and two Lutheran counsellors, one of whom is at the same time a director; as also of a catholic and Lutheran secretary. From this court an appeal lies immediately to the supreme court of the empire. The episcopal officialship enjoys, in civil causes, a jurisdiction jointly with the chancery; but, with respect to such ecclesiastical matters as belong to the catholics, jointly with the archdeacons, from whom, notwithstanding, an appeal may lie to the official. The prince's Lutheran land-consistory is composed of a secular president, two spiritual counsellors, and a secretary.

The bishopric is divided into prefectures, each of which has a noble seneschal, together with a rent-master, who collects the revenues belonging to the bishop; a rural count, or judge, a court clerk, and a fiscal. These prefectures consist of parishes, and the parishes of peasantships, which are properly small villages that have no churches, and frequently only certain little districts in which many peasants reside together.

All the officers must swear to be true to the sovereign and the chapter. On the decease of a bishop the chapter takes possession of all, and fills up, in conjunction with the magistrates of the city of Osnabrug, the vacant offices; for almost all the officers, the rural counts excepted, lose their posts on the decease of a bishop, till they are again reinstated in them by the chapter, which retains or discards them at pleasure; but the new bishop again makes a change in the officers.

The

The principal city in this bishopric is Osnabrug, or Osnabruck, in Latin Osnabruga, which is seated in a vale by the river Hase, in the fifty-second degree forty-two minutes north latitude, and the seventeenth degree thirty-eight minutes east longitude. It is a neat well built city; but the buildings are antique. It has several handsome public structures, and is encompassed with walls and ditches, but commanded by a mountain within cannon-shot, upon which is an abbey or rather a place for men of quality to retire to for devotion. The number of houses, exclusive of the public buildings, amounts to twelve hundred; but the place is not populous. The episcopal palace was built by bishop Ernest Augustus, and belongs to the electoral house of Brunswic-Lunen-burg, who usually resigns it to the catholic bishop for his use. This palace is well fortified, and separated from the town by a bridge. This structure is erected in the form of a hexagon, and at each corner is a turret, with a court in the middle. It was in one of the apartments of this palace that king George I. expired, on the eleventh of June, 1727, in the arms of his brother prince Ernest; and, it is said, in the very room where he was born.

The chancery is but an indifferent building. In the hall of the council-house, where the celebrated peace of 1648 was concluded, are the pictures of the several ambassadors who assisted at it. There are also shewn here, in a thin folio, the portraits of the bishops of Osnabrug, which George Bergen drew with his pen. In St. Peter's cathedral are shewn the silver coffins in which lies St. Crispin and Crispinian; and here are also interred several bishops. The cathedral church of St. John is the second parish-church belonging to the Romans. The Lutherans have two parish-churches, which are those of St. Mary and St. Catharine.

The Romans have not yet the privilege of making processions in the city. In their church-yards the Lutherans are buried, but the catholics are not interred in those belonging to the Lutherans.

There is here a college of Jesuits, with a monastery of Dominicans, and a nunnery of Augustines; also a commendry belonging to the Teutonic order of St. George, with a small church, and a seat of the order of St. John. Till the year 1595 the Lutherans and Papists had a school here in common, at the *Collegium Carolinum*, in which were teachers of both churches; but in that year a separation was made, when the Lutheran gymnasium arose, in the possession of which the town was confirmed in 1603, by the aulic-chamber of the emperor and empire. In the *Collegium Carolinum* the Jesuits have their seminary.

The church belonging to the cloister of Augustines, which was deserted at the time of the reformation, has been converted into a prison and house of correction. There are here also three well built hospitals, and some smaller ones, with a Romish and Lutheran orphan-house.

The principal subsistence of the inhabitants depends upon the linen trade, and the foreign manufactures retailed here. The magistracy are Lutheran, and re-chosen annually on the second of January. This was the first town in Westphalia that received the Lutheran doctrine, Dr. Herman Hecker, a monk of the order of St. Augustine, and former master to Luther, preaching it here from the pulpit in the year 1519. This city denies the power of the bishop in affairs relating to the church and police; and is also possessed of the criminal jurisdiction, with the right of fortification, and has a consistory of its own, as also the excise, and the privilege of collecting the rates of the burghers, with an annual revenue of about eight or nine thousand rixdollars. It is possessed likewise of the right of coining copper money, which it exercised for the last time in the year 1740.

S E C T. V.

Of the Principality of MINDEN.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce: the Religion and Trade of the Inhabitants: the several Offices by which the Government is administered: the Revenues received by the King of

Prussia from this Country; and a particular Description of the Cities of Minden and Lubbecke.

THE principality of Minden lies to the west of the bishopric of Osnabrug, and is nearly a hundred and fourteen miles in circuit. It consists for the most part of good corn-land, and agriculture being carried on with great diligence, the inhabitants supply the neighbouring countries with corn, and particularly with wheat and barley; flax also is cultivated with such success, that they are likewise able to supply their neighbours with it. The meadows and pastures breed a considerable number of cattle. They have also wood, pit-coal, turf, and an important salt-work, which supplies both the Prussian and the adjacent countries with that commodity. The Weser traverses the country, and is of great advantage to its commerce.

With respect to the religion of the inhabitants, those of the Romish church enjoy only in the city of Minden, and the Calvinists every quarter of a year at the citadel of Petershagen, their public worship; and all the other churches in the country belong to the Lutherans; yet the Jews are allowed their schools at Minden and Lubbecke.

The inhabitants are chiefly employed in agriculture, the breeding of cattle, the spinning of linen, and weaving of buckram. They also make a kind of half linen and half woollen stuffs: considerable quantities of yarn are exported from this principality, and the coarse linen made here is sent to England and Spain. There are here considerable breweries, a great trade in corn, sope, horses, and all sorts of cattle.

Charlemagne erected this country into a bishopric; but the precise year of its foundation is not known, though it is supposed to be about the year 803, from which time, to the peace of Westphalia, are reckoned sixty bishops: but at the peace of Osnabrug, in 1648, the bishopric of Minden was resigned as a principality to the electoral house of Brandenburg, instead of the ceded countries of Pomerania. On the fifteenth of October, 1649, the elector Frederic William caused the citadels of this principality to be possessed by his officers; and on the twelfth of February, 1650, received the homage of the inhabitants.

Over this principality and the county of Ravensberg a regency is appointed, which also, in conjunction with the two superintendents of these countries, and the Protestant court-chaplain of Minden, constitutes the consistory. Both colleges conduct in common such affairs as relate to the sovereign; but the regency alone enjoys the administration of justice, that over the knights in the first instance, and over the others in the second. The war and domain-chamber manage all affairs relating to war, trade, and manufactures. Out of these colleges, or offices, another of health is appointed, which, when any infectious disease prevails among the inhabitants, or cattle, makes the necessary provision for putting a stop to it. Here is also a provincial medicinal-college, in which a member of the war and domain-chamber presides, and takes care that the country be provided with skilful physicians, apothecaries, surgeons, and midwives. At Minden and Lubbecke the civil power is administered by the magistrate, but in the country by officers appointed for that purpose; and it is also in some measure exercised by the chapter, the provost of the chapter, and several religious foundations.

The annual revenue arising to the sovereign from the domain-lands are, according to Dr. Busching, rated at somewhat more than a ton and a half of gold in rixdollars; and the revenues of the war-chest, arising from this principality and the counties of Ravensberg, Tecklenburg, and Lingen, are estimated at about two tons and a half of gold.

The principal places in this country are the following:

Minden, the capital of the principality, is seated on the west side of the Weser, in the fifty-second degree thirty-one minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree thirty-eight minutes east longitude. It is a neat and well fortified town, environed with ramparts and ditches,

ditches, and has a stone-bridge over the Weser. Its commodious situation for trade and navigation, its brewery of a pleasant white beer, and in some measure also its agriculture and breed of cattle, supply its inhabitants with the means of procuring a comfortable subsistence. The cathedral is a noble and large, though dark structure, and near it is a handsome chapter-house. The chapter consists of eighteen persons, who are partly Roman catholic and partly Lutheran, and has a chapter-cross which hangs at an azure ribbon, and was conferred by the king in 1756. The church of St. John also belongs to the Papists, and contains a collegiate foundation of ten catholics. St. Martin's, the principal church belonging to the Lutherans, has also a collegiate foundation of nine persons, who are partly Roman catholic and partly Lutheran, together with six vicars. Near St. Martin's church is a female foundation for twelve persons, the abbess of which has a pretty extensive feudal feat. The third Lutheran church is that of St. Simeon. The churches of St. Paul and St. Nicholas also belong to the Lutherans; but it is seldom, and only at certain times, that divine service is performed in them. It has likewise an orphan-house, and three alms-houses.

This city has suffered greatly by war, and has several times been besieged and taken. Upon the plain in the neighbourhood of this city a memorable battle was fought on the first of August, 1759, in which the confederate army under prince Ferdinand of Brunswic totally routed the French, when the troops of the allied army, particularly the British foot, signalized their valour in so extraordinary a manner, against much superior numbers of the enemy, as gained them immortal honour.

Lubbecke, a small town, which ever since the year 1279 was encompassed with walls, ramparts, and ditches. It enjoys considerable immunities, and in particular the jurisdiction over a considerable district. In it are thirteen gentlemen's seats, and one of the order of knighthood is always first burgomaster; hence the magistracy bear the title of knights, burgomaster, and council. The inhabitants, most of whom are of the Lutheran religion, trade in yarn and linen; they also carry on agriculture, and the breeding of cattle, brew beer, and distil spirits. Near the parish-church is a collegiate foundation, consisting of one dean and four canons, among whom there must be always a Roman catholic.

SECT. VI.

Of the Dutchy of VERDEN.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers: the Religion of the Inhabitants: the Offices by which the Government is administered; with a Description of the City of Verden.

THE dutchy of Verden terminates on the dutchy of Bremen and Lunenburg, and is computed to be about twenty-eight miles in length and breadth. It consists, for the most part, of heath and high land, as also of forests; but on the rivers Weser and Aller is good marsh land.

The Aller waters almost all the south part of this dutchy; but the Weser only some of the westerly boundaries, where it receives the former into it. The other rivers of this dutchy are the Wumme, which rises on the borders of Lunenburg, and traversing the dutchy from east to west, receives the smaller rivers that rise here, as the Fintau, the Veerse, the Werdau, and the Rodau; after which it enters the dutchy of Bremen.

The inhabitants are of the Lutheran religion, and the country has the same consistory with Bremen, and also one and the same general superintendent; but at Verden is also a special superintendent, who is a member of the royal consistory, and has under his inspection the twelve provincial parishes of this dutchy.

Verden was a bishopric founded by Charlemagne; but at the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, the crown of Sweden obtained the bishopric as a dutchy. It was afterwards taken by the Danes; but by virtue of the alliance concluded at Wismar in 1715, it was ceded, together with Bremen, by the king of Denmark, to the electoral house

of Brunswic-Lunenburg; and in the year 1718 the king of Sweden made the same cession.

In the council of the princes of the empire the king of Great Britain, as duke of Verden, has a seat on the temporal bench, after the prince of Halberstadt, and also at the diets of the circle of Westphalia.

This dutchy has the same regency with that of Bremen, namely, a chancery, and an aulic-court; in the latter of which an assessor sits, both for the nobility of this dutchy, and for the town of Verden. The land states of this dutchy consist of the nobility and town of Verden. Both the council of nobles here, and that of the town of Verden, appear, in conjunction with the land-states of Bremen, at their diet at Basdel, when any affairs are to be discussed there that have a relation to both dutchies.

The city of Verden is seated on the Aller, which here divides itself into two branches, and is at present only frequented by the ships that go up and down the Aller. There are here four churches; the cathedral, near which is the church of St. Andrew, that of St. Nicholas, and that of St. John. In this town is also a Latin-school.

SECT. VII.

Of the Dutchy of CLEVE.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers: the Religion of the Inhabitants: the Offices by which the Government is administered: the Revenues the King of Prussia receives from this Dutchy; with a Description of the Cities of Cleve, Emmeric, and Wesel.

THE dutchy of Cleve, or Cleves, terminates to the east on the bishopric of Munster; to the south on the dutchy of Berg, the principality of Mors, the archbishopric of Cologne, and Prussian Gueldres; to the west on Brabant and Gueldres; and to the north on Gueldres and Munster; extending forty miles in length from north to south, and fifteen in breadth from east to west.

This country abounds in corn, fruit, and all manner of plants: it has very fat meadows, in which are bred a considerable number of horned cattle and horses. In general it is well cultivated, and has many delightful spots, particularly near the city of Cleve: all kinds of game are here in plenty, particularly on the west side of the Rhine. This river divides the country into the eastern and western parts, receiving into it the rivers of Roer, the Emser, and the Lippe. The Maese touches also on a part of the dutchy, and receives into it the Niers, which rises in the dutchy of Juliers. The Old Issel also traverses a part of this dutchy. All these rivers abound pretty much in fish; and the salmon, pike, and carp of the Rhine, are particularly admired.

The inhabitants are mostly of the Romish church; but the Calvinists, Lutherans, Mennonites, and Jews, are allowed the free exercise of their religion. There are six collegiate churches, two commanderies of the Teutonic order, one *commendam* belonging to the order of St. John, the abbey of Elten and Hamborn, seventeen monasteries, and about thirty nunneries.

The voice of Juliers, Cleve, and Berg in the council of the princes of the empire has been dormant ever since the death of duke John William. In the circle of Westphalia the elector of Brandenburg, and the elector Palatine, as dukes of Cleve, Juliers, and Berg, bear alternately the office of sending the circular letters to summon the states to vote; but in the *directorium* have but one voice between them.

In the city of Cleve is the royal regency appointed over this dutchy and the county of Mark, to which the antient aulic-judicatory has been united, and in it too is a consistory held monthly; so that this high college regulates all the affairs of church and state, and appeals lie to it from all the other courts. The war and domain-chamber of Cleve, Mors, and the Mark, take cognizance of every thing relating to œconomy, the forest, tolls, contributions, excise, mines, war, &c. and under it is the provincial council established in 1563, that regulates every thing relating to the police; but civil and criminal affairs are administered by the provincial judicatories appointed

pointed in the year 1753 at Cleve, Xanten, Wesel, and Dinflacken; and to these the subjects of the adjoining prefectures are referred.

The annual revenue arising to the king of Prussia from the domains of Cleves and the Mark, are estimated at about three hundred fifty-six thousand rixdollars, and the sum brought to the war chest from Cleve, the Mark, and Mors, to about three hundred forty thousand.

The principal places in this dutchy are the following:

Cleve, in Latin Clivia, is said to derive its name from its situation among cliffs and the declivity of a hill, where it stands between the Rhine and the Maese, in one of the finest countries in Germany. It is seated in the fifty-first degree fifteen minutes north latitude, and in the sixth degree twenty-four minutes east longitude. It is small but pleasant, well built, and well peopled, having several fine houses belonging to persons of quality; but those of the ordinary burghers are mean. The castle is large, and delightfully seated on the top of a hill; but is irregular and not very strong. It has stately apartments, and there the king of Prussia resides when he comes to this city. The inhabitants chiefly subsist by the circulation of money occasioned by the residence of his deputies, who govern the dutchy, and by the meeting of the states, who assemble in the castle. There are here a German Calvinist and a French Calvinist church, one belonging to the Lutherans, and another to the Mennonites, together with an academy belonging to the Calvinists, with a popish collegiate church, two monasteries, and a nunnery. The river Hel, which runs by the foot of the castle, is navigable by small vessels to the Rhine; and on the west side of the city are what is called prince Maurice of Nassau's park, in which are many ponds, canals, fine water-works, grottos, and the like. Above them is the high hill of Sternberg, from whence may be seen Utrecht, though it is fifty miles distant, with near forty other cities and great towns, twelve of which are seen through so many walks cut through the woods. The prince's house stands in a wood on the east side, and, among other curiosities, has a noble collection of old Roman urns, and several other monuments of antiquity.

Emmeric, or Embric, in Latin Emerica, or Embrium, is a large, rich, and beautiful town, pleasantly situated on the east side of the Rhine, four miles to the east of Cleve. It is a very antient city, and has a pretty good trade, and was formerly one of the Hanse-towns. Here is always a small garrison; but though the fortifications were formerly very considerable, they have of late been neglected. The governor, with the magistrates, and many of the burghers, are Protestants, and have a church here. The Roman catholics have two churches, one of which is collegiate, with two monasteries, a nunnery, and a college of Jesuits.

Wesel, in Latin Wesalia, is the largest and best built town in the dutchy, it being populous and well seated for trade. It was formerly one of the Hanse-towns, and an imperial city; but was exempted by the dukes of Cleve from the contributions paid by those towns to the military-chest of the empire. It grew rich by the concourse of merchants, who fled hither from the persecution in the Spanish Netherlands, and was garrisoned by the Dutch, to whom it was mortgaged by the elector of Brandenburg. It was taken and plundered by the French in 1672; but was restored two years after to the elector, after it had been dismantled. Though this place submits to the king of Prussia as its sovereign, it is governed by its own laws. Both the town and its two suburbs are well fortified, after the modern way, with bastions, half-moons, and ditches; and in the middle curtains there are galleries which run into the ditch, and have separate places for the men and women in case of a siege; and it is esteemed one of the strongest towns in all Europe. It has a good citadel towards the Rhine, a small harbour for vessels that trade on that river, and an arsenal well filled. The Calvinists, Lutherans, and Roman catholics have all churches here. There are here a Lutheran academy, three monasteries, a foundation for ladies, called Averdortf, who are for the most part Lutherans, and a commendam of the order of St. John. The city has a seat and voice at the provincial diet.

S E C T. VIII.

The County of the MARK.

Its Situation and Produce: the Religion and Trade of the Inhabitants: the Offices by which the Government is administered; with a Description of Ham, Unna, Iserlon, and Saest.

THE county of the Mark is bounded on the north by the bishopric of Munster, on the east by the dutchy of Westphalia, on the south by the dutchy of Berg, and on the west by the dutchy of Cleve; and is esteemed the largest county in all the circle of Westphalia.

It enjoys a fertile soil that produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, buck-wheat, peas, vetches, lentils, beans, rape and turnip seed, as also such plenty of flax and hemp as to supply the neighbouring countries with them. It also produces plenty of fruit, together with good kitchen-roots and herbs. It has fine meadows and pastures, with a good breed of cattle, and all manner of game. In the mountains are mines of silver, copper, lead, iron, and coal, with quarries of stone.

The inhabitants of this country are Lutherans, Calvinists, and of the Romish church; all being allowed the free and public exercise of their religion, and no restraints laid upon the consciences of the people. There are many manufactures here, the produce of which not only supplies the country, but great quantities are exported, particularly of iron and steel worked in a variety of ways.

This country is subject to the electoral house of Brandenburg, who in 1753 appointed six judicatories over the whole county, each of which has its own justice, assessors, and clerks: at the same time, for the regulation of affairs relating to the police, four circles are appointed, in each of which was placed a provincial-council.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Ham, in Latin Hammona, is the capital of the whole county, and is seated near the borders of the bishopric of Munster, by the influx of the Aale into the Lippe. It has no walls, but is encompassed with ditches, ramparts, and palisades. This city is pretty large and well built. It has a citadel in which a commandant resides, and contains also a *gymnasium illustre* belonging to the Calvinists, in which are three professors, and a Latin school, with a large church that also belongs to the Calvinists, a Lutheran church, and a cloister of Observants, with noble appointments for the poor. Just before the north gate is the Norder hospital, a noble foundation for protestant and popish ladies; but the small church near it is only used by the Catholics.

This town has a considerable trade, and was formerly one of the Hanse-towns. It has frequently suffered very much by fire, particularly in 1741, when three hundred and fifty houses were burnt down, with the council-house and the church belonging to the Calvinists; but better buildings have been erected in their stead.

Unna, the second town of the county, is seated in a fine plain, on a rivulet called the Kottelbecke, and is surrounded with walls and ditches. It has a Lutheran parish-church, and hospital church, in which the Calvinists perform divine worship, as a Lutheran preacher does on Saturdays. Here is likewise a nunnery, together with a Romish chapel and a Lutheran school. The town is possessed of a very extensive and profitable territory; and most of the burghers subsist by agriculture, distilling, and brewing. This was also antiently one of the Hanse-towns.

At no great distance is the mountain of Haslo, on which is the free secular foundation of Frondenberg, belonging to the Cistercian order, which has an abbess and twenty-four ladies belonging to it, and into which both the Protestants and Roman catholics are received: besides several tythes and corn-rents, above a hundred farms belonging to the peasants are subject to it.

Iserlon, also called Lon, is a considerable town well inhabited, and seated in a mountainous tract. The Lutherans have here three churches, with a Latin school;

the Calvinists have one church, and the Roman catholics, in 1746, erected one for themselves. The principal employment of the inhabitants consists in manufactures and trade; for here are made all works in iron and brass, woollen stuffs, velvets, and ribbons. This town has been frequently laid waste by fire.

Soest, in Latin Sufatum, is a city of considerable circuit, in which are extensive courts and gardens, but is meanly built. It is situated twelve miles to the east of Ham, and is fortified with double walls, on which are thirty towers, and is also defended by a large deep ditch. The Catholics are in possession of the cathedral and two monasteries; but the Lutherans have seven churches, in one of which the Calvinists perform public worship. The Lutheran Latin school is one of the three archigymnasia (as they are called) of Westphalia. To this town belongs a considerable extent of arable land, and its principal trade consists in corn.

This was formerly one of the Hanse towns, and the inhabitants chose their own magistrates; but, in 1752, the king abolished the old magistracy, and appointed a standing one. They had here an antient body of laws, which was the foundation of those of Lubec.

We shall conclude this account of the Mark with a concise account of the imperial city of Dortmund, in Latin Tremonia, which is situated twenty-six miles to the west of Soest, and was antiently one of the Hanse towns. It is pretty large, but slightly built, and contains four Lutheran churches, one nunnery, and two monasteries. It has likewise one of the three archigymnasia of Westphalia, and enjoys a seat and voice on the Rhenish bench of the college of the imperial cities. The territory belonging to this city is an antient county, that contains many villages.

SECT. IX.

Of the Dutchies of JULIERS and BERG.

Their Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers: the Offices by which these Dutchies are governed: the Revenues the Elector Palatine receives from them; with a Description of the Cities of Juliers, Duren, Dusseldorf, Bensberg, and Essen.

THE dutchy of Juliers is bounded on the north by the dutchy of Gueldres, on the east by the archbishopric of Cologne, on the south by Luxemburg and Treves, and on the west by Liege and Limburg, extending about ninety miles in length, and in breadth in some parts above forty-three, but in others much less.

This dutchy has a fruitful soil, that produces all sorts of corn in abundance, and has also good meadow and pasture lands. The breed of cattle is considerable, particularly of horses, which are sent to the neighbouring countries, and also into France. Much wood is cultivated here, and in some parts pit-coal is found.

With respect to the rivers, the Maese terminates this country on the west side, and the Rhine on the east. The Roer rises here, and having traversed a great part of the country, receives into it the little rivers Worm and Dente, also called Inda or Inga. The Erft also rises here, and traverses the country to the east. The other rivers are the Niers and the Ahr.

The provincial states of Juliers united in the last century for the maintenance of their privileges: these united states consist of the nobility of both countries, and the four principal towns of each dutchy. The inhabitants assert, that they do not depend on the unlimited arbitrary will of their sovereign; but were always governed according to their antient customs, rights, and immunities.

The inhabitants are partly of the popish and partly of the protestant church, and both enjoy the free exercise of their religion, and perfect liberty of conscience.

These dutchies are subject to the elector Palatine, whose arms on account of the dutchy of Juliers, bear a lion sable, in a field or; and for the dutchy of Berg, a lion gules, crowned azure, in a field argent.

The provincial colleges of Juliers and Berg, with the privy-council, the aulic-council, the chancery, and the

aulic-chamber, are held at Dusseldorf, in the dutchy of Berg. An annual sum is granted to the sovereign by the states of Juliers and Berg, which in the year 1755 amounted to five hundred and eighty thousand rixdollars, to which was added a free gift of fifty thousand florins.

The dutchy of Juliers is divided into twenty-nine prefectures and signiories, the principal places in which are the following:

Juliers, or Julich, also called Gulich, and in Latin Juliacum, is the capital of the country, and is situated on the Roer, in the fiftieth degree forty-eight minutes north latitude, and the sixth degree forty-six minutes east longitude. The river here is very subject to overflow its banks: the city is well fortified, and has a citadel, which is said to be as strong as the best engineers in Germany could make it; it being thirty years in building. Within it is a spacious piazza, with the palace of the antient dukes. The streets are broad and regular, and the houses neatly built of brick. It has a Roman catholic collegiate church, with one belonging to the Calvinists, and the Lutherans have another before the town. In the suburbs is a Carthusian monastery, nobly endowed by the dukes. This city is very antient, and obtained its name in the time of the Romans.

Duren is reckoned the second among the towns that have a voice and seat among the diets. It is small, uniform, and well built, with streams of water running through the streets. It was made an imperial city by Charles IV. but subdued by the duke of Juliers in 1407. Charles V. took it by storm, put the garrison to the sword, and burnt it in 1543; but it was afterwards rebuilt and restored to the duke. The handsomest structure in this town is St. Martin's church, where they pretend to have the head of St. Anne, the mother of the Virgin Mary, which formerly brought abundance of pilgrims to this place.

The dutchy of Berg, so named from its mountains, is seated on the east side of the Rhine, opposite to the electorate of Cologne, and is bounded on the north by the dutchy of Cleve and the principality of Mors, from which it is separated by the Rhine; on the east by the dutchy of Westphalia and the county of the Mark; on the south and west by the archbishopric of Cologne. In its greatest extent it is above seventy miles, and in its greatest breadth twenty-eight.

It is a very mountainous country, but has some fruitful tracts, as also good meadow and pasture lands, with great quantities of timber, pit-coal, iron, and other ores. In the upper parts near the Rhine are vineyards.

The Rhine, which flows to the east of this country, receives into it all the other rivers, as the Sieg, into which the Agger pours itself, and the Wipper: the Roer, which flows out of the county of Mark, runs to the northward through the narrowest part of this dutchy, and in Cleve falls into the Rhine.

There are here eleven towns, and the same number of boroughs, in which are manufactures of cloth, linen, and steel. The state of religion here is the same as in the dutchy of Juliers.

This state is divided into sixteen prefectures, the principal places in which are the following:

Dusseldorf, or Dusseldorp, a city seated on the Rhine, in the fifty-first degree thirteen minutes north latitude, and the sixth degree fifty-eight minutes east longitude, twenty-three miles to the north-east of Juliers. It has its name from the rivulet of Dussel, which runs through it, and afterwards falls into the Rhine, over which is a bridge of boats at this place. This city is not large, though it is populous and strongly fortified. The New Town, which the elector John William caused to be built before the gate of Berg, consisted of one broad fine built street; but it has fallen to decay. In the town is the old princely citadel seated on the Rhine, and commands a fine prospect. It has two galleries, the uppermost of which consists of five rooms, which are adorned with paintings by the greatest masters, as Titian, Julius Romanus, Rubens, Van Dyck, Paul Veronese, &c. and also with excellent statues of brass, antiques, and the like. Under this gallery is another which contains statues in marble and plaister, which are copies of the most celebrated statues at Rome and Florence. In the

The citadel is the seat of the aulic-chamber, and in the square opposite to it is an equestrian statue of metal erected to the honour of the elector John William. In the collegiate and parish-church are the tombs of the antient dukes of Juliers and Berg. The Jesuits have also a college, a gymnasium, and a seminary, together with a beautiful chapel. In the town are likewise some monasteries and nunneries, as also a Lutheran and a Calvinist church. Before one of the gates is a chapel built after the model of the house of Our Lady at Loretto, and adorned with fine paintings; and in the year 1752, a riding-academy was founded here.

Bensberg, a fine pleasure-house belonging to the sovereign, built by the elector John William. It stands three leagues from the Rhine, and is built with a very hard stone; but the ornaments, particularly the columns that support the gallery in the front, are a kind of grey marble, dug out of the neighbouring quarries. The apartments are large, and adorned with the finest paintings; besides which they have a most extensive prospect as far as the city of Cologne, over the Rhine and all the flat country. This seat is said to have much the air of Versailles, though it is neither so large nor so lofty. The structure was designed by an Italian; but the outside is censured, on account of the multiplicity of its ornaments.

Fifteen miles to the north of Duffeldorf is Essen, an imperial city famous for a noble and rich abbey, founded about the year 877. The abbess is a princess of the empire, and to her the greatest part of the city is subject, as are also several large manors; and her deputy has a place in the diet among the prelates of the Rhine. Their revenues were at first settled for the abbess, fifty-two nuns, and twenty canons; but they are since retrenched, and none admitted but the daughters of noblemen, who may marry at pleasure. The king of Prussia is protector of the abbey, and both in the city and cloister the people are allowed the free exercise of religion. The magistrates are Lutherans; but it has also some Roman catholic churches, and a commandery of the Teutonic order. The city is pretty large, and is a place of trade; some good cloths are made there; but the making of fire-arms, for which it was once famous, is fallen to decay.

S E C T. X.

Of the Principality of Mors: the Counties of Tecklenburg, Lingen, and Ravensberg; with the principal Places in each.

THE principality of Mors is encompassed by the dutchies of Cleve and Berg, the archbishopric of Cologne, and the dutchy of Gueldres; it being little more than nine miles in length, and as many in breadth.

It abounds in corn, cattle, and venison. Its limits are washed by the Rhine, and it is likewise watered by several small rivers and brooks. It belongs to the king of Prussia, who on account of this principality has a particular seat and voice in the council of the princes of the empire.

This principality has its own peculiar regency, who manage every thing relating to the affairs of the sovereign; together with civil, criminal, and ecclesiastical concerns: but what relates to war and the police, is conducted by the tax-council, which is under the direction of the war and domain-chamber. From the territories of this principality the king annually receives about thirty thousand rixdollars.

The principal place in this little principality is Mors, a small fortified town which contains a citadel, and is the place where the provincial colleges hold their meetings. It has a Calvinist church, and a Latin school.

Crefeld is also a small town, in which is a citadel; but has manufactures of velvet, silk, linen, and other articles.

The county of Tecklenburg terminates to the north and east on the bishopric of Osnabrug, and to the south and west on that of Munster, extending about twenty-three miles in length, and about ten in breadth.

It has a sufficient quantity of land capable of bearing all sorts of corn, with a good breed of cattle, and plenty of fowl and venison. Its rivers and brooks abound with fish: these are the Hase and the Date; and in the mountains are quarries of stone. A great deal of linen is made and exported from this country.

In the beginning of the Reformation count Conrad introduced the Lutheran doctrine; but count Arnold, of Bentheim and Tecklenburg, his daughter's son, bringing in the Calvinists, the whole country embraced their sentiments.

The king of Prussia, on account of this country, enjoys an additional seat and voice in the Westphalian college of imperial counts, and also at the diets of the circle of Westphalia. The sovereign's domains in this county bring in annually about twenty-four thousand rixdollars. The amount of the taxes, excise, &c. is included in the sum mentioned above under Minden.

The places in this county are too inconsiderable to deserve description.

The county of Lingen is surrounded by the bishoprics of Munster and Osnabrug, and in part by the county of Tecklenburg. The soil of the country is in general not very fertile. In the upper country are some coal-pits and quarries of stone.

The prevailing church here is the Calvinist; but the greatest number of the inhabitants of the country are Roman catholics; for at the time of the Reformation count Conrad was obliged to resign this part of the country to popish lords, and it became entirely under the Spanish dominion.

Lingen is under one common government with the county of Tecklenburg; and with respect to the police and other affairs, it is under the domain-chamber of Minden, which has a deputation college at Lingen.

The royal annual revenues arising from the domains, contributions, and excise, are estimated at about eighty thousand florins.

This country is divided into the Upper and Lower County, the principal place in which is

Lingen, the capital, which is seated near the Ems, was formerly fortified, but at present is barely surrounded with a ditch. It is the seat of the regency of the united counties of Lingen and Tecklenburg, and of the deputation of the war and domain-chamber of Minden. It has a church belonging to the Calvinists, another belonging to the Lutherans, and a third possessed by the Roman catholics. It has also a seminary, founded in the year 1697 by William III. king of England.

The county of Ravensberg is environed by the bishoprics of Munster and Osnabrug, the principality of Minden, the counties of Schauenburg and Lippe, the bishopric of Paderborn, and the county of Rittberg.

Its soil is in some parts sandy; but in others bears corn, flax, and hemp; and the pastures are in some places very good.

The Weser separates this county from the principality of Minden, and is of great advantage to the commerce of the inhabitants. Its other rivers are the Rehme, the Werre, the Aa, the Elfe, the Warmenau, the Hessel, and the Lutterbach.

Most of the inhabitants are Lutherans, who have thirty-three parish-churches; but the Calvinists enjoy the public exercise of their religion only at Herford and Bielefeld; though the Papists are possessed of churches not only in those towns, but in three others. A certain number of Jews are also tolerated.

The most profitable employment of the inhabitants consists in spinning and weaving of linen. There are not only many thousand weavers in this county, but considerable quantities of linen are also brought from the neighbouring countries to Herford and Bielefeld, where they are bleached and sold. Both the fine and coarse linen made here is exported all over Europe, and also to America. At Bielefeld is also a manufacture of stockings, and at Herford of stuffs.

This county is subject to the electoral house of Brandenburg, and in 1716 was placed under the regency of Minden. Its principal towns are the following:

Bielefeld,

Bielefeld, the capital of the county, is seated at the foot of a mountain, and on the banks of the Lutterbach, which runs through the town. It is well built, and contains near eight hundred dwelling-houses; with two principal churches belonging to the Lutherans, viz. that of St. Nicholas, at which the superintendant of the county is upper preacher; and that of St. Mary, in which is a chapter, consisting of seven Lutheran and five Roman catholic capitulars. There are here also a Calvinist church, a Popish chapel, and a Franciscan monastery, with a church in it; an infirmary, in which is a Lutheran chapel; an orphan-house, in which is a stocking manufacture; a spinning-house, a house of correction, and a Latin school. In the town are also seventeen squares. The nobility hold their provincial diets here, and in this place keep their archives. It was formerly a Hanse-town; at present the principal employments of the inhabitants consist in weaving and bleaching of linen.

Herford, formerly Hervorden, is watered by the rivers Werra and Aa, which run through the city, dividing it into three parts. That in the middle is called the Altstadt, and contains three hundred and sixty-two burghers houses, a Lutheran church, and a cloyster of Grey friars. About one-third of this part is called the Liberty, and contains the abbey, which is an imperial, free, secular foundation, and its abbess, who is styled a princess and prelates of the holy Roman empire, sits at the diet among the abbesses on the Rhenish bench, and at the diets of the circle of Westphalia. This foundation is Lutheran, and the chapter consists of a deaconess, a female churchwarden, and a number of canoneses of the state of princesses and countesses, of whom the abbess may receive any number she pleases. The abbess Johanna Charlotte, princess dowager, erected an order at this place, in the year 1729. The cross is pendant to a scarlet ribbon, bordered with silver, hanging from the right shoulder to the left side. On one side is the Virgin Mary standing, with the child Jesus, and the inscription *MEMINISSE ET IMITARI*; and on the other the name of the abbess. The canoneses also bear a star on their left breast, in which is represented the Virgin with the child Jesus.

In the Altstadt are also the court-chapel, the chapel of St. Anthony, and the Juliers and Westphalian courts.

The second part of the town, which lies to the north-east, is called the Neustadt, and contains three hundred and nineteen houses belonging to the burghers; the Lutheran church of St. John the Baptist, in which is a chapter of twelve capitulars, one of whom must be a Roman catholic; the brother-house, the sister-house, with the commandery-court of the order of St. John, in which is a chapel.

The third, and smallest part of the city, which lies to the west, is called the Radewig, and contains a hundred and twenty-six houses belonging to the burghers, with the Lutheran church of St. James. Thus there are eight hundred and seven houses of the burghers in the different parts of the city. within the walls are also spacious courts and gardens, many vacant places where the houses have been burnt down, some pasture ground, and a small corn-field.

On the mountains opposite to Herford, at the distance of about six hundred paces from that city, is the collegiate church of St. Mary, a noble, free, and secular foundation, consisting of a female dean and provost, with a female churchwarden, and nine other ladies of the foundation, all of noble birth, the superior of whom is the abbess of the above foundation in the city. These ladies also wear the sign of the order, with the star on the left breast.

SECT. XI.

Of the Counties of Schauenburg, Hoya, and Pyrmont; with the principal Places in each.

THE county of Schauenburg is seated on the Weser, and is surrounded by the principality of Hanover, the counties of Lippe and Ravensberg, and the princi-

pality of Minden; extending near thirty miles from north to south, and twenty from east to west.

It is in many places very mountainous; but yet contains a great deal of fertile land, with some excellent pastures, and considerable quarries of free-stone. It has also an allum mine, and pits of excellent coal. Its rivers abound with fish: these are the Hamel, the Caspaw, the Weser, and the Exter. It has also a lake, which is five miles long, two broad, and about sixteen feet deep.

In the whole country are only seven little towns, and three boroughs. The inhabitants chiefly subsist by agriculture and the breeding of cattle; most of them are Lutherans; but the Calvinists are allowed the public exercise of their religion.

This country belongs to the king of Great Britain, the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, and the count of Schauenburg-Lippe; the two last are possessed, by virtue of this county, of an additional seat and voice in the college of the Westphalian counts of the empire, and in the circle of Westphalia. The whole county brings in annually about a hundred thousand rixdollars to its princes.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Stadthagen, in Latin Haga-Schauenburg, is seated in a level and pleasant spot, and is encompassed with ditches, a rampart, walls, and several towers. The citadel is at present the residence of the princess Charlotte Frederica Amelia, countess dowager of Schauenburg-Lippe. Prince Ernest founded a seminary in this town, which in 1619 was raised to an university, which in 1621 was removed by that prince to Rinteln. To the east of the Lutheran church stands the costly mausoleum of prince Ernest, consisting of an heptagonal tower of hewn-stone covered with plates of copper, in which is to be seen an excellent monument of marble and brass, representing Christ's tomb guarded by the watch, and out of it our Saviour rising triumphant. Here is an orphan-house, founded in 1738 by Johanna Sophia, countess dowager to count Frederic Christian, and for the most part formed after the model of the orphan-house at Hall. Here was also a Franciscan cloister, of which nothing now remains but the church, one-half of which has been repaired, and allowed the Calvinists, for the use of their public worship.

Buckeburg, a small town, defended by a citadel, is seated twelve miles to the west of Schauenburg. It has a large and beautiful church, and of late years has been much adorned with fine houses. It has a fountain in the market-place, and the count has a palace erected in a magnificent taste after the Italian manner. Here is a school belonging to the town, and the Calvinists have a peculiar church and an orphan-house.

Schauenburg is an old ruinous citadel, seated on a high mountain between the towns of Rinteln and Oldendorf. This fort gave name to the whole country; but the fort itself obtained the name from the extensive prospect it affords, the word Schauenburg signifying, in German, Seeingtown, and the hill on which it stands is named Oelberg, or Eye-mount.

Rinteln is a fortified town, seated on a tract environed by mountains, and lying between the Weser and the Exter. Over the former is a bridge of boats from March till the beginning of December. The university, as well as the town, belongs at present to Hesse-Cassel. The professors of divinity are of the Lutheran religion; but those in the other faculties are Calvinists. The Lutherans have the town-church, but the Calvinists and the garrison make use of that which belongs to the university. The town is environed by ramparts, ditches, and bulwarks. The inhabitants chiefly apply themselves to agriculture, the breeding of cattle, and brewing.

The county of Hoya is bounded on the north by the county of Delmenhorst, the territory of the city of Bremen, and the Weser; on the east by Lunenburg and Hanover; on the south by the principality of Minden; and on the west by the county of Diepholz; extending about thirty-eight miles in length, and about thirty-three in its greatest breadth. It has some large heaths, and its soil is for the most part sandy; but it contains arable land and pasture, and yields as much rye, oats, and buckwheat as the inhabitants have occasion for; and in some parts are produced good wheat, barley, and flax.

The

The rivers are the Weser, the Aller, the Delme, and Hunte. This county has only one city, and seventeen boroughs. The inhabitants in general apply themselves to agriculture, the breeding of cattle, and the keeping of bees; to spinning, the weaving of linen and woollen stuffs, and the knitting of stockings. They are all of the Lutheran church, and the country contains fifty-four parishes.

The electoral house of Brunswic possesses, on account of Hoya, an additional seat and voice in the college of the counts of Westphalia.

In this county are no places of any consequence, and therefore we shall not trouble our readers with any account of them.

The county of Pymont is bounded on the north and east by Hanover, and on the south and west by Hanover, Wolfenbüttele, and the territory of Paderborn. The lower part of the county consists of an uncommonly beautiful and pleasant vale, through which runs the Emmer, and all around it is environed by lofty green mountains; and in it are the celebrated mineral springs. The religion of the inhabitants is the Lutheran, and they have a superintendent that resides at the capital.

The arms of this county are an anchor-cross in a field argent. The prince of Waldeck, on account of this small country, enjoys both a seat and voice in the Westphalian college of the counts of the empire, and also at the diets of the circle of Westphalia. His annual revenues arising from this county are estimated at near thirty thousand rixdollars, to which the mineral springs and salt works chiefly contribute.

This county contains the citadel and New Town of Pymont, with ten villages.

The citadel of Pymont is fortified with a broad ditch, high ramparts, and subterraneous passages. From the ditch of the citadel a canal has been carried quite down to the spring, where is a mineral fountain, which rises about twenty feet high. A little above is a house in which an assembly is held, and near it is the house that incloses the spring: about forty feet distance from this fountain-head rises the great bubbling spring, which is used for bathing, and makes a great noise; and at a hundred and twelve feet distance to the west lies the lower spring, which is the weakest of them all.

The New Town of Pymont is seated between the spring and the village of Oestorf. To the south of it stands an orphan-house, and on the north is a good stone-quarry, in which is a pit resembling the grotto del Cane near Naples, from which strong sulphureous fumes ascend, and over which, in the year 1720, a stone-vault was built. About thirty rods from this sulphureous cavern rises a brisk spring, the waters of which are of a pleasant, vinous, acid taste.

SECT. XI.

Of EAST FRIESLAND.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. The Languages and Trade of the Inhabitants. The Manner in which it became subject to Prussia: its Arms; the Revenue the Prince receives from it, and its principal Towns.

THE principality of East Friesland receives its name from its situation with respect to Friesland, one of the United Provinces, and is bounded on the north by the German sea, on the east by the county of Oldenburg, on the south by the bishopric of Munster, and on the west by the province of Groningen and the German sea, extending from north to south forty-five miles, and from east to west about forty-two. This principality has a moist and thick air; but it is frequently purified by the sea breezes. Spring and summer appear here somewhat later than in other parts of Germany. The country throughout is level and low, whence it is secured by expensive dykes against the inroads of the floods. Along the sea-coast lies a marsh that is uncommonly fertile; but is more used for meadow and pasture than for agriculture. Indeed the pastures here are remarkably good, and produce horned cattle, horses, and sheep in great numbers, and of an extraordinary size. The milk of the

cows, which is remarkably rich, is yielded in great quantities, and of it is made excellent butter and cheese. In the heart of the country the soil is for the most part sandy, and in some places fenny; but yields turf for burning, which, from the great scarcity of other fuel, is of the highest advantage. The produce of the earth, and particularly kitchen-herbs, here grow to a larger size than in other countries; but are seldom so good. Venison and fowl are also to be had here, and in this country are geese that weigh twenty-four pounds and upwards. In harvest a great number of fieldfares and snipes generally appear.

The principal river of this country is the Ems, which here receives into it the Leda, or Soesta, and at last runs into the German sea. Near the place of its efflux it is very broad, and, dividing into two branches, surrounds the island of Borcum. The ebb and flood are to be observed here nine miles up in the country, and so high the salt-water comes.

Between East Friesland and Groningen is a bay called the Dollart, which rose out of a considerable tract of country that was swallowed up by the sea, on which were many villages; but the Dollart now decreases greatly on the East Friesland side, yielding much new land, which has been gradually dyked in. The sea here affords oysters, muscles, crabs, and a variety of other fish.

The languages spoken here are the East Friesian, the German, and Dutch; and in the last sermons are preached in many places near Groningen. Next to the Lutherans the Calvinists are the most numerous. In the town of Embden, and in the lordships of Godens and Lutzburg, the Roman catholics enjoy the quiet exercise of their religion; as do the Mennonites at Embden, Leer, and Norden. In this county are also a number of Jews.

Trade and navigation are briskly carried on here. The produce of the country and the commodities exported from hence are large horses, numbers of which are sent by sea even to Rome, and sold by the pair for coach-horses, for three or four hundred dollars, and more, according to their strength and beauty; horned cattle, butter, cheese, rape-seed, winter-barley, and fine linen made at Leer and Godens. On the other hand, every thing wanted in the country, that is either necessary or convenient, is conveyed thither in ships; and at Embden the king of Prussia has established an Asiatic company.

The princely house of East Friesland becoming extinct by the death of prince Charles Edward in 1744, the king of Prussia, in consequence of the expectancy granted to the house of Brandenburg by the emperor Leopold in the year 1694, took possession of the country; but the illustrious house of Brunswic-Lunenburg declared and made known to the regency of East Friesland, and the whole body of the states, its rights obtained, by means of a brotherhood, and an hereditary union entered into in 1691 with prince Christian Eberhard; and also made proper declarations to the aulic-council of the empire against the suit of the king of Prussia, for being invested with the possession he had seized.

The arms on account of East Friesland Proper are, an harpy or, bearing a coronet, with wings expanded in a field sable, and having two stars or, in the four corners of the field.

The prince of East Friesland has a seat and voice in the council of the princes of the empire, and at the diets of the circle of Westphalia.

The revenues of East Friesland, it is said, greatly exceed a hundred thousand rixdollars. The regency consists of two senates, and is held at Aurich. These senates, with the assistance of the general superintendent and town minister of Aurich, constitute the consistory. The other officers are the war and domain-chamber, the provincial-college, which collects, administers, and computes the taxes and contributions, and a provincial medicinal-college.

The principality of East Friesland consists at present of three towns, and nine prefectures that were formerly lordships; but are now, as well as the towns, become hereditary states of the sovereign prince: it has also lordships that have their own hereditary lords; but are subject to the supreme jurisdiction of the prince.

The principal places of this principality are,

Aurich, the antient residence of the prince, and still the seat of the provincial colleges, stands in the center of the country. The antient residentiary castle is environed with ramparts and ditches, and the Calvinists at present perform their religious worship in the garrison church. There is here also a Lutheran church, a provincial house, a Latin school, and a public alms-house. The magistracy consists of two burgomasters, two counsellors, and one secretary.

Embsen, a large and strong sea-port town, seated on the Ems, in the fifty-third degree five minutes north latitude, and in the seventh degree twenty-six minutes east longitude. On the land-side it is fortified by a double ditch, bulwarks, and bastions, and on the other by a strong wall and the river; it has also an old fort and a citadel, and by means of sluices the country around it may be laid under water. The harbour is one of the largest and most convenient in Germany, which renders Embsen a place of great trade. The houses are neat and lofty. It has a fine council-house, to which ships may arrive by means of a broad canal drawn from the Ems, called the Dolf. Among the public buildings are what is named the Great church, the Guest-house, in which is a church, and the New church, all which belong to the Calvinists, and a Latin school. Here are also many Lutherans, and likewise Roman catholics, Mennonites, and Jews. The town has annexed to it several lordships which lie to the east; the inhabitants of which are Calvinists.

Norden is seated at a small distance from the German sea, and is the oldest town in East Friesland. It is open, but pretty large; it has a good harbour, and is a place of trade. It has a Lutheran church, with a Latin school, and a guest-house, that was formerly a cloister; there are here, likewise, some Calvinists and Mennonites. Its jurisdiction is under the prince's administrator, the burgomaster, and council.

SECT. XII.

Of the Counties of Oldenburg, Delmenhorst, Bentheim, and Steinfurt.

THE county of Oldenburg is bounded on the west by East Friesland, on the south by the bishopric of Munster, on the east by the county of Delmenhorst and the Weser, and on the north by the signiory of Jever and the Jade; extending forty-eight miles in length, and thirty-eight in breadth. In some parts it is pretty fertile, and has excellent pasturage, which produces a good breed of horned cattle and horses; but has a great deal of moorish land of no other service but for producing the turf which is here used for burning. The land is secured against inundations by large and expensive dykes and dams.

This country is subject to the king of Denmark, who on this account is possessed of a seat and voice in the Westphalian college of the counts of the empire, and in the diets of the circle of Westphalia.

Oldenburg, the capital of the county, is situated on the river Hunte, which receives into it the Haare, as it passes through the town, in the fifty-third degree eight minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree thirteen minutes east longitude. The town stretches out in length, and is well fortified with walls and ditches. It has also a handsome round castle, in which its antient counts used to reside, and is built of free-stone three stories high. In the principal church, which is that of St. Lambert, is the burial-place of the counts of Oldenburg, and there are two other churches. The town consists of what are termed free houses, free inhabitants, and the garrison. The free inhabitants are exempt from all such burthens as those to which the burghers are subject, as the quartering of soldiers and keeping watch; these constitute nearly one-third of the inhabitants, and are solely subject to the chancery of the royal regency established here; but the burghers are under the town magistracy, and the garrison under the commandant.

The county of Delmenhorst, which lies between the county of Oldenburg and the Weser, is about seventeen miles long and seven broad, and likewise belongs to the king of Denmark, who on this account also enjoys a particular seat and voice in the college of the Westphalian counts of the empire, and also at the Westphalian diet.

Its principal town is Delmenhorst, which is seated on the little river Delme, from which it received its name. It had antiently a college of canons, the revenues of which were applied in 1575 to the maintenance of the churches, schools, and the poor.

The county of Bentheim has the United Provinces on the north and west, and the bishopric of Munster on the east. It is about forty-five miles in length, and eighteen in the greatest breadth.

This country is both fertile and pleasant. In the mountains are excellent quarries, from which stones are conveyed to the Netherlands and the bishopric of Munster. In the plains are fruitful fields, with good meadow grounds. The woods afford excellent timber and game; and there is here a good breed of cattle. The principal river of this county is the Vecht, which runs through its whole length, and may be navigated for the greatest part of the year with small craft and floats of timber, and is very rich in fish.

The inhabitants are laborious and deal in yarn, wool, linen, cattle, honey, stones, wood, and other articles, which are chiefly exported to Holland. Some of the inhabitants are of the Calvinist religion, and others Lutherans; but the former are the most numerous: there are also a considerable number of Roman catholics; but they are permitted the public exercise of their religion only at Bentheim.

The count of Bentheim-Bentheim enjoys a seat and voice in the college of the Westphalian counts of the empire, and in the diets of the circle of Westphalia.

The principal town in this county is

Bentheim, which stands partly on a mountain, and partly on a river of the same name. The place of residence for the counts stands on a remarkable high rock, and is surrounded with towers. In this town is a Calvinist parish-church, and a church belonging to the Roman catholics.

The county of Steinfurt is nearly twenty-three miles long, and the south tract only seven, but the northern twelve miles broad. The Aa, which rises on its southern limits, traverses the whole country, and at length discharges itself into the Vecht.

The count of Bentheim-Steinfurt, who is descended from the same family as the count of Bentheim-Bentheim, has also a seat and voice among the counts of the empire in the Westphalian college, and in the diets of that circle.

The only town in this county is Steinfurt, which is situated on the Aa. The inhabitants are for the most part Calvinists, who have here a church, and the Roman catholics another. The celebrated seminary in this town, called *Arnoldinum*, from its being founded by count Arnold in 1591, has five professors, with six preceptors, and was formerly very flourishing. Just by the town is a commandery of the order of St. John.

SECT. XIII.

Of the free imperial City of AIX LA CHAPELLE.

THE imperial city of Aix la Chapelle, called by the Germans Aachen, or Acken, and in Latin Aquigranum, is seated between the dutchies of Juliers and Limburg, in a valley surrounded by hills, woods, and vineyards, in the fiftieth degree forty-four minutes north latitude, and in the sixth degree twenty-eight minutes east longitude. The circuit of the whole city is a league and a half. It is encompassed with two walls; the inner wall has ten gates, and the outer eleven. The town-house is a noble structure of free-stone, and one of the finest in Germany. It is adorned with all the statues of the emperors since Charlemagne, and with curious history paintings,

paintings, among which is a fine piece of the resurrection, and another of Charlemagne's giving the city her charter. The uppermost story consists of one hall a hundred and sixty feet in length, and sixty in breadth, in which the emperors used to entertain the electors and other princes, who assisted at their coronation.

In the market-place, opposite the town-house, is a noble fountain, with four springs, which run from above into a copper cistern thirty feet in diameter, and weighing twelve thousand pounds. On the top of the fountain is a large brass statue gilt of Charlemagne in armour. As the city lies in a valley surrounded with mountains, there are twenty other public fountains of clear water, besides many private ones. Without St. James's gate are ten hot mineral springs, and some cold ones, besides several in the adjacent fields. The streams that run through the city keep it very clean, and drive several mills.

With respect to the celebrated baths of this city, there are three within the inner walls, which are called the Emperor's, St. Quirinus's, and the Little Bath. Charlemagne was so much delighted with the first, that he frequently invited his sons and nobles to bathe and swim there with him; but it is now divided into five bathing-rooms. The Little Bath joins to it, and the springs of both rise so hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they use them. They are strongly impregnated with nitre and sulphur, and sometimes cakes of brimstone and salt-petre of a considerable thickness are taken out of them. Their taste is at first unpleasant, and their smell resembles that of a rotten egg. Near these baths is a spring of warm water, much resorted to in summer mornings, and drank for chronical diseases. Those in the New Town, which are the Rose Bath, the Poor's Bath, and St. Corneille's, are not near so hot and clear as the former; but they are of much the same nature, and their smell offensive. Near the hot springs lie many cold ones, by which their heat might be tempered, and with a little expence they might be made some of the most delightful baths in the world.

Here are thirty churches, besides the cathedral, which is a large Gothic pile consecrated by pope Leo III. in the presence of the emperor Charlemagne, and three hundred and sixty-five bishops. The steeple at the west end is adorned with several pyramids, and on the top is a large globe and cross. The inside of this structure has a vast number of marble and brass pillars, gilt statues, brass doors and partitions, and a great deal of Mosaic work. Over the place where Charlemagne was interred hangs a large crown of silver and gilt brass, adorned with sixteen small towers, surrounded with forty-eight little statues a foot high, and thirty-two that are still less, all of silver; among which are commonly placed forty-eight candlesticks, and at certain grand festivals no less than four hundred and fifty tapers. The four principal relics shewed here at the jubilee, which happens once in seven years, are first, what they call the gown or shift worn by the Virgin Mary at our Saviour's birth, made of a kind of flax which seems to be neither linen nor calico; but as it is only exposed from the top of the high tower, it may be either linen, calico, or any other stuff, without the people being able to discover the difference, or what garment it is. The second is a coarse linen cloth, which, they pretend, was girt about our Saviour when he hung on the cross. The third is a piece of the cord with which he was bound; and the fourth some of the earth on which the blood of St. Stephen dropt at his martyrdom, enclosed in a vessel of gold adorned with precious stones, on which the emperors were usually sworn at their inauguration.

At the end of the cathedral our Saviour is represented sitting in majesty on a throne, dressed in a long robe. Round the throne are the four animals represented in Ezekiel's vision. Over his head is a circle of golden stars, and underneath the symbol of the cross that appeared to Constantine when he defeated Maxentius. Here is also a representation of the twenty-four elders, mentioned in the Revelations, rising from their seats, laying aside their crowns, and falling prostrate before the throne.

The windows are curiously gilt, and the pavement is of chequered marble. This church contains an immense treasure, consisting of vessels of gold and silver gilt, copes embroidered with pearls, and other rich vestments. Over the chief altar is a silver chest adorned with gold; of antique workmanship, and curiously engraved, in which are kept the four relics above-mentioned. A pulpit at the entrance of the choir is covered with plates of gold and silver, and adorned with precious stones; among which is a very large agate, the gift of the emperor Henry II. The altar of the choir is covered with plates of gold representing our Saviour's passion. In the upper part of the church, opposite the prince's altar, between the pillars, is a throne or chair of white marble, supposed to have been placed there by the emperor Charlemagne, in which the emperors used to sit when consecrated, and receive the first homage of the electors and the chapter of the cathedral, in quality of king of the Romans. It is not polished, it being formerly covered with plates of gold.

This city was for a long time reckoned the capital of the empire, and the proper residence of the emperor, and in it ought to be performed the coronation of the king of the Romans, and of the emperor. Hence in the foundation of St. Mary in this city, is a part of the jewels of the empire commonly used at these coronations, as a sword of the emperor Charlemagne, a manuscript book of the Gospels, in a cover of silver gilt; St. Mary's church has also the honour of having every emperor one of its sworn canons. In general there are twenty-one religious orders of both sexes in this city, who take up almost one third of what is called the Little Town.

The greatest part of the inhabitants are of the Romish religion, and though there are also many Protestants, yet they are not permitted to enjoy the benefit of public worship; but both the Lutherans and Calvinists are obliged to go for that purpose to Vael, in the dutchy of Limburg, an hour's journey from the city. This city claims the first place on the Rhenish bench in the college of the cities of the empire, and has the second among the imperial cities that have a seat and voice at the diets of the circle of Westphalia.

The title of its magistracy is that of burgomaster, sheriff, and council of the holy Roman imperial free city of Aix la Chapelle, and its arms are an eagle displayed sable, with the head, crown, feet and claws or, in a field argent.

In this city are manufactures of cloth, copper, and brass. In 1656, it was almost entirely destroyed by fire; in 1668 and 1748, it was distinguished by celebrated treaties of peace concluded there, and in 1756, was damaged by an earthquake.

About the distance of a furlong from the south gate of Aix la Chapelle, lies the delightful village of Porcet, or Borcet, which is said to have derived its name from the wild boars that formerly abounded in the neighbouring woods. Here are many hot springs, on both sides of a small cool rivulet that runs through the village, and are conveyed by pipes and conduits into fourteen houses, in which are formed twenty-eight baths, some of which are much hotter than those in the town, and must be cooled eighteen hours before they can be used. They are for the most part five or six yards square, and their water is clear and pleasant. One quite open to the air, called the Poor Man's bath, has a spring so hot that the people scald pigs, and boil eggs with it; but it is observed, that it only hardens the yolks and not the whites. These baths are not so strong as those in the city, and consequently better for weak people; and those of all ages and conditions bathe in them for their diversion, without any danger. The village of Porcet is well built, has four handsome churches, and a nunnery of Bernardines, whose abbess is a princess of the empire; but there lies an appeal from her court to the Echevins or sheriffs of the city.

The adjacent country abounds with corn, fruit, and pasturage; the woods furnish the people with materials for building, as the quarries do with stone. They have also rich coal mines, besides others of iron, lead, vitriol, ful-

fulphur, and lapis calaminaris; and are well supplied with necessaries by the Rhine and the Maese. The territory of the city called the kingdom of Aix la Chapelle, are large and contains a considerable number of villages, and about three thousand subjects. It is inclosed on all sides with mountains; and the nobility who dwell in this territory are subject to the jurisdiction of the city.

S E C T. XIV.

Of the Principalities of Nassau-Siegen, and Nassau-Dillenburg; with the Counties of Lippe, Sayn, and Wied-Runkel.

THE principality of Nassau-Siegen lies in a tract called the Westerwalde, or West Forest, and is fourteen miles in length; but in the broadest part scarcely five. This principality is very mountainous and woody; yet contains some good arable land, and particularly good pastures, whence it has a considerable breed of cattle; but it is most famous for its iron and steel manufactories.

This principality contains one town, two boroughs, and about one hundred and fifty villages. In 1624 the Calvinists were in possession of all the churches, schools, and religious revenues: but in 1626, count John the Younger embracing the Popish religion, sought to introduce it not only into his share of the country; but also throughout the whole dutchy; however, he was never able fully to accomplish it. The line of Nassau-Siegen becoming extinct, this principality devolved to the line of Nassau-Dietz, and is possessed by William V. prince of Orange, and hereditary stadtholder of the United Provinces; who on this account has a particular seat and voice in the council of the princes of the empire, and at the diets of the circle. His revenue arising from this principality is estimated at one hundred thousand rixdollars.

This country is divided into seven prefectures, the principal place in which is,

Siegen, a town seated on the river Sieg, has an old and new citadel, the former of which was antiently the residence of the Popish, and the latter of the Calvinist princes. The Papists perform their religious worship in St. John's church, and the Calvinists in the church of St. Nicholas alone. In this town is a college of Jesuits; and in its neighbourhood are many mines and smelting-houses.

The principality of Nassau-Dillenburg is seated near the former, and is nineteen miles long, and fourteen broad. It has profitable woods, and good quarries of stone, and from its iron founderies and forges, with the trade carried on in that metal, most of the inhabitants derive their subsistence, there not being a sufficiency of arable land. In this principality rise the rivers Sieg and Dill.

This country contains five towns, and two boroughs, the inhabitants of which are of the Calvinist church.

The princes of this country had the same origin as the other princes of Nassau, and this principality is also subject to the stadtholder of the United Provinces, who likewise enjoys an additional vote on account of this principality, in the council of the princes at the diet of the empire, and in the diet of Westphalia. His revenues from this principality amounted in 1731 and 1732, to one hundred and sixty-one thousand florins.

The principal town in this principality is,

Dillenburg, which is seated on the Dill, and after its being burnt down in 1724, was better built than it was before. The palace, or citadel, is a fortification in the old taste. In the parish church are the burial places of the antient counts, and the succeeding princes. In the large park are two royal seats, and near the town is a copper foundery erected by prince Christian, in which are annually smelted about one hundred and fifty centners of copper.

We now come to the county of Lippe, which is surrounded by the counties of Rietberg, Ravensberg, Schaumburg, and the principality of Hanover. It is mountainous; but contains some arable land. Its principal

rivers are the Emmer, and the Weire, and here rises the Humme and the Bever.

The inhabitants consist of Calvinists and Lutherans; but the former are the most numerous. In the whole county, according to the Rev. Dr. Busching, are five towns, four boroughs, and fifty-two villages and hamlets.

The house of Lippe is divided into several branches, between whom the country is divided. They all stile themselves counts and noble lords of Lippe, and their arms for the county are a rose gules, in a field argent; and on account of Schwalenberg, a prefecture in this county, a swallow in its natural colours, standing on a star or, in a field gules. These counts have together but one voice in the college of the counts of Westphalia at the diets of the empire, and at the diets of the circle of Westphalia.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Detmold, a town seated on the Werre, and defended by a citadel, the usual residence of the regent house of Detmold. The town is divided into the Old and New, and has a Latin school belonging to the Calvinists that has six teachers.

Lemgow is seated on the Vega, and is the largest town in the county. The Lippehof, one of the count's palaces, was erected by count Christopher Lewis. In this place is an abbey, the abbess of which is always a countess belonging to the regent house of Lippe. There are here two Lutheran churches, one belonging to the Calvinists, and a flourishing Lutheran seminary that has seven teachers. This was formerly one of the Hanse-towns; but its antient manufactories of cloth and stuffs are much decayed.

The county of Sayn is a small district that lies chiefly in the Westerwalde, containing two prefectures, in which are three principal towns and as many boroughs. The inhabitants are a mixture of Lutherans, Calvinists, and some of the Romish religion. The margrave of Brandenburg-Onolzbach, on account of the prefecture of Sayn-Altenkirchen, and the burgrave of Kirchberg, on account of the other prefecture named Sayn-Hachenburg, have a voice in the college of the Westphalian counts of the empire; but in the circle of Westphalia both houses have only one voice among those of the counts.

The principal places in this county are, the little town of Altenkirchen, in which is the council-college of Onolzbach-Sayn, and also a chancery, with a Lutheran and Calvinist church; and

Hachenburg, a small town, defended by a citadel, in which the burgrave of Kirchberg resides; both the town and citadel are fiefs of the elector of Cologne.

The county of Wied is divided into two parts, each enjoyed by a different branch of the same family; these are the Upper county, or the county of Runkel, and the Lower county, also called the county of Wied. Hence the two counts are distinguished by the titles of Wied-Wed, and Wied-Runkel, and are possessed of a voice at the college in the diets of the empire belonging to the college of the Westphalian counts, and in the circle of Westphalia.

In the Upper county are the following places:

Runkel, a borough seated in a valley on the river Lahn, consisting of about a hundred and twenty houses, defended by a citadel which stands on a high hill, and was formerly the residence of the counts. A chancery is still kept here, and here resides the superintendent, who has the inspection of the preachers. The inhabitants subsist by agriculture, gardening, and the breeding of cattle; and

Dierdorf, a town also defended by a citadel, in which the count of Wied-Runkel at present resides. In the year 1755 the Capuchins of the Rhenish circle were allowed to build a cloister in the new built suburbs.

In the Lower county is New Wied, a small but regular built town seated on the Rhine, over which the count of New Wied and the elector of Cologne, in 1742, caused a flying bridge to be laid.

The dutchy of Westphalia terminates to the east on the bishopric of Paderborn, Waldec, and Hesse; to the south on the counties of Witgenstein and Nassau, and likewise on the dutchy of Berg; to the west on the same

and the county of the Mark; and to the north on the bishopric of Munster and the county of Lippe; extending fifty-five miles from north to south, and forty from east to west; but the dimensions both of length and breadth are unequal. It gives the title of duke to the elector of Cologne, to whom it is subject; though the duke is not reckoned among the states of this circle. This country has many woods and much venison, and in some parts abounds with corn and pasturage, and its

rivers run with an impetuous torrent from the mountains: but the towns in this dutchy, and particularly the city of Cologne, are already described in that electorate, to which they more properly belong, in treating of the electoral Rhenish circle.

There are several little counties in this circle, which we purposely omit, and also several lordships that are too inconsiderable to be mentioned in a work of this kind.

C H A P. XIX.

OF S W A B I A.

S E C T. I.

Of Swabia in general, and more particularly of the Circle of that Name. Its Climate and Produce. The Regulations with respect to the Diets of the Circle, to Religion, military Forces, and the general Government of the Country.

SWABIA, called by the Germans Schwaben, and by the French Souabe, derives its name from the Latin Suevia, the country inhabited by the antient Suevi, who were so called from their long hair, which they braided and tied, says Dr. Busching, like a schweif, or train. The greatest part of Swabia at present belongs to the circle of that name, which we shall now describe. It borders on the Upper circle of the Rhine, Franconia, Bavaria, Austria, and Swisserland, and contains about seventeen hundred and twenty-nine square German miles; it extending a hundred and ten English miles from north to south, and a hundred and thirty from east to west.

It is divided between several princes, bishops, and free cities; as the house of Austria, the dukes of Wirtemberg, the elector of Bavaria, and the princes of Baden; besides the imperial cities of Augsburg, Ulm, &c.

The air is healthy, and the soil in general fertile; and though some parts are mountainous and woody, yet the hills afford mines of silver, copper, and other metals; and the forests a great deal of pine or fir timber, besides great store of game, and a good breed of horses, horned cattle, and sheep; while the other parts yield considerable quantities of corn, wine, and flax: but we shall give a more particular account of the produce of this circle in treating of the different states into which it is divided.

The princes summoned to the diets of the circle are the bishop of Constance and the duke of Wirtemberg; but the latter is sole director, though he previously communicates to the former the deliberations that are to come before the circle. These diets are commonly held at Ulm, in time of peace twice a year. Each of the five benches has its director, who sets his seal to all the acts of the circle and other dispatches. The bishop of Constance is the perpetual director of the bench of ecclesiastical princes, as the duke of Wirtemberg is of that of the temporal princes. The directors of the benches of prelates and counts are chosen only for life. Ulm is perpetual director of the bench of the imperial towns; but Augsburg always votes first. The lesser assemblies here always consist of ten states of the circle, including the two princes nominated to it who frequently meet during the general convention of the circle, when affairs too prolix for the general assembly are to be discussed, and then they are stiled the ordinary deputation. The chancery and record-office belonging to the circle are at Stutgard, the residence of the directory of Wirtemberg. It has also stated diets, in conjunction with the circles of Franconia and Bavaria, for the assaying of coin.

In the year 1681 the military force of the empire, by a decree of the diet, was settled in time of peace at forty thousand men, and the quota of the circle of Swabia alone came to one thousand three hundred and twenty-one horse and two thousand seven hundred and seven

foot; a like assessment was also passed for the circles of Upper Saxony, Lower Saxony, Burgundy, Lower Rhine, and Westphalia. The number of troops in this circle constantly kept on foot consist of four regiments of infantry, each composed of twelve companies, one regiment of dragoons, and one of cuirassiers, each consisting of eight squadrons. The commander of the circle is stiled general field-marshal.

With respect to religion, this circle is reckoned among the mixed. It at present nominates to the imperial chamber two assessors, one of whom is a Catholic, the other a Lutheran. On the death of a catholic professor, his death is certified by the imperial chamber to the bishop of Constance, who acquaints the catholic states with this event, and by a majority of votes they elect one of the persons proposed by the bishop, or refer the nomination to him; after which the bishop presents the person to the imperial chamber. But when a Lutheran assessor dies, the imperial chamber makes it known to the duke of Wirtemberg, who certifies it to the margrave of Baden-Durlach, and the city of Ulm, by a writ from the imperial chamber, upon which, in conjunction with the other protestant states and members, they hold a meeting for the nomination of another person, who is proposed to the duke of Wirtemberg; and that prince not only presents to the imperial chamber the person thus nominated by the protestant states, but when he cannot concur with their nomination, may, as summoning prince of the circle, present another; or, when he approves the persons nominated to fill this dignity, presents them both in his own name and that of the protestant states to the imperial chamber, leaving the choice to those who are the best judges of their abilities.

Under the emperor Frederic III. the circle of Swabia was divided into four quarters, which division still continues, and on many occasions has been found to be beneficial. The head of the first is the duke of Wirtemberg, of the second the margrave of Baden, of the third the bishop of Constance and the abbot of Kempten, and of the fourth the bishop of Augsburg.

S E C T. II.

Of the Bishopric of CONSTANCE.

Its Situation, Extent, and Soil. The Titles and Arms of the Bishop: his hereditary Officers and Revenue. A Description of the Lake of Constance, and the Island Reichenau; with the Curiosities in the Abbey on that Island. Likewise a Description of the Cities of Mersburg and Constance.

THE bishopric of Constance lies on both sides of the lake of that name, and the borders of Swisserland, and is commonly reckoned among its allies; for indeed a part of it lies in Swisserland, as well as a part of it in Germany. It is seated to the south-east of Furstenberg, and to the east of the canton of Schaffhausen, extending about thirty miles from east to west, and twenty-four from south to north. In this bishopric the meadow grounds and ploughed lands turn to little account,

the soil being clayey, sandy, or marshy, and subject to inundations. In the towns and villages the only trade carried on is in wine.

The bishop of Constance styles himself, By the grace of God bishop of Constance, lord of Reichenau and Oehningen: by others he is termed The most noble prince and lord, &c. The arms of this bishopric are, a cross argent, in a field gules.

He has four hereditary officers, the hereditary marshal, the hereditary chamberlain, cup-bearer, and steward. The bishop votes in the imperial diet among the princes, sitting on the ecclesiastical bench between the bishops of Strasburg and Augsburg. The antient taxation of the bishopric in the papal treasury is two thousand five hundred florins; but in 1704 only four hundred and ten were paid for the confirmation of bishop John Francis.

The bishop's board-revenue, according to a report made from the chapter to the court of Rome in 1712, amounted only to twenty thousand florins. However, his whole annual revenue is by some authors computed at twelve or fourteen thousand pounds sterling, which is said to be chiefly raised by the toll on the lake and the Rhine. His chapter consists of twenty canons who attend the chair, and four who are expectants of vacancies.

The established religion of this diocese is the Roman catholic.

In describing the remarkable places in this bishopric, we shall begin with the lake of Constance, the broadest part of which extends into Swisserland, and that towards Germany divides itself into two arms, one of which is called the Zellersee, or lake of Zell, and the other the Bodmen, Uberlingersee, or lake of Uberlingen. In the latter is the island of Meinau, as in the former is that of Reichenau. The whole lake from Bregentz to Zell is also distinguished by two appellations; the part from Bregentz to Constance being called the Upper lake, and that from Constance to Zell the Lower lake: the latter is between twenty and thirty fathoms deep, and has along its banks near forty cities, towns and villages; yet the Upper lake surpasses it, for it has no less than fifty, and its greatest depth is said to be three hundred and fifty fathoms. Here is also its greatest breadth, for between Buchorn on the one side, and Roschach on the other, is no less than five leagues. Near Lindau and Bregentz, besides the fish commonly caught in these parts, is a kind of salmon-trout, which being pickled when full grown, are exported as a rarity. They are generally an ell and a half, or two ells long, and weigh between thirty and forty pounds. As the fishermen cannot always make a good market of such large fish, they tie a bit of wood to a line, which having passed through the fishes gills, they throw them again into the water, and tie the other end of the line to a stake near their huts. Thus, without any danger of losing the fish, they allow them a range of thirty or forty paces to swim in, and preserve them alive and sound, till they meet with a number of purchasers, or have an opportunity of selling one of them for some marriage, or other entertainment, where a fish of that magnitude is required.

In half an hour's sailing you may go from Zell to the island of Reichenau, which lies in the middle of the Lower lake, and on account of its fertility and the wealth of the abbey built there, is not improperly styled Reichenau, or Augia dives. The island is half a mile long, and abounds with fine vineyards and all kinds of fruit. The abbey is a handsome building, and so rich that the abbot had formerly five hundred vassals, and his yearly income amounted to above sixty thousand guildres. But since the year 1540, upon a representation from the bishop of Constance to the pope, that by the propagation of the Lutheran doctrines his revenues had been considerably diminished, this opulent abbey, together with that of Oehningen, were annexed to the see of Constance.

This abbey is particularly remarkable for the large emerald presented to it by Charles the Fat; but since the attempt, a few years ago, to rob the abbey, it cannot be seen without some difficulty; the prior, for its greater security, letting but few, even of the brethren of the or-

der, know where it is concealed. It is kept in a red wooden frame somewhat larger than a folio, and weighs twenty-eight pounds three quarters. Several jewellers have offered for it fifty thousand guildres per pound. This valuable stone is a parallelogram, only at one corner it is irregular, as if a piece had been broken off. At its greatest length it is three spans and a half, its short side is a span and a half, and it is two inches thick. Upon it is scratched the initial letters of some names; but such fancies are now no longer permitted.

In the church belonging to this abbey lies the above emperor Charles the Fat, once distinguished by his power, and the amazing extent of his dominions, but afterwards forsaken by every one; so that he died in extreme indigence, or was put to death by his own people at Neidingen, on the Danube, in 888. In the sixteenth century his tomb was repaired, and an epitaph added, which says, That "Charles the Fat, king of Swabia, and great-grandson of Charlemagne, having by force of arms entered Italy, and subdued it, was crowned Cæsar at Rome, and obtained the Roman empire; also, upon the death of his brother Lewis, all Germany and France fell to him by right of inheritance. But at length failing in courage, and growing weak in body and mind, he was, by a strange reverse of fortune, forsaken by all his friends, and buried in this obscure place. This tomb-stone is at present removed, and the building of the new sacristy occasions the grave itself to be concealed."

Upon the altar of this church the monks pretend to shew one of the water-pots used at the marriage at Cana in Galilee, of which upwards of twenty are shewn in other places, all of a different magnitude, colour, and shape. The convent also boasts of being possessed of the body of St. Mark the Evangelist; but this is disputed with them by the Venetians.

The next place we shall mention is Merzburg, or Morfpurb, a city seated on the lake of Constance, and the usual residence of the bishop, containing a seminary for the secular clergy and a convent for Dominicans. In the year 1647 the palace here was burnt down by the Swedes. The country in the neighbourhood of this city produces plenty of wine, and near it, in the lake, stands a cross on which is an inscription, importing that the lake is there two thousand nine hundred fathoms broad, and a hundred and eight deep.

Constance is an antient city seated on the lake of the same name, in that part where the Rhine issues out of it, in the forty-seventh degree forty-two minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree ten minutes east longitude. It was formerly an imperial city, but in 1548 was put under the ban by the emperor Charles V. it having then deserted the popish religion; but the next year Ferdinand I. brought it under the power of the house of Austria; and though the states of Swabia refused their assent, yet its subjection was ratified at the diet of Augsburg in 1559. The town is fortified, and has on the other side of the Rhine the fort of Petershausen for its defence. This city is of a middling size, and towards Lindau makes a good appearance; but the burghers are thought not to exceed five hundred and fifty. The pulpit of the cathedral is supported by a statue of John Huss, who was here sentenced to be burnt, and his being made to serve as a pedestal to the pulpit was intended as a mark of farther disgrace, though it seems more natural to admit of an honourable construction. It is here the current opinion among the superstitious vulgar, that the place where that reformer was burnt is cursed, so that no grass will grow upon it. Our guide, says Mr. Keyser, who was a substantial citizen, but a Roman catholic, was so infatuated with this notion, that he maintained it while we were walking about the place, which was covered with verdure; so that had we thought proper to enter into the dispute, we might have convinced him by appealing to his very senses.

It was once a rich city, and has a tolerable trade, by means of the lake and the neighbourhood of the Rhine. It is well built, and strongly fortified. The churches are magnificent, particularly St. Stephen's cathedral, though it is old; and the exchange, town-house, markets, bridges, and other public buildings, with the bishop's palace,

palace, are handsome structures. The suburb on the north side is separated from the city by the Rhine, over which is a bridge three hundred and thirty-six paces in length, under which is said to be a mill that moves sixteen mill-stones at once. The Jesuits have a college here, and an indifferent church; besides which here are five convents of friars, two nunneries, and four parish-churches.

This city has been famous for its councils. Thus in 1044, or 1045, an assembly of princes met here under the emperor Henry III. and put a conclusion to the troubles of Germany by what is called the peace of Constance, at a juncture when there were three popes, who were set aside, and a new one chosen, who in 1056 took the name of Clement II. In 1414 a council was also held here, summoned by the emperor Sigismund, upon three popes pretending to infallibility; one set up by the Italians, a second by the French, and a third by the Spaniards, who were all three deposed by this council, and Martin V. chosen in their room. The same council condemned the doctrines of John Wickliff, John Hufs, and Jerome of Prague, causing the bones of Wickliff to be dug up and burnt, and John Hufs and Jerome of Prague to be cruelly burnt alive, though the former had a safe-conduct granted him by the emperor; and this cruel and infamous council, which appears to be the most numerous ever held upon any occasion, made the canon, "That faith is not to be kept with heretics, nor with those suspected of heresy."

S E C T. III.

Of the Bishopric of AUGSBURG.

Its Situation, the Prerogatives of the Bishop, his Arms, and Revenue; with a particular Description of the City of Strasburg.

THE lands belonging to the bishopric of Augsburg lie scattered between the rivers Lech, Iler, and the Danube; but the greatest part of them near the former. This country extends beyond the Lech to the diocese of Ratisbon and Freysingen; southward to those of Brixen and Chur; westward to the bishopric of Constance, from which it is separated by the Iler; and northward beyond the Danube, to the bishoprics of Eichstatt and Wurtzburg. That tract of it which lies towards the Tirolese is very mountainous; but the rest principally consists of fine corn-land and pastures.

The prince and bishop of Augsburg sits and votes in the college of princes, between the bishop of Constance and Hildesheim, and in the diet of the circle of Swabia possesses the second seat among the ecclesiastical princes; he is also the head of that fourth quarter of Swabia, which lies between the rivers Lech, Danube, and Iler.

The arms of this bishopric are party per pale gules and argent.

The chapter of the cathedral consists of forty persons of quality, who must give proof of their nobility for sixteen descents. The temporal and spiritual colleges belonging to the diocese are the general vicariate, the ecclesiastical council and consistory, the regency, the treasury, and the court of fiefs. The episcopal revenue is estimated at near a hundred thousand rixdollars.

This bishopric is divided into fourteen prefectures, the principal places in which are the following:

Dillingen, the residence of the prince, is situated on the Danube, and had formerly counts of its own to whom it gave title. There is here an university, in which is a college of secular canons. In this town is also a college of Jesuits, with a convent of Capuchins, and two nunneries.

But the principal city in this bishopric is the imperial city of Augsburg, originally called Vindelica, and afterwards Augusta Vindelicorum, or Rhætorum, which lies in a fertile, healthy, and delightful country, in the forty-eighth degree twenty-three minutes, and in the tenth degree fifty-nine minutes east longitude, between the rivers Lech and Wertach, which unite near this place. Its utmost extent is about nine thousand common paces, and its length from the Red-gate to Fisher-gate four

thousand. The city is environed with ramparts, walls, and deep ditches, and has four large and six small gates, and between some of them a wicket of curious contrivance for admitting persons in the night-time. It is commonly divided into three parts; but others divide it into the Upper, the Middle, the Lower Town, and the suburb of St. James. Some of its streets are steep; but below these, it has others that are broad, and well paved, whence it may in general be termed a fine city. Besides the cathedral it has six popish parish churches, five monasteries, among which is a Jesuits college, the abbies of St. Ulrich and Afra, three nunneries, and six Lutheran parish churches, to which belong fourteen ministers, and a Lutheran gymnasium, in which is a good library. In the year 1755, the imperial Franciscan academy for arts and sciences was founded here. It has also several hospitals for the poor, for orphans, and sick people, with other charitable foundations.

But to be more particular, the town-house, which is reckoned the finest in all Germany, was completed in the year 1620, after being six years in building. At the top of the front, just below the pediment, is a large spread eagle cast in brass and crowned, said to weigh twenty-two hundred weight, and to have cost fifteen thousand German florins, or above one thousand eight hundred and seventy pounds sterling; it holds with its talons a gilt sceptre and globe. The great portal, which is twenty feet in height, and twelve in breadth, is of very beautiful red marble, adorned with a balcony supported by two handsome columns of white marble. In the great hall next the street are eight large pillars of red marble, fourteen feet and a half high. Here the city mainguard is kept, and are provided with six field pieces. Round the room are brass busts of the twelve Cæsars. In the upper story is a still larger hall supported by Corinthian columns of red marble, with bases and capitals of brass; the chambers contiguous have abundance of historical and political paintings, with well chosen sentences, exhorting the judges to observe impartial justice, prudence, peace, and the fear of God. In the third and uppermost, called Golden-hall, are fifty-three windows, which render it extremely light; but it has no columns, and instead of being arched, the ceilings are divided into a number of little brown and gilt compartments, on which as on the walls are good paintings. The floor is of red, white, and grey marble; but in the other halls only of white plaster. The height of this upper hall is fifty-two feet, and its breadth fifty-eight, and its length one hundred and ten. This noble room is adorned with fine pictures. The four contiguous chambers in which meetings are held for assaying of the coin, giving audience to envoys, and for other important affairs, bear the appellation of the four princes chambers, as having been the residence of the four electors who assisted at the election of Ferdinand IV. king of the Romans, in 1663. Every part abounds with historical paintings illustrated by ingenious inscriptions. The whole breadth of the town-house is one hundred and forty-seven feet, and the length of the front one hundred and ten; its height towards the west one hundred and fifty-two; but its eastern height measures one hundred and seventy feet.

In a square near the town-house is the fine fountain of Augustus, the most splendid in the city. It is a large marble basin surrounded by an iron balustrade, admirably wrought, with four brass statues as big as the life upon the edge, two of men, and two of women, supposed to represent four little rivers, the Lech, Wertach, Sinkel, and Source. In the middle of the basin rises a square pedestal, at the foot of which are four large sphinxes with water streaming from their breasts. A little above them are four infants holding four dolphins in their arms, from whose mouths the water spouts in plenty, and over these infants are festoons and pine-apples, all of brass. Upon the pedestal is a brazen statue of Augustus crowned with laurel, and armed after the manner of the antient Romans.

The most beautiful fountain next to this, is that called the fountain of Hercules, which has a large hexagon basin with several brass figures, particularly one of Hercules combating the hydra, which are by many good judges

judges esteemed better executed than those of the former.

The tower called Berlach, which stands near the town-house, has three hundred steps to the top, and above the weather-cock is the statue of a woman. In an area near this structure is a very fine tower adorned with the four seasons in brass, and in the center is the statue of the emperor Augustus with apposite inscriptions.

In the bishop's palace, which is but a mean building, is shewn the hall in which the Augsburg confession was presented to the emperor Charles V.

On the brass door of the cathedral is represented the virgin Mary taking Eve out of Adam's side. The monks of St. Ulric dispose of a dust or powder called St. Ulric's earth, recommending it in the name of that saint, who they pretend drove all the rats out of the city and neighbourhood into a hole which they shew in his church. This dust is dug up from the place where he lies buried. But as this effect has never been ascertained by naturalists, it must go for nothing, especially as this highly extolled earth fails of its power over the rats in other places.

On the fine well-contrived aqueducts for the conveyance of water from the Lech, are several corn, sawing, flatting, and smelting mills. There are here also water-works which throw that useful element to the top of five towers, from which it is conveyed through the city in such a manner, that the greatest part of the houses are supplied with water. The palaces of the counts of Fugger are very magnificent; and the Fuggery, as it is called, consists of one hundred and six small houses erected in 1579, by the brothers Ulric, George, and James Fugger, in James's suburb, for the reception of poor burghers and inhabitants, to whom they are let at a very small rent.

Augsburg has always been famous for ingenious artists, particularly in clocks, goldsmiths work, and ivory turning. There are here shewn clocks valued at fifteen or twenty thousand crowns each; but the worst is, they are so very nice as not to be durable. Their ivory work is no less admirable, and among the rest contain well shaped cups with a ring made of the same piece, which plays between the foot and bowl of the cup without a possibility of coming off. These are so nicely made in miniature, that the learned Mr. Keyser says, they inclose one hundred of them with their rings in a pepper corn of an ordinary size. Upon examination, the traces of the tool with which they were turned are visible. They have other curious baubles, as fleas fastened about the neck with steel chains, so finely wrought, that though they are a span long, a flea will lift up the chain when it leaps, one of these fleas with this curious chain, they sell for ten-pence. The trade of this city is very considerable, though it is much inferior to what it was formerly.

This city is very remarkable for the singular variety of habits worn by the inhabitants; this affair being so exactly regulated by the magistrates, that the difference of the religion, and quality of the people, are for the most part seen by their cloaths. For instance, says Mr. Misson, I saw a Roman catholic merchant's widow in mourning for her husband: she had a handkerchief well whitened and starched with wings and cornets, a black petticoat, and a cloak of the same colour made like that of a man's, which reached down to her knees, a large white veil behind hanging at the corner of her handkerchief, and reaching down to her heels, enlarging itself by degrees, and a piece of the same linen with the handkerchief four feet long, and at least two broad, very much starched, and stretched on a square of wire, fastened just below the hips, and covering all the fore part of the body.

The garrison of Augsburg usually consists of three hundred men, and the burghers are computed at six thousand. One half of the council is Lutheran, and the other half Roman catholic. The magistracy at present consists of forty-five persons, thirty-one of whom are patricians, four of such as have married the daughters of patricians, five of the body of merchants, and five of the commonalty.

This city in the diet of the empire possesses the second place on the bench of the imperial cities of Swabia; but in that of the circle has the first seat and voice. In the year 1686, an alliance was concluded here between the emperor, Spain, Sweden, and some other princes and circles, in opposition to France; but towards the conclusion of the year 1703 and 1704, it suffered much by the Bavarians and French.

To the jurisdiction of this city belongs the village of Oberhausen; but in ecclesiastical matters it is subject to the bishop, who, conformably to an agreement made in 1602, grants institution to the ministers.

SECT. IV.

Of the Dutchy of WIRTEMBERG.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce: The Number, Religion, and Manufactures of the Inhabitants. The Titles, Arms, and Prerogatives of the Duke. The Order of Hunters. The Revenues, Forces, and principal Towns and Palaces of Wirtemberg.

THE dutchy of Wirtemberg, or Wurtemberg, consists of a great number of towns and lordships, some of which were purchased, others devolved to the princes by marriage, and others were acquired by conquest. To the north it terminates on the bishopric of Spire, the Palatinate, the county of Hohenloe, and the district of the imperial city of Hall in Swabia; to the eastward it is bounded by the county of Limpurg, the districts of the imperial city of Ulm, the lordships of Rechberg and Wiesensteig, and the county of Oettingen; on the south-east by the Austrian dominions; on the south by those dominions, Brisgau, and other smaller districts; and on the westward it confines on Fursteinberg, the diocese of Strasburg, and the marquisate of Baden-Baden and Baden-Durlach, from which it is separated by the Black Forest. Its extent from north to south, exclusive of the most southern detached parts, is sixty-six miles, and it is of the same extent from east to west, without including the lordship of Heydenheim, which lies apart from it.

This is indisputably the most considerable and fertile part of the circle of Swabia, and is indeed one of the best countries in all Germany. This dutchy abounds so much in grain, that considerable quantities are exported; but this chiefly consists of spelt, rye and wheat being much less cultivated. Flax and hemp are also produced here, and the former thrive best in the coldest parts. The vallies formed by the skirts of the Alb, some of which are three or four hours in length, are covered as it were, with forests of fruit-trees, of which indeed there is no scarcity in most of the other parts of this country, cyder and perry being the liquors drank in common by the country people, when wine happens to be dear. This dutchy also abounds with very rich palatable and wholesome wine, called by the general name of Neckar, though each has a particular title of its own, which it receives from the part where the fruit grows. The grapes also that yield the best wines bear the name of the countries whence the wines were transplanted, as the Chiavenna, Valteline, and Hungarian. The vineyards of Wirtemberg have been much improved by the learned Mr. Bilfinger, who procured shoots from France, Italy, Hungary, Cyprus, and even Schiras in Persia, for his vineyard at Cantstadt, where most of them throve so well, that they have been transplanted from thence into many other vineyards.

The forests of this country are considerably decreased; for the consumption of oak in particular has been very large, and beech and birch now require to be used sparingly; but great quantities of turf are now dug, which makes up for the scarcity of wood for fuel. Great profits are made by grazing, particularly in the Black Forest. The largest breed of sheep is found on the Alb, and most parts of the country abound in game.

With respect to the minerals of this country, there are mines of silver and copper, and also some of iron; but the latter does not produce a sufficient quantity to supply the country. Sulphur is also met with in several places.

places, and many parts yield coal. *Terra sigillata*, reckoned preferable to that of Malta, and a fine clay for earthenware, are found here. In this country are also found fine variegated marble, some of which are equal to those of Italy, and remarkably transparent alabaster, agate, crystalline pebbles which cut glass, black amber, and fine mill stones.

Here are a considerable number of baths and mineral springs. The rivers which rise in this duchy are chiefly the following: the Neckar, which divides the duchy from north to south, and in the Lower Palatinate falls into the Rhine, being first increased by the Ens, the Fils, and Rems.

The number of inhabitants in this duchy is known with great certainty, an exact enquiry being made every year by the general superintendents, and reported to the annual synod. In the year 1754 were numbered four hundred and seventy-seven thousand one hundred and fifteen souls, and they have hitherto been observed to increase. In the duchy are also sixty-eight cities, with about twelve hundred boroughs, market-towns, villages, and hamlets.

The established religion of this country is Lutheranism; and though duke Alexander embraced the Roman, yet in 1729, 1732, and 1733, he gave assurances to the states, in formal instruments, that no innovation should be made in any part of the duchy, and that in all the churches and schools no other religion but that of Lutheranism should be taught; that no new Romish churches, chapels, altars, or images should be erected, nor any such as were forsaken again used; that no processions, pilgrimages, or catholic burying-places should be allowed; that the host should never be carried openly, nor any part of the catholic worship be performed, except only in the duke's chapel; but that the popish inhabitants of the town of Ludwigsburg should have the privilege of performing their service in private; that the privy-council should consist only of Lutherans; and that they alone should have the management of every thing relating to the church, the revenue, and the police.

The Calvinists are only tolerated here, and their place of worship at Stutgard is a private house. In this duchy are also some Waldenses, who are husbandmen, and live in the Italian villages, as they are called; only in a few towns they have established manufactures of hats and stockings, and are allowed the public exercise of their religion.

In the whole duchy are five hundred and fifty-five parishes, and about fifty deaconries, besides eight hundred and twenty-nine chapels of ease. The parishes are divided into thirty-eight special superintendencies, and those into four general ones. The special superintendents hold, together with their deanries, the parishes of the towns where they reside, annually visit the churches and schools within their department, once or twice a year convene the ministers subordinate to them, and make their report to the consistory.

This country has several considerable manufactures, as those of porcelain, potters-ware, the casting of plate-glass for looking-glasses, damask, and other linen and woollen stuffs; the printing of cotton, manufactures of silk, the making of hats and stockings, gilt and marble paper, &c.

The titles of the duke are, duke of Wurtemberg and Teck, count of Mompelgard, lord of Heydenheim and Justingen.

The arms for Wurtemberg are, three stags horns sable, in a field or: for Teck or, and sable lozenges: for Mompelgard, two barbels endorsed with tails averted, in a field gules: for Heydenheim, a Saracen's head, with a kind of hussar's cap gules, in a field or: for Justingen, azure, a staff in bend with branches on both sides; and lastly, the imperial standard borne by the ducal house of Wurtemberg, as hereditary standard-bearer of the empire.

The dukes are likewise grand-huntsmen of the empire; and, in allusion to this, duke Eberhard Lewis, in the year 1702, founded the order of hunters, and in 1719 renewed and increased its statutes, the reigning duke being always grand-master. The ensign of the order is a gold cross resembling that of Malta, enamelled with red,

and at each of the four corners a golden eagle, with a hunting-horn between the middle and lower point of each part. In the center is a small shield, on one side of which is a W in relievo, with a ducal hat over it; and in the other three golden hunting-horns. This cross is worn appendent to a broad watered scarlet ribbon, passing from the left shoulder to the right side. On the left breast of the coat is a silver star embroidered with the ensign of the order in the middle, and in a green circle round it *AMICITIÆ VIRTUTISQUE FOEDUS*. The grand festival of this order is on St. Hubert's day, which is also celebrated with a great hunting-match at the place where the grand-master happens to reside.

The duke of Wirtemberg, in virtue of this duchy, sits and votes in the college of princes, and is the summoning prince and director of the circle. Mr. Keyssler, in his travels, computes the whole revenue of this country at two millions of guilders per annum. The country itself levies the contributions and excise.

The duke's court is one of the most numerous in Germany, his liveries rich, his stables furnished with the finest horses, and his hunting equipages magnificent. He has a grand-marshal, cup-bearer, master of the horse, gentlemen of the bed-chamber, and twenty pages, all men of good families, many footmen, &c. He keeps in pay a body of horse-guards, horse-grenadiers, dragoons, and foot-guards, besides five regiments of foot, and a body of artillery.

The duke has several hunting-seats, which he visits alternately in the deer and boar seasons, so that every five years he sees his principal forests. It is an old custom all over the country of Wirtemberg, to adorn the chambers and galleries with the largest and most branching horns; so that it is natural to imagine, that the hunting-seats are still more plentifully supplied with these decorations. At Waldenburg, the name of the person who shot the deer is inscribed over most of the remarkable branches; and the walls of several rooms are filled with these marks of the duke's dexterity.

At Stutgard are the privy-chancery, in which the duke himself presides; the privy or ministerial council, consisting of nobles, men of letters, and officers; the college of government, which has a president, and among its members are also nobles and men of letters; the consistory, which has a president, director, and counsellors; the board of war, which has a president and other members; the treasury has a president, a receiver, a solicitor, and other officers; the ecclesiastical college has a director, administrators of the church revenues, and other members and officers; with several other boards, as those of the mint, trade, forests, domains, mines, &c.

In the high court of justice causes are terminated in the last resort, no appeal being allowed to the aulic or any other tribunal: this court was in 1514 removed for ever to Tubingen, where it holds its sessions once a year; and consists of a chief justice, assessors, who are composed of nobles, men of study, and country gentlemen, as also of a secretary. Mr. Keyssler says, that this court of judicature is a jewel equal to that of appeal among the other electors. A very considerable benefit arising from it, is the speedy administration of justice, the pleadings being verbal, and a sentence given every day. It is remarkable that the president, or chief justice, has during the sessions only three guilders *per diem*; the assistants, who are noble, two; and others, who do not live at Tubingen, one dollar; and such as are inhabitants a guilder, and a rundlet of wine presented to each assistant at the end of the session, which seldom lasts above six weeks.

It is remarkable that in all the cities, towns, and villages in this duchy, there are certain officers called private overseers, who inspect into the offences, clandestine meetings, and other misdemeanors of their fellow-citizens, and make their report to the magistracy of the place, that these matters may be farther inquired into. These private inquisitors, who take an oath to discharge their office with fidelity, receive no salary; but are generally rewarded with a counsellor's place, or some other office in the government. As nobody knows his accuser, this office may be attended with the most dreadful abuses, if these informations are considered as any thing more

than premonitions with respect to the judge, or as an incentive to more regularity and caution. This is pretty much of a piece with the secret informations of Venice; and I question, says Mr. Keysser, whether the like is to be met with in all Germany.

The principal places in this dutchy are Stutgard, Ludwigsburg, and Tubingen.

Stutgard, the capital of the dutchy, lies in a delightful country full of gardens and vineyards, on the bank of the Nisenbach, in the forty-eighth degree forty-seven minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree eight minutes east longitude. The city is not large, but contains two well built suburbs. The new ducal palace was begun in the year 1746. Near the old palace stands the chancery, which is a handsome structure built of stone, and on the other side of the palace towards the east are the menagerie and pleasure-house, the latter of which is admired for its curious architecture. It was erected in the year 1584 wholly of stone, and contains two stories, in each of which is a saloon. The hall has few equals in Europe; it is two hundred and twenty feet in length, eighty broad, and ninety high, without a single pillar; its roof, which is arched, being fastened in a masterly manner with wooden screws. In 1707 marshal Villars, the French general, entering this hall mistook it, and said with some admiration, *Voici un beau temple*; that is, "This is a fine church." On the roof are painted several scripture histories; but the sides are covered with views of all the forests of the dutchy of Wirtemberg, and some merry adventures that happened in the chace.

Near it is the orangery, which is composed of large and very high trees, but is not well contrived; for the want of height occasions many of the trees to bend at the top; and the grottos near it are not the most beautiful. The new building, as it is termed, is of fine free-stone, with a grand stair-case of the same, and a spacious hall, whose gallery rests on twelve lofty pillars, on which are painted the twelve months. The roof shews the most antient transactions of the family of Wirtemberg, and the sides are filled with masquerades and public entries, and a large painting of the battle of Hochstet. The uppermost chambers serve for armouries, and besides old and new armour contain some stuffed horses, that were particular favourites of the duke's, with stags, wild boars, and hounds. In the lower part are the duke's stables.

In the museum are several portraits of the ducal family, with petrifications, mechanical and mathematical instruments, curious pieces of penmanship and turnery, gems, costly vessels, mummies, and antient medals. Among other curiosities you see the picture of a woman with a large beard, as she appeared in 1587, when she was in her twenty-fifth year; her name was Barteld Gratje; and she is again painted as she looked in her old age.

In the dutchy-house both the committees of the country and the secular diets assemble. The see of the bishop, which was antiently at Beutelspach, was removed to this place in 1321, on which account the church of the Holy Cross is stiled the cathedral. Among the German Lutheran churches are the hospital church and St. Leonard's. The French Lutheran congregation have their public worship in the palace-church belonging to the convent of Bebenhausen, and the French reformed meet in a room of the old palace. In this town is also a special superintendency, and a *gymnasium illustre* of seven classes. The silk manufactories of Stutgard make all sorts of silk stuffs, stockings, and ribbons.

Ludwigsburg, a palace two leagues from Stutgard, is one of the finest palaces in Germany. The looking-glass and lackered closet are well worth seeing, as also the large stair-case for ambassadors, with its grand ceiling and the gallery of pictures. Among these are some admirable night-pieces, and many pictures of horses and dogs. The chapel belonging to the palace is very elegant, but rather too small. Opposite the lower part of the palace, on an eminence in the pheasant-garden, stands the Favorita, a most beautiful building in the newest Italian taste. Here is also a curious menagerie of foreign fowls; and the green-house is a very fine one.

Ludwigsburg is reckoned the second ducal seat, and third principal town. Towards the beginning of the

present century, there were here no more than two farm-houses; but Eberhard Lewis having built the palace, houses have been gradually raised near it, so as at length to form a handsome town, that lies higher than the palace, and is the seat of a general superintendency. Here are made linen damask, good cloth, and marble paper.

The city of Tubingen, which is situated on a mountain, consists of about five thousand inhabitants, and is famous for its university. The Ammer, Neckar, and Lustenauer vallies give this place such an agreeable situation, and beautiful prospects, as few cities in Germany can boast. The castle is now only considered as a hunting-seat, to which the duke usually comes with his court once in five years. It has good apartments, and in former times must have been reckoned very strong; for besides the steep declivity of the mountain, it is surrounded by a deep trench. It is every where vaulted underneath, and among other cellars is one that has not perhaps its equal. It is in a rock, and lined with free-stone, though it is three hundred feet in length, and twenty in height. The thickness of the arch of the cellar is twenty-two feet. This vault communicates with another, in which is a large well of fine clear water walled in, and three hundred fathoms deep. The undulating sound caused by dropping a stone, or firing a pistol down the mouth, has something amazing and dreadful.

Tubingen is esteemed the second town of the dutchy, and besides its university, has a *collegium illustre*, all the scholars of which are princes or counts; and it is never opened, but when youths of such families come to study there. Here is also a Latin school of four classes, and a special superintendency. In this town is a woollen manufacture.

Urach, a town in a district of the same name, is chiefly remarkable for there being near it on a high and steep mountain, a very extraordinary machine called the Wood-slider; it consists of a thick iron pipe about three feet broad, upwards of two feet high, and nine hundred feet long, through which the wood hewn in the forest beyond Urach, which abounds both in beech and fuel, after being cut into logs or billets, is carried down from the eminence with prodigious celerity, and thrown into the Erms, which forwards it into the Neckar, whence it floats to Berg near Stutgard, where it is at last stopped, and piled up in the duke's wood-yards. In this manner every year about Easter, upwards of nine thousand cords of wood are brought from the Alb to Stutgard, besides what is used in the duke's court. The produce of what is sold is applied to the payment of the ecclesiastical and civil officers.

SECT. V.

The Margravate of BADEN.

Its Situation and Divisions, with the Titles and Arms of the Margraves of Baden-Baden; its Situation, with a Description of Rastadt, and the Palace named Favorita. Of Baden-Durlach, the Palace of Carlsruhe, and the Town of Durlach.

THE margravate of Baden, or Baaden, is seated on the eastern side of the Rhine; it is properly the tract of land between the rivers Pfinz and Schwartzbach, and is watered by the little rivers Alb, Pfedderbach, Murg, Saubach, and Sultzbach, all which discharge themselves into the Rhine. The northern part of this country is called the Lower Margravate, or from Durlach its capital, the margravate of Baden-Durlach; but all the rest is termed the Upper Margravate, or from Baden its capital, the margravate of Baden-Baden. But to these margraves also belong other lands. The whole margravate is a fertile country, abounding with corn, hemp, flax, bees-wax, and wood.

The margraves of both titles descend from the same stock, and the titles of each of them are, Margrave of Baden and Hochberg, landgrave of Saufenberg, count Sponheim and Eberstein, lord of Roteln, Baden, Weiler, Lahr, and Mahlberg; but the house of Baden-Baden adds the districts of Ortenau and Kehl.

The arms for the margravate of Baden are Party per bend gules, in a field or: for Sanzenberg, a lion rampant gules, crowned or, in a field argent: for Sponheim, chequée gules and argent, azure and or: for Eberstein, a boar sable on a mount verte, in a field or, and a rose gules, with seeds azure, in a field argent: for the landgravate of Brisgau, a crowned lion gules, in a field argent: for Roteln, a lion passant gules, in a field gules, and two fesses waved argent, in a field azure: for Baden-Weiler, gules party per pale or, with three chevrons sable: for Lahr, argent per fesse gules: for Mahlberg, a crowned lion sable, in a field or.

We shall first treat of the margravate of Baden-Baden, which terminates to the westward on the Rhine, and a small part of it lies on the west side of that river; on the north-west it is bounded by the lower margravate of Baden-Durlach; on the eastward by the duchy of Wurtemberg, and the county of Eberstein; on the southward by a part of the bishopric of Strasburg, and the principality of Hesse-Darmstadt. The lordship of Mahlberg, which also belongs to this family, lies somewhat higher up the Rhine.

Baden-Baden has a vote in the college of princes, and among the temporal princes in the circle of Swabia. The margraves of Baden-Baden, and Baden-Durlach, are also the chiefs of the second quarter of the circle of Swabia. The principal colleges and offices of this prince are the privy council, the court of justice and treasury. His annual revenue, according to Keysser, is four hundred thousand florins.

The principal places belonging to the Upper margravate are the following:

Rastadt, a city regularly built, with a stately palace, or castle, the center of which affords a view of the streets. This palace was formerly adorned with a great number of fine paintings; but they were considerably diminished by father Meyer, who had such influence over the counsellors dowager, as to cause pictures to the value of fifty thousand guilders, which he judged too naked and libidinous, to be committed to the flames. This city is situated in a fine plain near the river Murg, which, a little below it, falls into the Rhine. It was built by the margrave Lewis William with regularity and elegance, and in the year 1714 a peace was concluded here between the emperor and France.

The Favorita is a beautiful seat at some distance from Rastadt, built by the widow of the margrave Lewis William. It has a chamber of very beautiful porcelain, and a cabinet lined with looking-glass, with many curiosities of art and nature, particularly above forty pictures in which that princess appears in the different masquerade habits she formerly wore. Amidst the gradual alteration of the complexion and features, in such a long succession of time, the same look is every where observable; and Mr. Keysser observes, that these fine portraits may be compared to the admirable performances of Rubens in the Luxemburg gallery, where queen Mary de Medicis is represented under a variety of changes. The hall reaches in height through all the stories, and its cupola, round which is a balustrade leading to all the several floors, is very lightsome, and adorned with beautiful paintings. Some of the other rooms are hung with a Chinese manufacture of paper and silk: another with lace-work; the ceiling of another is enriched with gems, as agate, jasper, cornelians, amethysts, &c. imitating fishes, birds, and flowers. There is also a magnificent table of the same workmanship. The excellent order of the kitchen, larder, hall, and medicinal-room, cannot fail of pleasing an œconomist; and accordingly that princess took no little pleasure in walking with her guests through these subterranean apartments.

On the left, at the end of a little orangery, is a pheasant-garden, and on the right a wild thicket leading to an hermitage which stands in the centre of it. The outer walls are covered with large pieces of bark. The door seems to rest on the trunks of old trees, and all that is to be seen on the inside are the coarse images of Jesus, Joseph, and Mary; the niches, like the doors, are supported by old trunks of trees. There is a mean bed without curtains; an altar without decorations; and at

the angles at the narrow walks in the garden stand wooden images of the old hermits as large as the life, some of them in hairy habits. In short, this hermitage owes its agreeableness to an exact imitation of the natural simplicity of a solitude adapted to devout contemplation.

The Lower margravate of Baden terminates to the west on the river Rhine, to the southward on the Upper margravate of Baden and the dukedom of Wurtemberg, to the eastward on the same dukedom, and to the northward on the bishopric of Spire.

The margravate of Baden-Durlach enjoys two votes in the college of princes, one for the Lower margravate of Baden, and the other for the margravate of Hochberg in the Brisgau. These countries likewise entitle him to two votes in the diet of the circle of Swabia, where he has a seat among the princes.

The great colleges here hold their sessions at Carlsruhe; these are the privy-council, the treasury, the chamber of accounts, the court of justice, the ecclesiastical-council, and the matrimonial-court.

The reigning family, and the country in general, profess Lutheranism; but the Calvinists, Papists, and Jews, are tolerated at Carlsruhe, and several other places. The whole country of Baden-Durlach contains a hundred and twenty parishes, which are under the inspection of seven superintendents.

The revenues of the prince are computed at four hundred thousand florins.

The city of Carlsruhe, or Charles's Rest, is seated in a district of the same name, that is one continued plain, every where sandy, yet produces corn, hemp, flax, turnips, peas, and other vegetables; and the villages along the Rhine abound in hay, and breed great numbers of cattle. The city receives its name from Charles William, who built it; and on the seventeenth of June, 1715, laid the foundation-stone of the palace there, on which occasion he instituted the order of Fidelity. This city has a *gymnasium illustre*, in which are eight masters, the four first of whom are styled professors. The Lutherans have several churches, the Calvinists and Catholics have also theirs, and the Jews a synagogue. The town is very regularly built, but both the houses and the palace are only of wood and brick; those houses that are near the palace are the largest, and have a range of piazzas.

The first object of attention in building of the palace, and for which no expence was thought too great, is the turret on the body of the building, from whence one has not only a view into all the main streets, which are divided by three cross streets; but also into twenty-five vistas, some set with trees, and others cut through the woods; and the beauty of the prospect is still heightened by other variegated walks in the same woods. Some of these walks bear the names of the ministers who served his highness at the time when these improvements were made, and most of the streets in the town are called after princes.

The garden, though small, is very elegant, it having no less than four thousand orange, lemon, bay, and other such trees; among which, says Mr. Keysser, two thousand seven hundred are orange-trees. In some of the lower parts of the garden are pretty espaliers of young lemon-trees; and behind the palace is a decoy, where about two thousand wild-ducks are daily fed. The chief defect in Carlsruhe is the want of water, and what the garden has is conveyed thither by hand-pumps.

In the upper district of Durlach, which is a very fruitful country that produces not only plenty of corn, hemp, and flax, but good wine, is Durlach, the capital of the margravate, and once the residence of the prince. It is seated on the river Pfingz, in the forty-ninth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree twenty minutes east longitude. It had formerly a palace called Carlsburg, with a special superintendency, and a grammar school; but in 1689 was laid in ashes by the French. At a small distance from the town is a very large decoy for wild-fowl; and in this district is Seehof, the mansion-house of a fine estate belonging to the prince, near which are most beautiful meadows for the use of his stables.

S E C T. VI.

A concise Account of the free imperial Cities of Swabia.

WE have already given a description of Augsbuꝛg in treating of that bishopric, and shall therefore begin with the city of Ulm, which is seated on an uneven spot of ground on the Danube, over which it has a stone bridge, in the forty-eighth degree twenty-three minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree six minutes east longitude. Here that river receives into it the Blau, which runs through a part of the city, and just beyond it is joined by the Iler. This city is pretty well fortified, but strangers are never suffered to go upon the ramparts without paying a guilder; the very burghers are under the same restraint: this being the privilege of the patricians and their friends, which solely proceeds from avarice; for these patricians share the hay and fruits that grow upon the ramparts among themselves, which makes them thus strictly cautious to prevent any diminution of their profit.

The inhabitants are mostly Lutherans, and to them belongs the cathedral, which is a large structure, that stands almost in the center of the city, and has seven ministers. The building is three hundred and sixty-five feet in length; and the windows, particularly six in the choir, are most beautifully painted, and one of them is said to have cost three thousand German florins. The steeple of this cathedral is four hundred and one steps high, and affords a most extensive prospect, all the adjacent country being level. The Lutherans have also the church of the Holy Ghost, that of the Bare-footed friars, and an hospital. The Roman catholic inhabitants perform their public worship at the convent of St. Michael at Wengen, in which are regular canons of the order of St. Augustine, and in the house of the Teutonic order. The Lutheran seminary is founded in a convent that formerly belonged to the Bare-footed friars. Among the other structures is the splendid foundation of Samlungstift, which is particularly appropriated for the daughters of patricians; and among the public civil buildings are the town-house and the arsenal.

The houses are for the most part of timber and plaister; they make but an indifferent appearance, and the streets are neither wide nor handsome; they have several squares, but they are mean and very irregular. It is reckoned near six miles and a half in circumference: its ditches, which are well fortified, are almost every where double, and on one side of the town the Danube runs through them with great rapidity, while the others are kept full of water by sluices. This city was once so rich, that it passed for one of the wealthiest in the empire; and the Germans were accustomed to say, "The ready cash of Ulm, the neatness of Augsbuꝛg, the industry of Nuremberg, and the arsenal of Strasburg, were the four wonders of Germany."

The magistracy here is Lutheran, and consists of forty-one members, above half of whom are patricians. This city maintains six companies of soldiers. Large quantities of wine are brought hither from the Rhine, the Neckar, the lake of Constance, and the Veltlin, and carried up the Danube. It also trades in linen and other goods. This city possesses the fourth seat on the bench of Swabian cities in the diet of the empire; but in the circle of Swabia has not only the second place on the Swabian bench, but the perpetual *directorium*. Here are kept the archives of the imperial towns in Swabia and Franconia, and the diet of Swabia is also usually held here.

The free imperial city of Esslingen is seated on the Neckar, eight miles to the east of Stutgard. What is properly called the city stands on a branch of that river, and contains St. Denis's church, together with the New or Dominican church, the *Frauenkirchen*, and another which belonged to the Bare-footed friars, the orphan-house, the grammar school, and the *collegium alumnorum*; as also the fine town-house, and the rich hospital of St. Catharine. It has three suburbs, namely, the Upper suburb, which, as well as the city, stands on a branch of

the Neckar; the suburb of Beuten, near which is the citadel; and the suburb of Bliensau, which is situated on an island between the main stream of the Neckar and the above-mentioned branch, and is famous for containing in it the arsenal of the circle of Swabia.

The principal church belongs to the Lutherans, who compose the magistracy; and the Roman catholics perform their public worship in the chapel of the stewards of the convent of Cayfersheim. In the diet of the empire this city possesses the fifth place on the bench of the imperial cities of Swabia; but the third on the bench of cities in the circle of Swabia. Esslingen is under the protection of the duke of Wirtemberg, by whose territories this city and the country belonging to it are surrounded. This city, in the year 1701, suffered greatly by fire.

The free imperial city of Reutlingen stands about five miles distant from Tubingen, on the little river Echetz, which runs into the Neckar. This city is small, and has only one parish-church, an hospital, an orphan-house, and a grammar-school. Both magistrates and burghers are Lutherans, and the former usually consist of twenty-eight persons, of whom the civil judge and twelve others are commoners. In the diet of the empire it is possessed of the sixth seat and vote on the bench of the imperial towns of Swabia; but in that of the circle, of the fourth on the bench of towns. It is also under the protection of the duke of Wirtemberg.

The imperial and free city of Nordlingen is seated in a pleasant fertile country on the river Eger, and till the year 1238 stood on the adjacent hills of Emeransberg; but being then consumed by fire, was built on the spot where it now stands. Almost all the burghers are Lutherans, who have three churches, and a Latin school; but the Roman catholics have their church near the German house. The magistracy are also Lutherans. This city likewise possesses a seat on the bench of the imperial towns of Swabia, and in the diet of the circle.

In the year 1647 it was besieged by the army of the empire for seventeen weeks, during which it suffered greatly by an accidental fire; and in 1702, a famous compact was entered into here between the five circles; after which this town was better fortified, as being a bulwark to the circle of Franconia against Bavaria.

We shall now describe the free imperial city of Hall, otherwise called Swabian-Hall, which, together with its territories, is seated on the river Kocher, between the counties of Hohenlohe and Limburg, the margravate of Anspach, and the dutchy of Wirtemberg. It is so surrounded by mountains, that it is not easy to approach it; and is divided from the suburbs by the river, over which is a stone bridge. The town consists of three parts, namely, of Old Hall, in which stands the principal church of St. Michael, with the college, the hospital, another church, and the salt-houses; of the part above the Kocher, in which stands the house of the order of St. John, and St. Catharine's church; and the third part is composed of Gelbinger-street. The city is Lutheran, and the magistracy consists of twenty-four persons, under the direction of two burgomasters, as presidents. The city owes its origin to its salt-springs, which are said to have given occasion to several noblemen to settle there, and among other buildings to erect seven towers of stone; whence the place at first obtained the name of Siebenburgen, or Seven-castles, and afterwards it became gradually enlarged, till it arrived at its present state. This city also possesses a seat in the diet of the empire, and in the circle of Swabia. It has several times suffered greatly by fire, particularly in the year 1728.

The imperial town of Uberlingen is seated on a rock, in a bay of the lake of Constance, and its moats are formed of so many stone quarries. The town is divided into three parts, the Upper Town, the Lower Town, and the Gallenberg. The inhabitants are of the Romish religion, and have a collegiate church dedicated to St. Nicholas, a house of the order of St. John, an imperial hospital, three convents, and two other churches. Near the town is a good mineral spring. Uberlingen possesses a place in the diet of the empire among the imperial towns of Swabia, and among those of the circle.

The

The free imperial town of Rothweil is seated on an eminence by the Neckar, and its territories border on those of the dutchy of Wirtemberg. The inhabitants are of the popish religion, and there are here a monastery of the order of St. John, a college of Jesuits, and three convents. It enjoys the same privileges as the other cities, in having a representative at the imperial diet, and in that of the circle.

Heilbron, a free and imperial city, is seated on the Neckar, in a very pleasant and fruitful wine-country on the borders of the dutchy of Wirtemberg and the Palatinate. It received its name from Heilbron, which signifies Health-spring, from a spring that, by means of several conduits, supplies the city with excellent water in seven different places. It is not used medicinally, as it was formerly, but continues in great repute for its extraordinary clearness and salubrity. To the use of this spring the emperor Charles V. attributed his recovery from a dangerous fit of sickness. This event is commemorated by the following inscription in High Dutch, which Mr. Keyser observes is to be seen on a house belonging to the prelates of Sconthal, but at present inhabited by the post-master: "On the twenty-fourth of December, 1546, the emperor Charles V. was brought hither in a litter; and on the eighteenth of January, 1547, he rode from hence in perfect health on horseback." On each side of this monument stand Fortitude and Clemency, with four other virtues, and two crowned pillars, with the inscription PLUS ULTRA. In this house is also to be seen a portrait of Charles V. which he left behind him when he went away. It is well executed, and resembles all the portraits of that emperor done by Holbein. Our author mentions there being one year such plenty of wine in this country, that the inhabitants had not a sufficient number of casks to put it in, and that wine of the growth of the year 1725 was sold for half a creutzer, or about a farthing a quart.

The city of Heilbron is well built, and has three parish-churches, the principal of which is dedicated to St. Kilian. The college and town-library are in a convent that formerly belonged to the Minorites. There is here also a mansion-house, and commandery of the Teutonic order, with a nunnery of the order of St. Clare. The form of government is aristocratical, and the magistrates, as well as most of the inhabitants, are Lutherans. Heilbron was for a considerable time under the protection of Wirtemberg, and afterwards under that of the elector Palatine. It possesses a seat in the diet of the empire among the imperial towns of Swabia, and in the bench of those on the circle.

Gmund, or Gemund, another free and imperial town, is seated on the Rems, on the borders of Wirtemberg. The inhabitants are of the Romish religion, and have five churches, the principal of which is that of the Holy Cross. There are here also four monasteries and two nunneries. The magistrates are elected out of the body of the people. This city enjoys the same privileges as the rest, with respect to the imperial diets, and those of the circle.

The free imperial town of Memmingen is seated in a beautiful and fertile plain on a small river called the Aach, which runs into the Iler. This town is Lutheran, and its principal church of St. Martin belongs entirely to those of that communion; but the church of Our Lady is possessed in common by them and the Roman catholics. There is here also an Augustine monastery, with a church, a Franciscan nunnery, a monastery belonging to the monks of the Holy Cross, with an hospital near it, in which is a church, a chapel dedicated to the wise-men of the East, a small church, and another hospital near the church of Our Lady. The magistrates are of the Lutheran religion, and consist of nineteen persons, part of whom are patricians, and part chosen from the body of the people. This city has also a representative at the imperial diet, and in that of the circle. The inhabitants carry on a good trade with Swisserland, Italy, and the other neighbouring countries in Bavarian salt, home-spun linen, corn, hops, and other goods.

Lindaw, or Lindau, is an imperial city situated on an island in the lake of Constance; but has a communication

with the continent by means of a very large wooden bridge; and is divided by an arm of the lake, so as to form another smaller island that is separated from the city, and consists of vineyards and gardens, and is walled quite round. Hence, on account of its situation, it has been stiled the Venice of Swabia. The parish-church is dedicated to St. Stephen: it has also a well endowed hospital, and a grammar-school, consisting of four classes. The castle, and the heathen-wall, as it is called, stand near the gate at the bridge which leads to the continent, and are supposed to be Roman works; the latter of which is attributed to Tiberius Nero, and the former to Constantinus Chlorus, at the time of their encampment in this island, during their expeditions against the Vindelici and Alemanni. It is also supposed that near this castle formerly stood a town, and that the little church of St. Peter was built on the first introduction of Christianity into this country.

There is here an imperial abbey, the abbess of which is a princess, who holds the first seat in the imperial diet among the abbesses on the Swabian bench of prelates, and has also a seat in the secular bench of princes in the diet of the circle. It is remarkable that every abbess, on her accession to her government of the abbey, has the privilege of releasing the first malefactor capitally condemned within the jurisdiction of the city.

The magistracy consist of the privy and large-council. The city had formerly a provincial tribunal, but ever since the end of the fifteenth century this has been annexed to Altorf, and Lindaw annually pays two tons of wine, as an acknowledgment to the prefecture of Altorf. This city has a place among the imperial cities on the Swabian bench of the diet of the empire, and in that of the circle of Swabia. At the diet held here in 1496, was established the chamber of justice. In 1647, it held out a siege of nine weeks against the Swedes, who were at last obliged to retire; and, in 1728, a considerable part of the city was consumed by fire.

The imperial town of Dinkelsbühl is seated on the Wernitz, near the margravate of Anspach, and stands on three hills, on which formerly grew spelt, whence its arms are an ear of spelt or. The inhabitants are a mixture of Lutherans and Roman catholics, the latter of whom are possessed of the great church, and two convents; but the former of the hospital church, their own consistory, and two German schools. The magistracy here is one half Lutheran and the other Roman catholic. This city enjoys the same privileges with the rest with respect to the diets of the empire and the circle.

Biberac, another imperial city, is seated on the little river Reis, or Rufs, in a pleasant fruitful valley, surrounded with hills, fields, gardens, and meadows. Its name signifies the residence of bevers, and it is thus called from the number of those animals near it; hence its arms are azure, a bever crowned or. Half of the magistrates are Lutherans, and half Roman catholic. St. Martin's, or the great church, and the rich hospital, with its church, are common to both sects. The Lutherans are also possessed of the church of St. Mary Magdalen, and each of them have a grammar-school. Its deputy has a seat in the diet of the empire, and also in that of the circle. There are here many weavers, and its principal trade consists in fustians.

The imperial city of Ravensburg is seated in a valley on the Schufs, a small river that falls into the lake of Constance. It has four gates, many convents, a handsome town-house, and the churches are well built. In the middle of the town is a high watch-tower, in the place of one blown down by a whirlwind in 1552, on which is an inscription, that the watchman, or trumpeter, who, according to custom, sounds the hour of the night, fell down from the top with the tower, without receiving the least hurt, while his wife and son, who were below, were killed. The Lutherans and Catholics are on the same footing with each other, both with respect to spiritual and temporal affairs, and the magistracy is shared between them. The church situated near the Carmelite convent is common to both sects; but the Trinity church is in the possession of the Lutherans alone, and the Roman catholics have two parish-churches.

It has also a seat in the general diet, among the imperial cities on the bench of Swabia, and on the bench of the circle.

Kempten, an antient imperial city, is seated on the Iller, which flows between the town and the suburbs. Both the burghers and magistrates are of the Lutheran religion, and have a handsome parish-church, and a grammar-school.

In this city is a very antient Benedictine abbey, which Hildegard, consort to Charlemagne, repaired in the year 775, and if she was not the original foundress, she settled on it her share of her mother's inheritance, in acknowledgment of which the abbey took her image for its coat of arms. The prince and abbot of Kempten is grand-marshal to the empress, and at her coronation takes from her the sceptre, which he afterwards delivers back. He has a seat in the imperial college of princes, and in the diet of the circle of Swabia; as the city of Kempten has among the cities on the bench of Swabia, and in that of the circle. In the year 1633 this city was taken sword in hand by the Imperialists, with the slaughter of at least two-thirds of the burghers.

The imperial city of Kautbeuren is situated in a valley on the banks of the Wertach. The burghers are partly Lutherans and partly Roman catholics; but its magistracy consists of eight Lutherans, and only four of the Romish religion. In the town court and great council all the members are Lutherans, except two Roman catholics. Here are a college of Jesuits, and a Franciscan nunnery. This town has likewise a seat among the imperial towns on the bench of Swabia in the general diet, and in the diet of the circle.

Weil, also called Weilerstadt, in Latin Wila, is an imperial town seated on the river Wurm, and surrounded by the dutchy of Wirtemberg. The Popish religion prevails here. The parish-church of St. Peter was formerly collegiate. Here is also a convent of Augustine and Capuchin monks, together with a rich hospital. This city enjoys the same privileges as the rest with respect to the diets. In the year 1388 count Ulric of Wirtemberg lost his life in a battle near this city, and in 1648 it was taken by storm by the French.

Wangen, together with its district, is seated on the river Argen, and is but a small place, notwithstanding its having the same privileges with respect to the diets. The inhabitants are Papists, and have here a parish-church, an hospital, and a convent of Capuchins.

Isny, another imperial town, is seated on the river of the same name in the Algau. Its magistrates, and the greatest part of the burghers, are of the Lutheran religion; but among the latter are some Roman catholics. Here is an abbey of Benedictine monks. It has a place in the diet of the empire, and in the circle of Swabia among the other imperial towns. In 1721 it suffered extremely by fire.

The antient imperial town of Leutkirch is seated on the river Eschach, which a little below this place runs into the Aitrach. It has a Lutheran and Roman catholic church, together with a nunnery of Franciscans; but the greatest part of the magistracy are Lutherans.

The antient and imperial town of Wimpfen, in Latin Wimpina, was in the time of the Romans called Cornelia. It is seated on the river Neckar, and properly consists of two towns, the most considerable of which is called Wimpfen on the hill, and the other Wimpfen on the vale. In the former is a Lutheran parish-church, a grammar-school, and a popish hospital, or foundation of the order of the Holy Ghost: in the latter is a popish abbey dedicated to St. Peter, and a convent of Dominican monks. The magistracy are, however, composed entirely of Lutherans. In 1726 a sharp action happened here between count Tilly and the margrave of Baden-Durlach. In 1645 and 1688 Wimpfen was taken by the French.

Giengen is seated on the river Brenz, and is entirely surrounded by the dutchy of Wirtemberg. The inhabitants are of the Lutheran religion, and enjoy the same privilege of sending a deputy to the general diet of the imperial towns of Swabia, and in that of the circle, as all the other imperial towns. In 1634 this place was entirely destroyed by the Imperialists.

The little free imperial towns of Pfullendorf, Buchorn, Alen, Bopfingen, Buchau, Offenburg, Gengenbach, Zell, and Hammersbach, are scarce worthy of any description, since they are inconsiderable places, and are only distinguished by their having a seat in the diet of the empire, among the imperial towns on the bench of Swabia, and in that of the circle.

S E C T. VII.

Of the small Principalities of Hohenzollern and Furstenberg, the Counties of Oettingen, and Eberstein, with the Lordship of Mindelheim.

THE principality of Hohenzollern is a fruitful country advantageously situated in a narrow tract near the Danube, between Furstenberg and the dutchy of Wirtemberg. It took its name from the castle of Zollern, which stands by a river of the same name, and is a long and narrow tract extending about thirty-four miles in length, and about ten where broadest; but in other places scarce five. It is tolerably fertile, and is governed by its own princes.

The family is divided into the two branches of Hechingen and Sigmaringen: each reigning prince has a council and treasury; but the former alone has a vote in the college of princes, though both have a voice in the diet of the circle.

The titles of the reigning princes are, Prince of Hohenzollern, burgrave of Nuremberg, count of Sigmaringen and Voringen, lord of Haigerloch and Wohrstein, and hereditary chamberlain of the Holy Roman empire; yet the annual revenue of the prince of Hohenzollern-Hechingen is computed to amount to no more than thirty thousand florins, and that of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen does not exceed this sum.

The former of these princes resides at Hechingen, which is seated on the river Starzel, and has an abbey dedicated to St. James. The residence of the latter is at Sigmaringen, a town seated on the Danube.

The principality of Furstenberg is a narrow tract, which, according to some authors, extends about seventy miles in length on both sides the Danube, which has its source within its limits; but no where exceeds eighteen miles in breadth; but this account does not seem to be very accurate, and Dr. Busching, who is extremely explicit in some particulars, takes no notice of its form and extent. The county of Heiligenberg, which composes a considerable part of this principality, is bounded on the east by Konigssee and Ravensburg, on the east it terminates on the territory of Constance, to the west it borders on the jurisdiction of Uberling and Petershausen, and to the north on the imperial town of Pfullendorf and Hohenzollern.

The prince of Furstenberg is entitled to six votes in the diet of the circle, two among the princes for Heiligenberg and Stuhlingen, and four among the counts and barons, as lord of Moskirch, Baar, Hansen, and Gundelfingen. In the imperial diet he possesses only one vote in the college of princes, and another vote in the college of the counts of Swabia, for Heiligenberg and Werdnberg.

There are no places in this principality worthy of a particular description, there being only a few small towns and villages.

The county of Oettingen lies to the east of the dutchy of Wirtemberg, extending about eighteen miles between the marquisate of Anspach on the north, and the dutchy of Neuburg and the Danube on the south: its greatest breadth is about twelve miles. The lords of this country are divided into three branches; but all the three lines have one custom-house and steward in common, which are both accountable to the chamber of regency. The inhabitants are partly Roman catholic and partly Lutheran. The country is divided into four prefectures, the principal place of which is

Oettingen, the capital of the county, and the residence of the princely line of Oettingen-Spielberg, is seated on the Wernitz, and is the seat of the regency and treasury, and also of the Lutheran consistory of the princes and counts in common. There are here a society for the improvement

provement of arts and sciences; a grammar-school, a college of Jesuits, a commandery of the Teutonic order, and an orphan-house.

The county of Eberstein lies in the Black Forest, between the dutchy of Wirtemberg and the margravate of Baden, and is watered by the Murg, by means of which a great number of floats of timber are carried into the Rhine. It belongs to the margrave of Baden-Baden, to whom it gives an additional seat and vote in the college of Swabian counts at the diet of the empire, and also in that of the circle. This county contains

Eberstein, a market-town, near which is a castle.

Gerspach, a small town seated on the river Murg, the inhabitants of which are a mixture of Protestants and Papists.

In this county is also a Benedictine abbey for ladies, called Frauenalb, from its being seated on the river Alb; and likewise several villages.

There are some other little territories too minute for description in so extensive a work as this; we shall therefore only add the following lordship:

Mindelheim is situated between the bishopric of Augsburg on the north-east, and the territories of the abbey of Kempten on the south-west. It is a pleasant fruitful territory, about ten miles square. In the beginning of the last century duke Maximilian of Bavaria made himself master of it, and transmitted it to his descendants; but the elector of Bavaria being put under the ban in the year 1706, the emperor raised this lordship to a principality, and conferred it as a fief on the most illustrious duke of Marlborough, who was created a prince of the empire, and also invested with a seat and vote, not only on the bench of princes of the circle of Swabia, but likewise in the imperial diet. However, by the peace of Rastadt and Baden, in 1714, Mindelheim reverted again under its antient title of a lordship to the elector of Bavaria, who on that account enjoys both a seat and vote on the bench of counts and barons of the Swabian circle.

Mindelheim, the capital, is situated in a plain on the river Mindel, about twenty-seven miles to the south-west of Augsburg, and is an open town, with a castle on a hill, built more for ornament than defence: it has a parish-church, a college of Jesuits, a gymnasium, and a Franciscan convent.

S E C T. VIII.

Of the Austrian Countries in Swabia not included within the Circle, and the principal Places they contain.

THE extent of the imperial dominions in Swabia cannot be determined, with respect to their length and breadth, with any degree of certainty, they being in many places intersected by other territories.

This country is of moderate goodness; it produces all sorts of corn, and towards the lake of Constance, like-

wise wine. The countrymen, who are Roman catholics, subsist here in summer by labouring in the fields and vineyards, and in winter chiefly by spinning.

This part of Swabia is divided into Upper and Lower jurisdictions; in the former are thirteen prefectures, and in the latter ten divisions, the principal places in which are,

Rotenburg, a small town seated on the Neckar, and in the lower county of Hohenberg. It was destroyed by an earthquake, in the eleventh or twelfth century; but was afterwards rebuilt, and at present contains a citadel, with a fine college of Jesuits, and a Carmelite cloister. Before the gate stands a celebrated church named Weckanthal, and in its neighbourhood is a medicinal spring.

In this part of Swabia is Austrian Brisgaw, which lies on the east side of the Rhine, that river dividing it from Alsace; it is seated between the Ortenau on the west, and the principality of Furstenberg on the east. The principal places in this district are the following:

Freyburg, the capital of the province, is seated in the river Treisam, and was formerly an important fortress. It has been three times taken by the Swedes, and as often by the French, who in 1745 demolished its fortifications. It has a regency appointed over a part of the Austrian territories in Swabia, an university, a college of Jesuits, and several cloisters.

Old Brisach, thus called to distinguish it from New Brisach, which belongs to the French, and is seated on the other side of the Rhine. Old Brisach is seated on an eminence, and was formerly an excellent fortress, which in 1688 was taken by the French; but in 1697 was again restored, and in 1703 was taken a second time; but in 1715 was again given up to the house of Austria; but at length, in 1741, the present empress caused the fortifications to be razed.

Rheinfelden, one of the forest towns, is seated on the south side of the Rhine, and is defended by good fortifications. On the opposite bank of that river is a covered way built in the manner of a horn-work, and having a communication with the town by means of a bridge. The Rhine at this place runs with great violence into a rocky tract a mile in length called the Gewild, through which ships are let down by ropes.

Villingen, a town situated in a fertile tract on the Briege. The streets are regularly laid out and well paved. This place, by means of the circumjacent mountains, and narrow passes leading to it, is extremely well secured. It has also some fortifications: hence in 1633 and 1634 it was besieged in vain, and in 1704 bombarded without effect by the French, though it had been taken by them in 1688. It has always served the Austrians as a magazine for provisions and military stores. It has an abbey of Benedictines, and in its neighbourhood is a good bath.

C H A P. XX.

Of the Circle of B U R G U N D Y.

S E C T. I.

Of the Circle of Burgundy in general ; with a particular Account of the Austrian Share of the Dutchy of Brabant. Its Situation, Rivers, Government, and Arms ; with a Description of its principal Cities, particularly Louvain, Brussels, Antwerp, and Mechlin.

THE tenth and last circle of the German empire is that of Burgundy ; but the greatest part of its territories have been torn from it. France has gradually brought under her dominion the dutchy of Lorrain, which was formerly reckoned in this circle, and also a part of the dutchy of Luxemburg, together with a part of the county of Flanders, and the counties of Artois and Burgundy, or French Compté, and a part likewise of the counties of Hainault and Namur. The provinces of Gueldres, Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Overysse, and Groningen, have raised themselves to liberty and independency ; nay, after their union, by the force of arms, they reduced to subjection a part of the dutchies of Brabant and Limburg, and likewise of the county of Flanders, with the city of Maestricht, and its territory. Lastly, the king of Prussia has also the possession of a part of Upper Gueldres.

Thus the circle of Burgundy at present consists only of the principal part of the dutchies of Brabant, Limburg, and Luxemburg ; and also of a part of the counties of Flanders, Hainault, Namur, and a part of the upper quarter of Gueldres. These territories, which, together with the Netherlands, devolved, on the death of Charles V. to the Burgundian Spanish line of the house of Austria, fell, after the death of Charles II. king of Spain, to the German line of the house of Austria, the emperor Charles VI. having, by the peace of Baden in 1714, and by that of Vienna in 1725, secured them to his house, and after his death they came to his daughter and heiress Maria Theresa.

This circle is wholly Catholic.

The Burgundian envoy sits at the imperial diets in the council of the princes of the empire ; and the Austrian governor-general resides at Brussels.

We shall begin this circle with the Austrian share of the dutchy of Brabant, which terminates to the north, on that part of the dutchy possessed by the republic of the United Provinces, to the east on the bishopric of Liege, to the south on Hainault and Namur, and to the west on Flanders and Zealand. The whole dutchy, which is a hundred and four miles in length, and ninety-five in breadth, was formerly the first in rank of all the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands. The southern part of this dutchy is very mountainous.

The air of Brabant is good, and its soil very fertile. Its greatest riches consist in its flax.

A part of the country is watered by the river Demer, which receives into it the lesser rivers of Gheete, Dyle, Senne, and Nethe ; after which it takes the name of Rupel, and loses itself in the Scheld, which, to the west, borders on Brabant.

Near Brussels a canal has been carried on from the river Senne to the village of Willebroec, where it discharges itself into the river Rupel, which soon after unites in such a manner with the Scheld, that a person may sail from Brussels to the North sea. This canal was begun in 1550, and finished in 1561, at the expence of eight hundred thousand florins. In 1753 a canal was begun to be carried on from Louvain to the Rupel, which divides the Dam between the Louvain and Mechlin into two equal parts, and is now brought to bear. Among other public works a stone causeway between Louvain and Brussels was built in 1710, and another in 1726 reaching from Louvain to Thienen and Liege.

The whole country professes the Romish church ; and in 1559 an archbishopric was erected at Mechlin by Pope Paul IV. under whom are fourteen collegiate churches and two hundred and three cloisters. To the same archbishopric are subject the prelates of Antwerp, Ghent, Boisleduc, Bruges, Ypres, and Ruremond.

For the promotion of learning in this country here are several schools and seminaries, as also the university of Louvain.

The states of Brabant consist of three classes, the abbots of a number of towns, and all the princes, dukes, counts, and barons of this province, with the burgomaster and pensioners of the towns of Louvain, Brussels, and Antwerp. This college usually meets four times a year, when it chooses four deputies, namely, two out of the clergy, and two out of the nobility, who have their meeting daily. There is also a council pensioner, who is perpetual secretary of the college.

The arms of this dutchy are a lion or, in a field sable.

Both the above states and the chancery of Brabant meet at Brussels, and at the same place are also the state council, the privy council, the domain and finance council, the rent chamber, and the chief court of Brabant.

In the Austrian part of Brabant are reckoned nineteen walled cities, and a considerable number of immunities or boroughs, the inhabitants of which enjoy the rights of burghers. The principal places in this dutchy are Louvain, Brussels, Antwerp, and Mechlin. We shall begin with the first.

Louvain, called by the natives Loeven, and in Latin Lovanium, is seated on the river Dyle, and is of very considerable extent ; but while some represent the circle within the walls as twelve English miles, others affirm that the walls are only six or seven miles round. It was formerly the capital of the country, and had a flourishing trade from the manufactures of linen and woollen established there, which in the beginning of the fourteenth century, maintained upwards of one hundred and fifty thousand manufacturers ; but the cloth weavers making an insurrection in 1382, and being punished on that account, a great number of them withdrew to England, and together with its manufactures, the city also decayed ; but its trade has been attempted to be revived by making the new canal.

Within the walls are large meadows, beautiful vineyards, with pleasant gardens and orchards. It stands in the fifty-first degree twelve minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree forty minutes east longitude, in a very fruitful soil, and in so pleasant and fine an air, that wine is made both within the walls and without.

The town-house is a fine building in the old taste, adorned with statues on the outside, and much embellished within. The magistrates meet here twice a week, and are more numerous than in most other towns in the Low Countries ; for they have two burgomasters, seven aldermen, two recorders, six secretaries, and four treasurers, besides a council of twenty-one, eleven of which are country gentlemen, and the other ten are deacons of the trades.

The city contains five parish churches, which are very noble structures, and among them the collegiate church of St. Peter is one of the most magnificent in the whole country. Its steeple has been esteemed a master-piece ; it was five hundred and thirty feet high, and on each side of it was another four hundred and thirty feet in height ; but the larger steeple was blown down in a storm in the year 1606. The chapter of this church consists of a provost, a dean, a chanter, eighteen honorary prebends, and ten canons, who must all be professors of different sciences in the university. The chapels belonging

ing to this church are finely adorned with sculpture and painting.

Without the town is a college of Jesuits, fifteen monasteries, and as many nunneries. The church belonging to the Jesuits convent was built in 1666, and would pass for a beauty even at Rome. Their pulpit of oak is the finest piece of that kind in the world: on the bottom is represented the fall of man, and above, the redemption of man by the virgin's treading on the serpent's head. Among the nunneries, the convent for the English is the finest in the Low Countries, and very richly endowed.

The university was founded in 1425, by duke John IV. and contains forty-one colleges. It enjoys very great privileges, granted by the popes and the dukes of Brabant. The principal person in the university is the rector magnificus, who enjoys his office for three months; but is generally continued for three more. He is chosen from among the professors of the five faculties, divinity, the canon law, the civil law, physic, and the liberal arts. Here are two other honourable posts, that of conservator of the privileges of the university, and the chancellor: the former is elective, and the latter annexed to the provostship of St. Peter's church. The hall where the public exercises are performed, is a large building of freestone, and a great ornament to the city, and in it are three spacious rooms, where lectures are read in divinity, law, and physic, to which the scholars in every college may resort.

In the year 1542, Martin Rossem, the general of the Guelderlanders, attacked this city without success. In 1572, William prince of Orange besieged it; but the burghers, assisted by the students, made so brave a resistance, as to oblige him to raise the siege. In 1635 it was besieged in vain by the French and Dutch, and on the fifth of August 1710, the French entered the city by surprize; but were bravely repulsed by the inhabitants, who obliged them to retire in confusion; for this Charles V. king of Spain, and afterwards emperor, sent them a golden key, which is still kept as a curiosity in the town-house. However, in 1746, the French made themselves masters of this place, and kept it till the year 1749.

The territory belonging to the jurisdiction of Louvain is very large, and contains eighteen large manors, or districts.

Brussels, called by the French Bruxelles, and in Latin Bruxellæ, is the capital of Brabant, and the usual residence of the governor-general of the Netherlands; it is seated on the little river Senne, which runs through it, in the fiftieth degree fifty minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree six minutes east longitude. This city makes a noble appearance, it being on the brow of a hill, and from below, the whole of it is seen. Indeed, no city in Europe makes a more beautiful figure at a distance, except Naples and Genoa; and like them, when you are in the town, it is all up and down hill. It has seven gates, out of each of which are large suburbs, in which the citizens have their gardens. The city is surrounded with a double brick wall and a pretty large interval between, and small ditches; but the place is too big to hold out a long siege, it being about seven miles in circuit.

The streets are very spacious, though steep, and the houses are generally pretty high. Here are seven fine squares, among which that of the great market-place is one of the most beautiful in Europe. The town-house where the magistrates meet, takes up one side, and is a noble pile, which has a tower about three hundred and sixty-four feet high, with a statue on the top, of St. Michael in copper gilt, the patron of this city, killing the dragon, and though seventeen feet high, it serves for a weather-cock. In this structure is the apartment wherein the states of Brabant meet, which is the best adorned of any in Europe. Here are particularly three large rooms, one of which contains the resignation of Charles V. in tapestry, so finely executed, that it is said to exceed every thing of the kind in Europe. It is set up in gilt frames; and the other rooms belonging to this assembly are finely adorned with original paintings.

Opposite to it is the imperial palace, the entrance into which is by a spacious court. The palace stands on an eminence, and on the left hand is a large hall that leads to the imperial chapel, which is adorned on the outside like that of Henry VII. in Westminster-abbey. Fronting the gate of the court is the entrance into the royal apartments, which are very noble, but irregular, having been built at different times, and under them is a terras fronting a beautiful parterre, on which are brass statues of the emperors and dukes of Brabant: indeed, the whole square is surrounded with pillars of the same metal. Upon one of the towers is a bird pierced with an arrow, in memory of the Infanta Isabella shooting a bird. Behind the palace you descend by a pair of hanging stairs into the above parterre, which is adorned with fountains and ever-greens; and behind it is the park, where every body has the liberty to walk, and is adorned with vistas, grottos, fountains, and other water-works; it is also well stocked with deer. What is most surprising in this park is the eccho, which makes ten or twelve distinct reverberations. At the further end of the park is a fine pleasure-house built by the emperor Charles V. after his abdication; whence it is called the emperor's house.

Round the other parts of the great market are the halls of the different trading companies, who have each a large room for themselves, and the rest of the building serves for a tavern. These halls are all of an equal height, and the fronts are adorned with sculpture, gilding, and Latin inscriptions.

The armoury was formerly well furnished; but has now only some few remains, as the armour of Charles V. the duke of Alva, the cardinal Infante, and some others; as also the figures of several emperors and dukes in armour on horseback, and on foot, with curious antique arms, according to the different manner of the several courts of Germany.

Near the arsenal are the palaces of the prince of Orange, the prince of Ligne, the duke of Aremberg and Arscot, the princes of Epinoy, Rubenpre, and Egmont, and in the gardens of the latter is a fine labyrinth. But the most agreeable gardens on account of their situation, are those belonging to the dukes of Bournonville, from which you not only see every house in Brussels, but have an extensive view into the country. In all these palaces are collections of original paintings by the most celebrated masters, both Italian and Flemish.

The opera-house in Brussels was built by the duke of Bavaria in the year 1700. This is one of the noblest and largest in the world, it being erected in the Italian taste, with rows of lodges, or closets, which the nobility generally take for the winter season to accommodate their families and friends, and of which they keep the keys. That of the prince de Ligne is lined with looking-glass; so that he can sit in a corner of his lodge with half a dozen friends, drink a bottle, or eat a supper, which they often do, by a good fire, and at the same time see the representation in the looking-glass, without being seen either by the actors or the company.

There are in this city twenty public fountains, adorned with statues at the corners of the most public streets. In that of the herb-market are represented four beautiful young women that squeeze the water out of their breasts, which spout night and day to a great distance. The fountain in the middle of the town-house is much admired; it represents Neptune and his Tritons spouting out water, as a horse also does from his mouth and nostrils.

The churches of this city are very magnificent, seven of these are parochial, and among them the church of St. Gedula, which is also collegiate, is the largest and finest. It stands on the top of a hill near the Louvain-gate, and is surrounded with iron balustrades. It is an old Gothic building, with two large steeples at the east end; but is finely embellished within. On the pillars in the body of the church are, on one side, the statues of our Saviour and six apostles, and on the other the Virgin Mary, with the six other apostles, all as big as the life. The little chapels on each side are finely adorned with

with paintings and marble balustrades. In the choir are several fine monuments of illustrious princes, as the archduke Albert and his wife; Isabella, Infanta of Spain; John duke of Brabant, with his wife; Mary daughter to Edward IV. king of England: but the finest is that of Ernest archduke of Austria, and governor of the Netherlands. In one of the little chapels they worship three hosts, which they pretend were stabbed by a Jew, about the year 1369, and bled. These are exposed every festival in a chalice richly set with diamonds. In order to perpetuate the memory of this event, there is a yearly procession on the Saturday after the thirteenth of July, when these hosts are carried round the city, and attended by all the regular and secular clergy, the magistrates, courts of justice, and even the governor of the province. The chapel where they are kept is built entirely of marble, and the altar is of solid silver.

Here is a college of Jesuits, which has a very fine church, eleven monasteries, and twenty-one nunneries; among which are two English, one of Dominican ladies, founded by cardinal Howard in the reign of Charles II. king of England, of which one of the house of Norfolk is always abbess, the other is of Benedictine nuns.

The Beguinage, or the foundation of pious maids, resembles a little town, and is surrounded by a well and ditch, and divided into pretty little streets, where every Beguine has her own apartment. Their number generally amounts to seven or eight hundred, and sometimes more. They are governed by four elderly women, whom they choose out of their own body, and have a confessor, or chaplain, appointed by the bishop of Antwerp. Their church is a fine piece of architecture lately built.

The Mount of Piety in this city is a public office for lending money upon pledges at a moderate interest, and was established by the archduke Albert, and Isabella his wife, in the year 1617. It is a vast building, like a monastery; and there are private passages for going in, without being seen from the public streets. The archduke put it for ever under the protection of the archbishop of Mechlin and the chancellors of Brabant, as governors; and they put in a superintendent and other proper officers, by which it is governed. This has succeeded so well, that the magistrates in all the great cities of the Netherlands have erected others in imitation of it.

The antient inhabitants of Brussels have shewn a singular fondness for the number seven; for here are seven principal streets that enter into the great market-place, in which are seven stately houses; seven parish-churches; seven noble families, eminent for their antiquity and great privileges; seven midwives, sworn and licenced by the senate to visit the poor as well as the rich, whenever called; seven public gates of the Doric order, remarkable for leading to so many places of pleasure or different exercises, namely, one for hunting, a second for fishing, a third for fowling, a fourth leads to pleasant fields, a fifth to pasture grounds, a sixth to springs and vineyards, and a seventh to pleasant gardens.

This city is said to have entertained at one time seven crowned heads, besides the dukes of Savoy and Lorrain, with nine thousand horse belonging to their retinues. The inns, or eating-houses, at Brussels, are equal to any in the world; and a stranger has the advantage of dining any time between twelve and three, on seven or eight dishes of meat, for less than an English shilling. The wines here are also very good and cheap, and for an English six-pence every hour you may have a coach that will carry you wherever you please.

In the beginning of this section we have mentioned the canal which passes by this city. By the way of this canal treckschuyts go twice a day from Brussels to Antwerp and back again. These treckschuyts, or draught-boats, are so called from their being drawn by a horse, and are long covered boats, with windows on the sides, and two benches within placed lengthways, on each of which fourteen or fifteen passengers may conveniently sit. Each boat is drawn by a single horse, at the rate of about three miles an hour, and the fare of each passenger amounts to no more than about two-pence farthing for every hour. The canal is made like those in Holland, with broad straight quays planted with trees, where the ladies take the air in their coaches, going out

at the gate of Villevort, or Vilvorden, where there is a fine road, with four rows of trees on each side along the canal for several miles, and from the canal is a stately flight of steps which leads to the walls, on which one may walk, under the shade of trees, quite round the city.

It must be confessed, says Mr. Milson, that few cities in Europe can compare with Brussels for good company; as abundance of people of quality either live in, or resort to this city, who are easy of access, especially to strangers. Every night, both in winter and summer, they take a tour in their coaches, where the men, as is practised at Rome, never go in the same coaches with the women, but for a very different reason; for as in Italy it is done to avoid the conversation of both sexes, they separate here out of a mere piece of gallantry; for the gentlemen always keeping one circle, and the ladies another, they meet continually, and thus have the opportunity of talking to, or ogling one another at pleasure; but the worst of it is, that their continual salutations as often as they meet is no small interruption to this general society.

There is another pleasant custom, says the same author, observed among the citizens of Brussels on the nineteenth of January, when the women undress their husbands and carry them to bed, and the husbands are obliged to treat their friends the next day. They give two reasons for the original of this custom. The first is, that the city being reduced to such extremity, as to be obliged to surrender to the enemy, the women only were allowed to escape, and to carry with them what they esteemed most valuable; when, instead of their ornaments, they all marched out with their husbands on their backs. Others alledge, that a good number of the citizens of Brussels, following St. Lewis in his first crusade, most of them had the good fortune to escape the general destruction; and afterwards coming home in a body, their wives rejoicing at their return, met and caught them in their arms, and carried them home.

Among the peculiarities of this country it is observable, that people, both at Brussels and other towns in the Netherlands, have dogs to draw the little carts in which they sell fruit and other commodities about the streets.

Brussels is particularly famous for its tapestry, camblets, and bone-lace, which are exported from thence.

With respect to its history, we shall only observe, that in 1695 it was furiously bombarded by the French during forty-six hours, by which means fourteen churches and above four thousand houses were reduced to ashes; but within four years they were rebuilt with greater beauty than before. In the year 1708 it was besieged by the elector of Bavaria; but the duke of Marlborough made him decamp with precipitation. In 1746 it was taken by the French; but was restored to the emperor by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle.

The territory and jurisdiction belonging to this city is of very large extent, and contains several manors and lordships, in which are many considerable villages.

The city of Antwerp, called by the natives Antwerpen, by the French Anvers, and in Latin Antverpia, or Andoverpum, is the capital of a marquisate of the same name, and is seated in a low and fenny ground on the east side of the Scheld, in the fifty-first degree fifteen minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree fifteen minutes east longitude. It is built in the form of a crescent, and is said to be three thousand six hundred and thirty-five geometrical paces in compass. The streets are generally large, straight, and well paved; but the houses are built in a manner peculiar to itself, half of brick, and half of wood, with a kind of battlements on the top, and very high roofs, which give them an antique appearance. The fortifications are not so much celebrated for their strength as their beauty; the ramparts being almost every where adorned with double rows of trees, which in summer afford delightful and shady walks. The citadel, however, is a strong and regular fortress. The Scheld, both at Antwerp and two leagues above and below it, is deep and broad, which greatly contributed to the flourishing state of this city in former times, when it had the reputation of being the richest and most frequented port in Europe. The records of this city mention

tion a merchant, named John Daens, who having lent a million of gold to Charles V. afterwards invited that emperor to dinner, where, after a noble entertainment, he threw the emperor's bond into the fire, which was of cinnamon, a spice which at that time bore a higher price than at present.

In the city are twenty-two public squares, and two hundred and twelve streets. Most of the houses have court-yards before, and gardens behind. The principal street is called Mere, which is so broad that six coaches may go a-breast, and the houses here are generally of free-stone. At the upper end of this street is a fine brass crucifix thirty-three feet high, placed on a marble pedestal. The city has seven gates, from each of which runs a long street terminating at the cathedral, which is placed about the middle of the city. On the top of the gate which leads to the quay stands the statue of a giant. This gate, as well as several others in the city, was designed by the famous painter and architect Sir Peter Paul Rubens, who was a native of Antwerp.

The citadel, which is esteemed one of the strongest in Europe, is very regular. It is an exact pentagon, and stands on the south side of Antwerp, on the banks of the Scheld, and commands the town, the river, and the neighbouring country. The erecting of this fortress, by order of Philip II. king of Spain, was the first check given to the trade of this city, which was before a free port. It has five bastions, which, from the regularity of the figure of the citadel, defend one another: it has large and deep double ditches, with only one gate, and is said to be about two thousand five hundred paces in circuit.

The exchange of Antwerp has four spacious gates opposite to each other, and always open. The walks round it are supported by forty-three pillars of blue marble, all carved with different figures, not two of them being alike. This structure is said to be a hundred and eighty feet long, and a hundred and forty broad. Underneath are vaults, or magazines, well stored with merchants goods; and above is an academy for painting, sculpture, architecture, and the mathematics. The building of this exchange cost the city of Antwerp three hundred thousand crowns. From this structure, which was the first of the kind in Europe, Sir Thomas Gresham took the model of the Royal exchange he erected in London, as did also the burghers of Amsterdam that of theirs.

The town-house is a very grand piece of architecture built with free-stone, with a fine frontispiece adorned with a variety of statues, a cupola, and an eagle at the top. It stands in the great market-place, which is a very spacious square, in which are all the public executions. The house of the Hanse-towns, for the convenience of the Eastern merchants from the Baltic, called Easterlings, was built in the year 1568, when the trade of Antwerp flourished, and is a square building of stone two hundred and thirty feet each way, with magazines in the upper parts for dry goods, and cellars below for wet. In the middle story, which has a gallery quite round an inner square, are three hundred lodging-rooms for merchants. But this structure is now turned into horse barracks, the cellars of which serve for stables, and the rooms above for hay-lofts.

The markets of Antwerp are at a proper distance from each other, each having a particular square. The fish-market by the river is very spacious; but the most curious of them all is the Friday-market, as it is called, where, on every Friday, all sorts of household-goods, pictures, and jewels, are sold by auction, and often at a very cheap rate; for when a person dies who leaves a family of children, his pictures are all sent to the Friday-market, and the money arising from their sale is equally divided among them.

No city in the Netherlands has so many churches and such fine structures as those of Antwerp, which is the see of a bishop suffragan to the archbishop of Mechlin. There are here four collegiate churches, three other parish churches, four abbeys, and about sixty cloisters of the first rank. The cathedral of Our Lady, which is also a parochial church, is a very grand pile, upwards of five hundred feet long, two hundred and thirty broad, and three hundred and sixty high. Its spire is four hun-

dred and sixty-six feet in height, the cross at the top one hundred and fifty-one, the diameter of the clock thirty feet, and its circumference ninety. In its belfry are thirty-three great bells, and two sets of chimes. The three principal gates of this cathedral are adorned with marble and gilding, and the altars are embellished with fine paintings, some of them by Rubens. The picture which represents the taking down of our Saviour from the cross, in which the figures are as big as the life, is reckoned a master-piece. Here are also some curious pieces by Quintin Massieys, a blacksmith, who falling in love with a painter's daughter, asked her in marriage; but her father answered, that he would never bestow her on any except a painter. Upon this the blacksmith going to Italy, entered the Lombard school, and in a few years returning a greater master than the father of her he admired, he married her. At the entrance into this cathedral he is interred, where his effigy is put up with this inscription:

Connubialis amor de Mulcibre fecit Apellem.

That is,

“Connubial love transformed Vulcan into Apelles”

In this cathedral Philip II. king of Spain, after the voluntary resignation of his father, the emperor Charles V. held on the twenty-first of January, 1555, a chapter of the order of the Golden Fleece, in which he created nineteen new knights, among whom were the seven following kings: Henry VIII. of England, Francis I. of France, his uncle Ferdinand king of the Romans, Christian king of Denmark, John of Portugal, Sigismund of Poland, and Maximilian of Bohemia, whose banners are still hanging in the choir.

The church belonging to the Jesuits college is esteemed one of the finest in Europe. The front is a noble piece of architecture, on the top of which is a statue of Ignatius Loyola. All the inside is paved with white marble, and the galleries were supported by fifty-six marble columns. The great altar is also of marble, intermixed with jasper, porphyry, and gold; and on the ceiling are thirty-eight pictures from the history of the New Testament, done by Rubens and Vandyke. The carving is most excellent, and the flower-work by Segers, a Jesuit. The chapel of the Virgin adjacent to it is still more magnificent. The picture of the Assumption of the Virgin on the great altar was done by Rubens, and called by him his favourite piece; round it are six statues of alabaster representing the founders of this chapel. The church was much damaged some years ago, and the marble galleries beaten down by thunder; but it has been pretty well repaired, though the galleries have not been rebuilt. In the Jesuits college is also a library, which takes up four chambers.

The Carmelite church is famous for its having a large silver statue of the virgin Mary.

On the banks of the river near the ramparts stands the noble and rich abbey of St. Michael, where all sovereign princes lodge on their coming to this city. The apartments are truly grand, and the refectory or hall, where the monks dine, is said to be as large and as well painted as that of St. George at Windsor. The monks are of the order of St. Norbertus, archbishop of Magdeburg, who came to Antwerp in 1124, and established this order here; and his pretended miracles are painted round the church belonging to the abbey.

There are nineteen nunneries in this city, among which is an English one of the order of St. Theresa; but the nuns wear no linen, eat no flesh, and lie upon straw: even the grates have such a dismal appearance, that they give the place the resemblance of a prison.

Among the many privileges granted this city by its princes, one is, that any person born in Antwerp is a citizen, though both the father and mother are foreigners.

Towards the middle of the sixteenth century there were computed to be no less than two hundred thousand inhabitants and strangers who lived in the city; but during the civil wars it suffered much, particularly in 1576, when it was plundered for three whole days together by the Spaniards. But what has most contributed to reduce this city, was the peace concluded at Munster in

1648, between Spain and the United Provinces, when it was agreed, that no large ship should go directly to Antwerp, but unlade its wares in Holland. In 1659 many of the inhabitants, on account of an insurrection, being obliged to quit the town, and an infectious disease some years after carrying off great numbers, the place fell of course into great decay. However, the tapestries and lace made here are very fine; and for the promotion of trade an important insurance company has been erected.

With respect to the history of this city, it is proper farther to add, that Francis of Valois, duke of Alençon, and brother of king Henry III. of France, being installed duke of Brabant at Antwerp in 1582, and appointed governor of the Netherlands by the states-general, thought his authority circumscribed within too narrow bounds; and to render himself more absolute, resolved to surprise the city. Accordingly on the 17th of June 1583, causing seventeen companies of infantry to enter the gates, he himself drew near the walls with his army, who were all Frenchmen, as if only to review them. But the citizens, discovering his design, made so brave a defence, that they drove the French out of Antwerp, killed about fifteen hundred of them, among whom were about three hundred noblemen, and took upwards of two thousand prisoners. After which the duke retiring into France, died with grief.

In 1585 the duke of Parma, governor of the Netherlands for the king of Spain, took Antwerp, after a siege of twelve months, which was one of the most remarkable in history. He re-established the Roman catholics, who had been but lately banished the city, and restored it to the crown of Spain. It was seized by the French on the death of Charles II. in the year 1700; but tho' it was provided with a strong garrison, it surrendered to the duke of Marlborough in 1706, about a month after the memorable victory that great general obtained over the French at Ramillies. In short, the barrier treaty between the emperor and the republic of the United Provinces was concluded here in 1715; and the French made themselves masters of this city in 1746, but restored it to the emperor, at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

The territories belonging to this city are very extensive.

The city of Mechlin is large, well built, and seated on the Dyle and Demer, sixteen miles to the south-east of Antwerp, in the fifty-first degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree thirty-one minutes east longitude. It has many artificial canals, and broad and clean streets. It is a fortified place, but of no considerable strength, and is the see of an archbishop, who bears the title of primate of all Belgium, as also the residence of a governor, who has a provincial court here. It is divided into six parishes, each of which has a fine church. The cathedral is a large and noble structure, that is said to have the highest steeple in the country. The parish church of Our Lady is collegiate, and the parochial church of Our Lady of Hanswyck is a priory of regulars of the order of St. Augustine, and of the congregation of St. Genevieve. There are here nine monasteries, a commandery of the Teutonic order, a college of Jesuits, and an archiepiscopal seminary; there is also said to be a Beguinage, which generally contains about seven hundred young women, who maintain themselves by working, and make no vows. St. Rombant, an Irishman, and bishop of Dublin, is the patron of this city, and his remains are kept in a silver shrine.

In the arsenal are cast great guns, mortars, &c. Here Philip II. king of Spain built an hospital for wounded and superannuated soldiers.

The magistracy consists of a high bailiff, two burgo-masters, and twelve echevins. The concurrence of this little lordship is necessary to the enacting of laws, and raising of money. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in corn, thread, and blankets; but the principal manufacture of this city is that of the fine laces so famous throughout Europe.

The most remarkable circumstance relating to the history of this city is, that in the year 1547, a tower being set on fire by lightning, communicated to two hun-

dred quintals of powder, which instantly blowing up, destroyed almost the whole city.

SECT. II.

Of the Austrian Part of the Dutchies of Limburg and Luxemburg, with a particular Description of the Cities of Limburg and Luxemburg.

THE Austrian part of the dutchy of Limburg consists of good arable land, and particularly abounds in a fine breed of cattle. In the neighbourhood of Limburg are found iron, lead, and calamy. Great part of this dutchy being at present subject to the states-general, it will be described under the republic of the United Provinces: we have only to add here a very few particulars. The arms of the dutchy are a lion azure in a field or.

The states of the country consist of prelates, nobles, and high jurisdictions. The Austrian part of the dutchy is under a governor, and consists of nine small districts, the principal place in which is,

Limburg, the capital of the province, seated on a fine and fruitful hill, at the foot of which runs the little river Wese, in the fiftieth degree forty-six minutes north latitude, and in the sixth degree fourteen minutes east longitude. In its neighbourhood are several quarries of different sorts of marble, and all around are surprising mountains, rocks, and precipices. It was regularly fortified and defended by a castle on a very steep rock, flanked with towers and bastions of free-stone; but in 1675, the French under the prince of Condé laid siege to it, while the French king himself, with another army, hindered the prince of Orange from relieving it; so that after eleven days open trenches, the governor was obliged to surrender; and in 1677, the French, foreseeing that they should be obliged to restore the city at the peace, blew up the castle, destroyed the fortifications, and burnt the whole town, except the church and parsonage-house. The next year it was restored with the province, by the treaty of Nimeguen; but in 1703, the allied army under the duke of Marlborough made themselves masters of the city, which the French had seized in 1700, and took the whole French garrison, with the governor, prisoners of war, and it was soon after restored to the emperor. The city is again pretty well fortified; but has only two gates. The parish church of St. George is a fine and large structure, with a steeple of free-stone; but has suffered very much in the several sieges it has undergone. Here is also a convent of Capuchins, and another of penitent nuns.

The dutchy of Luxemburg is bounded on the east by the electorate of Treves, on the south by the dutchy of Lorrain, on the west by Champagne, on the north by the bishopric of Liege and the dutchies of Limburg and Juliers. In its utmost extent from north to south it is about ninety-five miles, and about as many from east to west.

It lies in the center of the forest of Ardennes, but its soil is not very fertile, though it produces some corn, and has a good breed of cattle, with wine and all sorts of game; but its principal riches consist in its many iron-works and founderies for cannon.

It is watered by many small rivers, the principal of which are the Semois, the Ourt, the Lasse, and the Chiers, which discharge themselves into the Maese, together with the river Sure, which receives into it some smaller streams, and also the Kyll, both which flow into the Moselle. The Maese washes this dutchy on the west, and the Moselle waters a part of the country to the south-east.

The inhabitants are of the Romish religion, and in the whole dutchy, besides the principal city, are twenty smaller towns.

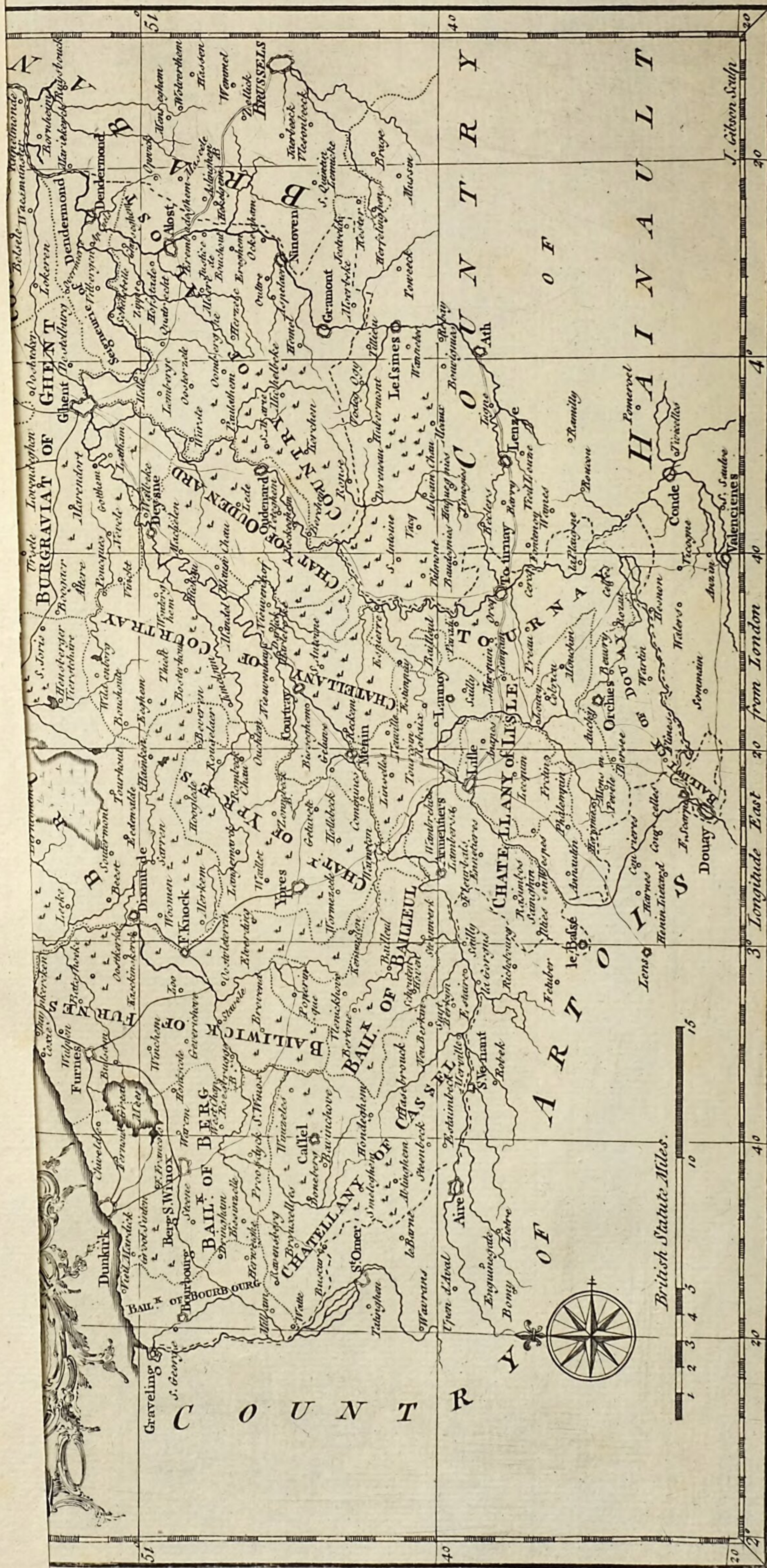
The arms of the dutchy are a lion gules, in a shield divided into ten parts, azure and argent.

The states consist of the clergy, the nobles, and the deputies of several towns. The abbot of St. Maximin, who possesses large revenues in this dutchy, is primate of the

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the states, though his abbey is seated near Treves. Over the dutchy is appointed an Austrian governor. At the city of Luxemburg is a judicatory of nobles filled up entirely by persons of antient nobility, who have at their head a president, styled a judge. The provincial-council was erected by the emperor Charles V. and consists of a president, three noble and three learned counsel, a general procurator, and a secretary.

In the whole dutchy are twenty-three small towns, besides the capital, which we shall next describe.

Luxemburg, the capital of the dutchy, is seated on the river Elz, at its confluence with the rivulet of Petreuse, and is one of the strongest fortifications in the Netherlands. It is divided into the Upper and Lower town: the former resembles an heptagon, and lies partly in the plain and partly on a rock; the latter is seated amidst deep valleys, and consists of two suburbs. The principal church is that of St. Nicholas, which is parochial, but not very remarkable; and therefore when any public act of devotion is to be performed, it is done either in the church of the Jesuits or Recollets, which are both large and beautiful. Here are three other parishes, one of which belongs to the Benedictine abbey of Munster; there are also three convents of men, and the like number of women.

This city suffered greatly by the wars between France and the Netherlands. In 1542 it was sacked by the French under Charles duke of Orleans; but retaken the following year by Gonzague, general of the emperor Charles V. In 1683 it was bombarded by the French, and afterwards taken: they kept it by virtue of the treaty of Ratisbon, but were obliged to restore it to the Spaniards by that of Ryswic. The French retook it in 1701, and by the treaty of Utrecht it was given to the United Provinces as a barrier; but was surrendered to the late emperor in 1715.

As the Austrian part of the dutchy of Gueldres is very small, we shall defer an account of it till we come to the United Provinces, to whom the greatest part of this country belongs.

S E C T. III.

Of FLANDERS in general.

Its Situation, Extent, Fertility, Produce, and Rivers. The Religion and Manufactures of the Inhabitants, and the Divisions of the Country.

FLANDERS terminates to the north-west on the Northern sea; to the north on the Scheld, which parts it from Zealand; to the east on Brabant and Hainault; and to the south and south-west on Hainault and Artois. Its extent, taken by a right line drawn from the borders of Artois along the sea-coast to Antwerp, amounts to about ninety-five miles, and from the northernmost end of Cadzand to Marchiennes to above seventy-six; and if we draw it to the end of the narrow tract of the prefecture of Douay, to ninety-five miles.

This country enjoys a temperate and wholesome air, particularly to the south, it being partly level and partly mountainous. Its soil is in general fertile, and fit for agriculture; and towards the sea, and the borders of France, its degree of fertility is uncommonly great. The land bears almost all sorts of corn and garden-stuff; and some tracts, particularly those of Bruges and Ghent, may export corn, though that produced in other parts is sometimes not sufficient to supply the great number of its inhabitants. The riches of the country consist in its flax. The pasture grounds here are in many parts extremely fine, on which account the breeding of cattle is an important article, and here is made a great deal of fine butter and cheese. The breed of horses and sheep is likewise very considerable. Flanders produces fruits of various sorts; it has plenty of fowl, and, as it has forests and woods, it has a great number of deer, wild boars, and hares. It has likewise plenty of sea and river-fish.

Its principal rivers are the Scheld, which receives the Scarpe, the Lys, the Lieve, and the Dender. Some useful canals have been dug here, among which that

which extends between Ghent and Bruges is the principal.

The Flemings are of the Romish church, and king Philip II. erected three new bishoprics here, those of Ghent, Bruges, and Ypres. The inhabitants boast of their being the inventors of some important arts. They were the first in Europe who began to support themselves by weaving, and by dying of cloths and stuffs; and at Courtray was discovered the manner of weaving all sorts of figures in linen. In the fourteenth century William von Beukelszon, a native of Viervilet, taught the method of curing herrings; and in the fifteenth century John Van Eyck invented painting in oil. Indeed at present the manufactures of Flanders are far from being in their former flourishing state. There are here, however, still made silk and woollen stuffs, brocade, cotton, camblets, linen, lace, tapestries, wrought curtains, bed coverlets, and other worked stuffs.

This country became subject to the earls of Flanders in the ninth century; and in 959 Baldwin III. the fourth count, introduced weaving, and also appointed fairs and trade. In 1369 Philip the Bold, duke of Burgundy, marrying Margaret III. daughter and heiress to count Lewis I. at length obtained the county or earldom of Flanders; and his daughter Mary marrying Maximilian, archduke of Austria, Flanders became possessed by the house of Austria. The northern part of this country was ceded to the States-general partly by the peace of Munster, and partly by the barrier-treaty in 1715; and France in 1667 seized on the southern part.

Flanders consists of three parts: the largest of these, which is properly called the County of Flanders, and was formerly under the dominion of the French, has been divided, according to the languages spoken in it, into the German and Walloon. German Flanders terminates to the north on the North sea, to the east on Imperial Flanders, to the south on the Lys, and to the west on Artois and the New Foss; but Walloon Flanders borders to the north on German Flanders, to the east on the Scheld, to the south on the territory of Cambray, and to the west on the Lys and the county of Artois. All this part the emperor Charles V. by virtue of the stipulation made with Francis I. in 1526, set free from its dependency on France. The second part, which was called the Signiory of Flanders, or Imperial Flanders, from its being under the supreme jurisdiction of the holy Roman empire, comprehends the county of Alost, the land of Waes, and the four prefectures, as they are called, together with the land on the other side of the Scheld. The third part has obtained the name of Proper Flanders; this being neither dependent on France nor the Roman empire, but is under the jurisdiction of the counts of Flanders. To this part belong Dendermond, Bornheim, and Geersberg, with their districts.

The parts possessed by France and the United Provinces will be treated of in those countries, and we shall here only consider the territories in Flanders belonging to the house of Austria. In treating of this country we shall describe what is called its four members, which are the districts of Ghent, Bruges, Ypres, and the Frankeland; the principal places in which are Ostend and Newport.

S E C T. IV.

Of the Territories in Flanders belonging to the House of Austria; with a particular Description of Ghent, Bruges, Ypres, Ostend, and Newport.

THE city of Ghent, the capital of Flanders, called by the natives Gent, or Ghendt, by the French Gand, and in Latin Gandavum, lies thirty-five miles to the north-west of Brussels, in the fifty-first degree twelve minutes north latitude, and in the third degree thirty-six minutes east longitude. On account of its many running waters which unite near this city it has great advantages, both with respect to trade and strength; for not only the Scheld receives the Lys in this town, but from hence to Damme runs the Lieve, which is properly a canal, the digging of which was begun in the

year 1228, and, besides several rivulets, receives into it the Caele. The canal which extends from hence to Bruges, and from thence to Ostend, was begun in 1613, and is very remarkable. From another canal, which runs to the north, a branch extends from Rodenhuyfen to Sas van Ghent. Besides these, there are here several other canals and rivers. The city of Ghent is of considerable extent, its compass within the walls being computed at forty-five thousand six hundred and forty Roman feet. The rivers and canals within the city divide it into twenty-six islands, which are joined by as many great bridges, and seventy-two smaller ones; and, by shutting up the sluices, the country for a mile round may be laid under water. It is defended by a citadel built by the emperor Charles V. consisting of four regular bastions; but is not so conveniently situated for the defence of the town, as to command it, and keep the inhabitants in awe.

This city, at the request of king Philip II. was erected into an episcopal see, and made suffragan to Mechlin: the celebrated Cornelius Jansenius, from whom the Jansenists, that have raised such disputes in France, have their name, was the first bishop. This diocese contains seven deaneries, and a hundred and eighty-three parishes, seven of which are within the city. The cathedral, dedicated to St. John the Baptist, is a fine, large, and antient structure. There is also a collegiate and six parish churches. The abbot of the Benedictine abbey of St. Peter styles himself primate of Flanders, and president of the assembly of the Netherland cloisters. Here are also two abbeys for monks, two colleges of Jesuits, seven other monasteries, and what is called the Templehof, which belongs to the order of St. John, with twenty-two nunneries, two Beguine-houses, a seminary belonging to the bishopric of Ghent, with several hospitals and chapels.

There are in this city thirteen market-places, seven of which are large, particularly that called the Friday's-market is the most extensive, and remarkable for a noble statue of the emperor Charles V. dressed in his imperial robes, and standing on a pedestal in the middle of the square.

Upon a bridge built over the Lys stand two brass statues, representing a man ready to cut off the head of another. The same figures are also painted in the town-house; the story of which is thus related: A father and son being both condemned to death, a pardon was afterwards offered to either of them that would be the other's executioner. After a long contest, the father prevailed upon the son to save his own life, by taking away his: but just as the son was ready to give the fatal blow, the blade either broke in the air, or flew out of the handle, which being considered as a most singular instance of the interposition of Providence, they were both pardoned.

The town-house is a double building, with two fronts, one of antient architecture, and the other in the modern taste, and very beautiful. It was begun in the year 1600, and was twenty years in finishing. Near this building stands a high tower called the Belfrey, to which is an ascent of above three hundred steps. Here is a fine clock, with a chime of bells, the largest of which, called Rowland, weighs eleven thousand pounds. On the top of this tower is a dragon of gilt copper, said to have been sent from Constantinople by Baldwin IX. earl of Flanders.

The trade of Ghent principally consists in cloths, stuffs, and silks, of which such quantities are made here, that among the fifty companies of tradesmen, those concerned in these commodities are said to form a third part.

The magistracy consists of burgomasters, echevins, or aldermen, and counsellors, annually chosen from among the principal inhabitants; and these have at their head an high-bailiff. This city is the seat of the council of Flanders, from which lies an appeal to the grand council of Mechlin.

In the year 1539 the inhabitants, being over-loaded with taxes, revolted against the emperor Charles V. and implored the assistance of Francis I. king of France; but he refused to comply with their request. Charles,

who was then in Spain, set out immediately, passed thro' France, and having arrived at Ghent, punished the inhabitants with singular severity: he caused twenty-six of the principal citizens to be executed, banished a still greater number, confiscating all their effects; took from the city its artillery, arms, and privileges; condemned the inhabitants to pay a fine of above twelve hundred thousand crowns; sentenced the magistrates to walk in public procession with a rope about their necks; and that the citizens might never be able to recover their former privileges, he built the above-mentioned citadel. By these means he made almost a desert of one of the largest and most populous cities in Europe. But it has since in a great measure recovered its antient splendor, though it is said that not half of its extent within the walls is built upon.

In 1576 the States-general of the Netherlands, except those of Luxemburg and Limburg, concluded the famous treaty called the Pacification of Ghent, the principal articles of which were, that the Spanish, and all other foreign troops, should evacuate the Netherlands; that Holland and Zealand should continue united with the other provinces; and that the Roman catholic religion, and the antient privileges of the country, should be maintained. This treaty was approved and ratified by king Philip II. but with no design to keep it; for the duke of Arschot being appointed governor of the province of Flanders, made a magnificent entry into the city of Ghent, and three days after the citizens assembled, and demanded the restoration of all the privileges they had been deprived of by Charles V. which being refused them, they seized the duke, the bishops of Bruges and Ypres, with some other lords, whom they kept prisoners; after which they took an oath to the prince of Orange, subscribed to the Union of Utrecht, and d'Imbise, who had assisted in this great event, was made first echevin of the city; but in 1584 they again submitted to the king of Spain; upon which d'Imbise was deposed, and soon after publicly beheaded. In 1678 the city was besieged by the French, and the king himself came before it, when, though the citizens cut their dykes, and laid part of the country under water, both the town and citadel were soon taken; but, about four months after, the French restored it to the Spaniards by the treaty of Nimeguen. On the death of Charles II. king of Spain, in the year 1700, the French again seized this city; but in 1706 it surrendered to the allies, after the battle of Ramillies. In 1708 the French surprised it, together with Bruges, and threw an army into it for its defence; but the city of Lisle having been taken by the allies at the close of the same year, the French were obliged to surrender Ghent, after a few days siege. It continued in the possession of the house of Austria till the year 1745, when the French again made themselves masters of it, but restored it to the emperor at the peace of Aix la Chapelle.

The district of Ghent is very considerable, and contains the county of Alost, with its capital; Oudenard, celebrated for the glorious victory obtained near it in 1708, by the duke of Marlborough; the town and castellany of Courtray; the county of Waes; the town and lordship of Dendermonde, and other places.

The city of Bruges, in Latin Bruga, by the Flemings called Brugge, or Bruggen, from a bridge named Bruggstock, near which stood a chapel that gave occasion to the building of the city, is seated in the thirty-first degree sixteen minutes north latitude, and in the third degree fifteen minutes east longitude. Here are several canals, one of which leads to Ostend, Newport, Furnes, and Dunkirk; and can carry vessels of four hundred tons, which come up to the basin of Bruges. The salt-water is kept from mixing with the canal by means of sluices and other machines. Besides this a canal leads to Ghent, another to Damme, and a third to Sluys. These contain stagnant water, though the ground is eighteen feet lower towards the sea than in the town at the Ghent gate: but the water in the city may be soon renewed by letting it run gently into the sea, by means of three sluices. As Bruges has neither rivers nor springs, fresh water is conveyed thither from the rivers Lys and the Scheld, by means of pipes.

The streets of Bruges are large and straight; it has also several fine squares, particularly the Friday's market-place, from whence six great streets lead to the six principal gates. At one end of this square stands a fine steeple five hundred and thirty-three steps high, with a curious chime of bells. This square is planted with several rows of trees.

The square called the Burg, from the castle of that name, is surrounded with many fine buildings, as the town-house, which is a handsome Gothic structure, adorned with the pictures of many earls and countesses of Flanders, the cathedral, the bishop's palace, and the chapel of the Holy blood of our Saviour.

The cathedral is a very antient building, and has thirty-two canons. Here are also two other collegiate churches, one of which is dedicated to Our Lady, and has a chapter composed of a provost and twelve canons; the other is the church of St. Saviour, and has a chapter, consisting of a dean and sixteen canons; the former of these two last structures is very beautiful, and has a fine steeple, so high that it may be seen at sea in sailing to Ostend.

There are here five other parochial churches, fourteen chapels, a college of Jesuits, twelve monasteries, and nineteen nunneries. The pulpit in the Dominican church is esteemed an admirable piece of workmanship; the wood which supports the top is cut out like ropes, and seems to bend like them. Among the pictures there is here shewn a remarkable one of the marriage of our Saviour with St. Catharine of Sienna; the Virgin Mary joins their hands, St. Dominic performs the office of priest, and old king David plays upon the harp at the wedding.

The Carthusians have a large monastery, and the circuit of their kitchen-garden, cells, and little gardens, is about an English mile. All the fathers divert themselves in taking to one trade or other, and convert their cells into workshops.

The Carmelite church is one of the finest in the city, and has a beautiful monument of Henry Jermyn, lord Dover, a peer of England; but the most noble monument in the city is that of the Bernardines. The abbot's apartment is very magnificent, and those of the monks very neat. They keep a sumptuous table, on which is placed every thing in season, and have country-seats depending on the abbey, to which they go a hunting, and even keep their own churches.

Among the many nunneries in this city are two English, one of Augustine nuns, who are all ladies of high rank: these nuns generally entertain strangers at the grate with wine and sweet-meats. The other English nunnery, called the Pelicans, is a stricter order, and the nuns wear a coarser dress.

There are few cities where the poor and orphans are so well taken care of as at Bruges; for here are several alms-houses and hospitals for their maintenance, among which is one called the School of the Orphans, founded in 1411, where a hundred and thirty orphan boys are educated and brought up to learning, or some trade, according to their genius or inclination. They are dressed in cloth coats, half of which is brown and the other half red, and wear flat caps. This school has produced several bishops and abbots, who, to shew their gratitude, have sent their pictures to adorn the school.

Bruges carries on a considerable trade in worked cottons, fine woollen stuffs, linen and lace made here; and here are many persons employed in manufacturing fustians and tapestries. The tradesmen are divided into sixty-eight companies.

About two hundred years ago this city was very flourishing, as merchants from all parts of Europe resorted hither, where the several nations had their distinct houses magnificently built, with ware-houses for the merchandise they either imported or exported. Each nation had also its respective consul, and here are still shewn seventeen antient palaces in which those consuls resided; also the cloth-hall, sayes-hall, and baize-hall, which are spacious rooms that belonged to the English; under the first of these runs a canal of such depth, that it is said bilanders of burthen can enter the very hall.

But the trade of this city at first suffered greatly by the revolt of the inhabitants against the archduke Maximilian, who had married Mary the heiress of the house of Burgundy. The citizens had even the presumption to keep that prince in custody, to affront his servants, and use his officers ill; but when their rebellion had continued about twelve months, dreading the consequences, they implored their sovereign's mercy. This happened in 1490. Fifty or sixty of the inhabitants were, however, sentenced to suffer death, a still greater number was banished, and the city was obliged to pay a large fine.

Ever since the cities of Antwerp and Amsterdam have enlarged their commerce, that of Bruges has been declining; so that it is far from being so populous as formerly. There are still, however, in Bruges several very rich merchants, who meet daily in the great market-place, which has been their exchange ever since the year 1715.

Here are several courts for the administration of justice, both in civil and criminal affairs; the principal is that of the magistrates of Bruges, composed of two burgomasters, twelve echevins, or aldermen, twelve counsellors, six pensioners, and two treasurers. These have the government of the city, and administer justice among the inhabitants.

There is another court for the government of the liberty, which has a magistracy of its own, consisting of four burgomasters, twenty-seven echevins, six pensionaries, and two treasurers. The two last hold their employments for life. This court is held at Bruges in an old castle called the Burg, or Fortrefs. In the hall where they meet are several good pictures, particularly the last judgment, by Backer, a disciple of Rubens.

We are now come to Ypres, or Ipres, in Latin Ipra, which is seated on the little river Ipre, or Iperlee, in the fiftieth degree fifty-seven minutes north latitude, and in the second degree fifty-one minutes east longitude.

The buildings make a pretty handsome appearance, though the fronts are of timber. Its public structures are the cathedral of St. Martin, five parish-churches, one college of Jesuits, six monasteries, one episcopal seminary, eight nunneries, and some hospitals and alms-houses. Here is also a school for poor boys, and another for poor girls, where they are taught what trade they like best; and, when able to get their living, are sent out with a certain sum of money to set them up. One-third part of this town consists of churches, convents, and other religious houses. It is the see of a bishop under the archbishop of Mechlin, and one of the barrier places which was ceded to the States-general in 1715. It has undergone several calamities by fire, and has been frequently taken by the French, particularly in the year 1744, when it was given up by the Dutch garrison almost as soon as the French came before it, together with the territory belonging to the town, which consists of a very fruitful country, containing two or three small towns, and as many villeges.

Ostend, in Latin Ostenda, is called by the Flemings Oostende, and is seated in the fifty-first degree fourteen minutes north latitude, and in the second degree fifty-nine minutes east longitude, in a marshy soil, among a variety of canals; it being almost surrounded by two of the largest of them, into which ships of great burthen may enter with the tide. It is well fortified, and has a strong rampart, a deep ditch, and eight regular bastions; and the sea may be let in round the town for a considerable extent of ground, by which means it is rendered almost impregnable. The city is also defended by several forts which encompass it.

The buildings in Ostend are but low, yet are pretty uniform, and the streets are straight and regular. Its principal church is that of St. Peter, which was burnt down in 1712, and handsomely rebuilt. Here are several convents of friars and nuns, and an hospital founded by the citizens in 1403. The inhabitants labour under want of fresh water, which they are obliged to get from Bruges, whence the brewers fetch it in boats, and lodge it in a large reservoir, near the harbour.

The body of the magistracy is composed of a bailiff, a burgomaster, seven echevins, and a treasurer. They are all changed every year, except the bailiff, whose place is for life.

This city is particularly famous for the long siege it sustained against the Spaniards, from the fifth of July, 1601, to the twenty-second of September, 1604, when it surrendered upon good terms. Its brave defence against the archduke Albert of Austria, and the marquis Ambrose Spinola, may be justly ascribed to the supplies sent from England, and the good conduct of Sir Francis Vere, a native of that country. The Spaniards are said to have lost near eighty thousand men before the place; though, when they first invested it, they did not expect it to hold out a fortnight, which induced the archduchess to make a vow, that she would never shift herself till it was taken. The number who were killed or died during the siege is reckoned at about fifty thousand, not that so many men were in the place at once, but supplies were continually sending from England and Holland. History informs us, that during the first six months the besiegers fired a hundred and sixty-five thousand five hundred cannon-balls of about thirty pounds weight; and that in the whole course of the siege the city had received above three hundred thousand cannon-shot frequently under covert of the dead bodies, with which the besieged filled the breaches. When at last they surrendered, it was neither for want of men nor provisions, the harbour having been open all the time, and supplies constantly coming in, but merely for want of ground, which the enemy had gained foot by foot, till the besieged had not so much left as would contain men enough to defend it. Prince Maurice had several times attempted to relieve it, but to no purpose, the Spaniards being too strongly entrenched, and his army too small to force them. History also mentions this remarkable circumstance, that the Spaniards shot such a number of bullets against the sand-hill bulwark, where they stuck, that it became a wall of iron, and dashed the fresh bullets that hit it to pieces. In short, when the garrison, by virtue of the capitulation, retired to Sluys, prince Maurice received them with as much honour for their brave defence, as if they had come from a conquest. In 1658 cardinal Mazarine attempted to take this city by stratagem, and sent marshal d'Aumont with some men of war to surprise it; but the marshal himself, with the ships, was taken. Upon the death of Charles II. king of Spain, the French seized Ostend; but in 1706, after the battle of Ramillies, the allies besieged and took it from them. During this last siege the town-house, which was a pretty building, was entirely beaten down, with its chime of bells, reckoned the finest in Flanders; but this structure has been rebuilt in a more stately manner.

The late emperor Charles VI. formed a scheme for drawing to this city the trade of the East Indies; for which purpose he established here the famous Ostend company. This scheme was privately encouraged by some English and Dutch merchants; but it made a great noise, and met with a strenuous opposition from the maritime powers, who took some of the ships of that company, while on their return from the Indies; and, after many negotiations, at last, in 1731, caused that company to be abolished. Ostend was also taken by the French in 1745, but restored to the house of Austria by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle in 1748.

We shall conclude this section with a concise description of Nieuport, or Newport, which stands about nine miles from Ostend, and is a strong sea-port town on the little river Iperlee. Its harbour is secure; but only ships of middling burthen can enter it even at high-tide, when it has about thirteen feet water. Though this city be pretty well fortified, yet its principal strength consists in its sluices, by means of which all the adjacent country may in a minute be laid under water. The streets are wide and straight, but the houses are low and built with timber. It has but one parish-church, which is reckoned the finest in all Flanders, besides several convents, a noble hospital for the support of forty orphans, and a convent of English Carthusian friars. The inhabitants chiefly support themselves by fishing and making nets and cordage for ships.

In the year 1600 a battle was fought near this town between the forces of the United Provinces, commanded by prince Maurice of Nassau, and the Spaniards, to the disadvantage of the latter; and in 1745 it was taken by the French.

S E C T. V.

Of the Austrian Part of the County of HAINAULT.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, and Divisions of the Country; with a Description of the City of Mons.

THE Austrian part of the county of Hainault, called by the Germans Hennegau, is bounded on the north by Flanders; on the east by the dutchy of Brabant, the county of Namur, and the bishopric of Liege; on the south by Champagne and Picardy; and on the west by Artois and Flanders; extending fifty-seven miles from north to south, and about sixty-four from east to west.

The air is good and moderate, and the soil produces a great deal of corn and rich pastures, on which are bred a great number of cattle. Its woods and forests afford timber for building and fuel: it has also pit-coal, iron, beautiful marble, and slates.

Its principal rivers are the Scheld, which issues out of Picardy; the Selle, which receives into it the Hayne and the Haunia; the Sambre, which issues out of Picardy; and the Dender, which rises here, and runs into Flanders.

In the whole country are reckoned twenty-four towns; the number of villages is by some computed at nine hundred and fifty, but by others only at six hundred and fourteen. The clergy are uncommonly rich, and in this county are sixteen abbies for monks, and ten for nuns, together with twelve chapters, and many monasteries and convents.

The states of this country consist of three chambers: to the first belong the clergy, to the second the antient genuine nobility, and to the third the deputies of the towns: each chamber has only one voice; and the plenipotentiaries of each have their seat at Mons. Both the clergy and the nobility have two plenipotentiaries, whose office lasts three years; but the towns have six. The sovereign also sends two deputies. All these meet weekly; but the states only at the command of the sovereign.

By the peace of the Pyrenees France obtained the towns of Landrecy, Quesnoy, Avesnes, Marienburg, and Philipeville; as also by the peace of Nimeguen, Valenciennes, Bouchain, Condé, Cambray, Bavay, and Maubeuge, with their respective districts; and by the peace of Ryswick, several villages. The house of Austria still enjoys in this county thirteen small towns, with several principalities and some villages. The principal place in this county is,

Mons, a very large, fine, strong, and rich city, the capital of Hainault, is called by the Flemings Bergen, and in Latin Montes; it is seated on a hill near the junction of the rivers Haine and Trouille, and is also partly built in the plain, in the fiftieth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in the third degree thirty-six minutes east longitude. The little river Trouille divides it into two parts, and fills its three ditches; after which it runs into the Haine. Here are sluices by which the neighbouring country may be overflowed, except the south-east side, where the ground being somewhat higher, they have raised good bastions, which render the approaches of an enemy very difficult. The city contains above four thousand six hundred houses. The buildings are beautiful, the streets large, the market-place spacious, and the public edifices are very magnificent. Among the last is the governor's palace, in which the provincial council meets, and the town-house, which has a lofty tower.

This city contains six parish-churches, two of which are collegiate, one college of Jesuits, and several cloisters. Here is a famous abbey, or chapter, of canoneses, founded by St. Waltrude. The chapter consists of thirteen canoneses, who it is said must prove their nobility by sixteen descents. They are obliged to assist at morning-service in their canonical habits; but the rest of the day may

may wear sumptuous apparel, and even spend their time in dancing, singing, and free conversation; they are even permitted to leave the abbey and marry. This chapter is governed by four of the oldest canonessees. Their church is a very fine structure, most of its chapels and altars being built with marble and jasper, and adorned with beautiful statues. This is also a parish-church, to which the nobility, magistracy, counsellors, and officers of state belong.

Here is also a college where polite literature is taught under the direction of secular priests, and likewise a Jesuits college.

The body of the magistracy consists of a mayor and ten echevins, &c. and as this is a place of strength, it has a particular governor, with other proper officers both civil and military. It has a good trade for various commodities, especially woollen stuffs, great quantities of which are made here.

This city has frequently suffered the dreadful calamities of war. In May 1572 count Lewis of Nassau, brother to the prince of Orange, took it by stratagem without opposition; but Frederic of Toledo, the duke of Alva's son, besieged it in June following, and took it in September, notwithstanding all the endeavours of the prince of Orange to relieve the place. In 1677 marshal d'Humieres, who commanded the French, invested Mons, and had greatly distressed that city; when the next year the prince of Orange, afterwards king William III. advanced to its relief with thirty thousand men, and attacked by surprize the French army under the duke of Luxemburg, who was encamped at Castiaux and St. Denys, in order to cover the blockade; the battle became exceeding bloody, and the prince obtained the advantage. The next day the blockade was raised, and hostilities ceased, upon the prince's acquainting the duke, that the peace had been signed at Nimuegen.

The French again invested this place in 1691, when Lewis XIV. was there in person, with all the princes of the blood, and marshal Luxemburg commanded the army of observation. The trenches were opened on the twenty-fourth of March, and the city obliged to surrender on the ninth of April following, most of the houses having been beaten down by the besiegers bombs: but the city was restored to the Spaniards by the treaty of Ryswick in 1697.

Upon the death of Charles II. king of Spain, the French again seized this city, and kept possession of it till the year 1709, when it was invested by the duke of Marlborough. The grand army under the marshals Villars and Boufflers, threatening to relieve the place, the duke advanced to give them battle, and came up with them in the woods near the village of Malplaquet, about seven or eight miles to the south of Mons: though the French lay under triple intrenchments, he boldly attacked them, and gave them an entire defeat; but with considerable loss on the side of the allies: after which immediately followed the reduction of this city and the province of Hainault, which was confirmed to the house of Austria by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, and made a part of the barrier. The French under marshal count Saxe again took this city in 1746, but restored it by the peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1748, after first demolishing its fortifications.

In the county of Hainault are also thirteen small towns, and several villages; and among the latter is Malplaquet, rendered famous by the above victory obtained by the duke of Marlborough over the French, and also Steenkirk, near which the allies, commanded by king William III. attacked the fortified camp of the French in 1692: the French lost more men than the confederates; and were it not for the conduct and bravery of the prince of Conti, would have been entirely defeated.

S E C T. VI.

Of the County of NAMUR.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce: the Arms and States of the Country; with a particular Description of Namur, its Capital, and also an Account of the Barrier Towns.

THE county of Namur is almost surrounded by the bishopric of Liege and the dutchy of Brabant; but

terminates also to the west on the county of Hainault. Its greatest extent from east to west amounts to about thirty-one miles, and from north to south to about twenty-eight. This county is very woody and mountainous; but the level parts bear all sorts of corn. Its principal riches, however, consist in its iron, great quantities of which are worked here, and converted into steel. It has also lead and pit-coal, with a great deal of marble and other stone. The Maese traverses a great part of the county, and at Namur receives into it the Sambre.

The arms of the county are, a lion sable in a field or, with a dexter fesse drawn over the whole shield.

The states of Namur consist of the clergy, the nobility, and the principal town of Namur, with its territory. The sovereign appoints the governor of that city and county.

Namur, or Namen, in Latin Namurum, the capital of the county, is seated between two hills at the confluence of the Sambre, the rivulet of Vederin, and the river Maese; and is defended by a very strong castle, situated on a rock between the Maese and the Sambre, near their junction. This castle is likewise defended by Fort William, built by order of king William III. by the famous Coehorn. This fort is equivalent to another citadel; and besides these there are said to be above twelve other forts round the city, the most considerable of which is that of the Maese, opposite to the castle, and the fort of Cocquelet, which is so large that it includes two villages within its fortifications. Namur, from the above works, is esteemed the strongest fortress in Europe. It has two stone bridges, one over the rivulet of Vederin, and the other over the Sambre.

This city is the see of a bishop, who is suffragan to Cambray; and, besides the cathedral church of St. Albin, the chapter of which is composed of twenty canons, here are two collegiate churches, four under parish-churches, a seminary, thirteen convents of both sexes, and a college of Jesuits, who teach philosophy, and whose church is a noble building, all of red and black marble, supported by ten large columns of black marble, and adorned with a beautiful frontispiece. The prince's palace is a fine square building, in which the governor usually resides. Here are likewise several hospitals.

The magistracy consists of a grand mayor, who enjoys his place for life, of a burgomaster, and six echevins, who are all changed every year by the governor-general. Here is another tribunal called the sovereign bailliage, composed of six advocates, with the governor at their head. These judge in all feudal cases; but an appeal lies to the grand council at Mechlin.

In the year 1692 Lewis XIV. besieged this city in person, when, after opening the trenches, it held out only six days; but in 1695 was retaken by king William III. after a most bloody siege: marshal Boufflers commanded in the town with a garrison of no less than sixteen thousand men, and Villeroy without at the head of a hundred thousand; but did not dare to attempt its relief. Besides the marshal, there were several general officers, and twenty engineers in the city; and the garrison fought so desperately, that when the city was taken no more than four thousand men were left. Upon the death of Charles II. king of Spain, the French seized this city, and held it during queen Anne's wars; but at the peace of Utrecht it was restored to the house of Austria. In 1712 it was ceded by king Philip to the elector of Bavaria, and in 1715 was given to the States-general as a barrier town to be garrisoned by them; but in 1746 the French again made themselves masters of it, and kept it till the peace of Aix la Chapelle.

Within the county of Namur are Charleroi, Walcourt, and Bouvigne, with a great number of abbeys and priories of both sexes, and a number of little districts under the name of signories.

Before we conclude this account of the Austrian Netherlands, it will be proper to take some notice of the barrier towns so often mentioned. It must be observed, that by the barrier treaty concluded in 1715, between the emperor and the States General, the former consented that the latter should alone garrison Namur, Tournay, Ypres, and several other places, either with their own troops, or with such as the emperor had no reason to suspect.

suspect. The emperor was to nominate the governors, but both they and the garrison also take an oath of fidelity to the States. The emperor and States General are at their own expence to keep on foot between thirty and thirty-five thousand men for the security of the Austrian Netherlands; the former paying three-fifths, and the latter two-fifths. In case the former diminished his quota, the latter might do so in the like proportion; but on the appearance of a war, this body is to be augmented to forty thousand men; and in case of an actual war, the augmentation to be increased at pleasure. The States have the distribution of the troops in the several places committed to them; but in the others such distribution is to be made according to the joint consent of both parties. In those places garrisoned only by Dutch troops the States General appoint the governors, commandants, and staff-officers, on condition that their lodgings, and the advantages arising from the works, shall not be productive of any charge either to the emperor, or to the provinces, nor unacceptable to the emperor from particular causes. These officers are to defend the places entrusted to them, and in their military capacity are only subject to the States, though they take an oath to the emperor to

hold and maintain them for the house of Austria. The troops of the States-general, when in garrison, are permitted the free exercise of their religion. The States General may change the garrisons at pleasure, and in time of war strengthen the fortifications, but not raise any additional works, without the approbation of the Austrian governor-general of the Netherlands. For the support of these garrisons, and defraying the expences of the fortifications, military stores, and provisions in the barrier-towns, the States are to pay the annual sum of five hundred thousand rixdollars; for which purpose an office has been established at Ypres, under the title of The Barrier-office, and this, exclusive of the revehues issuing from their share in the upper quarter of Guelderland, the quartering-money, &c. During the war which was terminated in 1748 by the peace of Aix la Chapelle, these barrier towns were greatly damaged; and since that time many difficulties have arisen relating to them, between the court of Vienna and the States General; and it is said that the Dutch troops at present in them do not exceed nine battalions and two squadrons, and possibly the right of garrisoning them may in time become obsolete, and be superseded.

CHAP. XXI.

Of the UNITED NETHERLANDS.

SECT. I.

Their Situation, Extent, and Climate: the Diseases of the Inhabitants; the Dykes, Dams, and Canals necessary to exclude the Sea, drain the Lands, and promote Commerce. The Produce of the Country, its Rivers, and Fisheries.

THE name of Netherlands, or Low Countries, by which all the seventeen provinces are called, is doubtless derived from the low situation of those countries; the inhabitants themselves call the country Belgium; but the French, like most other nations, stile it Les Pais Bas, or the Low Countries. This tract lies between Germany and France, and its greatest length, as taken north-east along the side of the ocean, is about three hundred miles, and about a hundred and forty on the south side.

The seven United Provinces, of which we are here to treat, form only the northern part of this tract, which borders to the south on Austrian Flanders and Brabant, just described; to the east on the upper quarters of the dutchies of Guelders and Cleve, the bishopric of Munster, the county of Bentheim, and the principality of East Friesland; and to the north and west on the Northern sea. The seven United Provinces, notwithstanding the figure the Dutch made, and still make in Europe, is no more than a hundred and fifty miles in length, and a hundred in breadth.

The whole country is full of marshes, which are not without their advantages, as they yield good turf for fuel, and in some parts of the provinces of Groningen, Overijssel, and Drenthe, they are esteemed so secure a fence against Germany, that draining them in order for cultivation is prohibited by law, though this prohibition is not universally regarded.

But these morasses, joined to the low situation of the country near the sea, occasion a damp air, and frequent rains, which, as well as the thick fogs, are more particularly brought on by the westerly winds, that prevail in these parts with great violence. The general distempers of the inhabitants are the gout and scurvy. Coughs and rheums are also very common here; and in the fenny parts near the sea, where the mud, during the ebb, emits putrid effluvias, and wholesome water is scarce, continual reachings are likewise very frequent.

As the land is for the most part level, and in many places lies even lower than the sea, it is not only fenced

against any inundations from the ocean and the rivers at a prodigious expence, by dykes and dams, but for the draining of the waters innumerable ditches are cut; whence the waters so drained are carried off by windmills, and conveyed into canals, from whence it is forwarded by means of sluices into the rivers. These dykes, ditches, and canals, give the country a singular appearance, and by being planted with beautiful rows of trees, interspersed with villas and gardens, are of infinite convenience to merchants and travellers. The treckshuyts, or barks, which are drawn here by horses, go off every day during summer, and at certain stated times pass from one place to another.

As a great part of the soil consists of heath and sandy downs, it is far from affording a sufficient support to the inhabitants, nor can all their industry used in agriculture, draw from it as much grain as is necessary for home consumption. But this is so amply compensated by its trade and navigation, that of the imported grain they not only brew good beer, and distil brandy with other spirits, but export great quantities of both. On the other hand, its rich meadows and pastures render grazing very profitable, and the inhabitants are not only supplied in abundance with milk, butter, and cheese; but the exports of the two last are very considerable, the cheese of Edam and Texel being famous all over the world. In Holland the breeding of sheep is carried on with great success, and admits of still farther improvement, it appearing on an estimate, that under proper regulations, a million of sheep might be fed in that province. The wool of these sheep is reckoned extremely good. Several places yield tobacco, and Zealand is noted for its madder. These provinces have likewise a sufficiency of culinary plants, and some parts abound also in fruit. The principal fuel here is turf and pit-coal, the latter of which is imported from England and Scotland; for wood being very scarce, and bearing a great price, is little used: every piece of timber wrought in these countries, whether for building or exportation, is brought from abroad. Many places make salt from seawater. The county of Zutphen yields iron: but in general the inhabitants owe both the necessities and comforts of life to their extensive commerce with foreign countries.

The provinces of Zealand, Holland, Friesland, and Groningen, lie contiguous to the North Sea, while those of Utrecht, Guelderland, and Overijssel, have a communication

munication with it by the Zuyder-Zee or South-Sea; which is a large lake or bay environed by the provinces of Holland, Utrecht, Guelderland, Overysfel, and Friesland. The principal rivers are the Rhine, the Maefe, and the Scheld.

The fishery in the several streams, rivers, and lakes of this country, though very considerable, serves only for home consumption; but that of the North Sea is of vast produce, and divided into the Lesser and Greater. The former is that carried on along the coast, especially on the Doggersbank, between England and Jutland, on which are caught cod, haddock, turbot, whittings, soles, and other sea-fish. The cod caught here is either carried fresh and alive to market to the nearest towns of the Netherlands, or is salted at sea, and thus forms a branch both of domestic and foreign commerce. The great fishery is that of herrings, from which the Dutch reap immense profits: for if it may not, as formerly, be termed the golden mine of Holland, yet it still affords a comfortable subsistence to at least thirty thousand six hundred families. The season for catching the herrings along the coasts of Scotland and England, is from the twenty-fourth of June to the twenty-fifth of November. The vessels employed in this fishery are termed *busses*, and carry from twenty-five to thirty lasts, which one with another sell for about one hundred and twenty guilders. Formerly in some years no less than fifteen hundred such vessels have sailed from the ports of the seven provinces; but at present it is said that the number of them seldom exceeds two hundred. Though the estimates of the profits arising from the herring-fishery differ, as the profits themselves really do, very widely, yet it is computed that in a good year the neat gain to the proprietors of the *busses*, after all deductions, amounts to two millions of Holland guilders; a very considerable sum, which might perhaps have been gained by the inhabitants of Great-Britain, had the Dutch been steadily and constantly refused the privilege of fishing on our coast, and seizing those advantages which properly and naturally belong to ourselves.

S E C T. II.

Of the Manners of the Dutch, the Populousness of the Country, with a general Account of their Towns and Villages, their Language, and the Religions tolerated there. The Skill of the Dutch in the polite Arts, their Learning, Manufactures, Trade, Commerce, and Coins.

THE Dutch are robust, laborious, patient, free, open, affable, and pleasant in conversation. They are great politicians, not excepting the women and servants, and the very children are well acquainted with the history of their country. However, the boors, and especially the sailors, are rude and clownish. Mr. Hanway observes, that he has seen a boatman in a great city, strut up and down a room with his hat on, his hands on his hips, and with a careless air of insolence, spit at the feet of a gentleman who was treating him with civility, and giving him an opportunity of getting a guinea for an inconsiderable service. This they mistake for liberty, while their knowledge is confined to the common means of gain, and the gratifications of the calls of nature. Cheese, beer, geneva, brandy, and tobacco, are the joys that seem to crown the labours of the common people. The principal virtue of this nation is frugality; they are at all times contented with moderate meals, and the common people never make extravagant feasts. Very often a biscuit, with a bit of butter, cheese, or a herring, with a glass of beer or brandy, suffices them for a repast; but in their cups they are apt to mix cruelty with their rusticity. Indeed a Dutchman is naturally phlegmatic and slow to anger; but when he is heated, he is not easily appeased. Constant employment, coldness of complexion, and perhaps the nature of their food, may contribute to their being but little addicted to love.

The women who are not of high rank adorn their heads with gold lace, and other of the like ornaments, but with more frugality than is generally practised in

Germany. Except a few court ladies, they have not much taste or delicacy in their manners. They are generally handy, neat in their houses to excess, well made, and some have good complexions; but there are few beautiful: their teeth are in general bad, and most of their children are sickly till the age of eight or ten. The women in this country seldom breed after they are thirty; and as the men are remarkable for wearing many breeches, the women in cold weather use pots with live coals of wood or turf set into boxes bored full of holes, and put under the petticoats: this is not only apt to make them old from the waist downward, before the time ordained by nature; but the smell of the coals is offensive. Thus there is a proverbial saying, that "The dirtiest piece of furniture in the house of a Dutchman is his wife." But we would not be understood to charge the disagreeable part of this character on every individual of that nation; there are no doubt ladies distinguished by their charms, and their delicacy. Beauty is not confined to particular nations; and the polite and well-bred are to be found in every country in Europe.

The very situation and nature of the country render industry more necessary there than among the people of other nations. The neighbourhood of a dreadful volcano, says an ingenious author, cannot render the situation of the inhabitants of any other place more precarious than that of the Dutch, from the lowness of the land; for here the ocean has often passed its bounds, and exhibited a lively picture of the general deluge. In 1530, a great part of the country, with seventy-two villages on the coast of Holland and Friesland, were swallowed up, and near twenty thousand people perished; and in 1665, an inundation broke down the dyke of Muydenburg, and laid many places in the province of Utrecht under water. The dyke between Amsterdam and Harlem, and many others were also broke: but the calamity was no sooner over, than the industrious inhabitants, as soon as possible, repaired the damage. With respect to their dykes, they have lately made great improvements: they now line many of their shores with large stones. The dyke to the Zuyder Sea is raised about sixteen feet perpendicular, and goes off upon an easy slope. The stones are here regularly laid, and form an excellent defence against the water; but the dykes toward the North Sea are said to be more lofty, and not to be supported but with piles at a great expence.

The United Provinces, though formerly a bog, are well cultivated, and extremely populous; for these, with the country of Drenthe, contain no less than one hundred and thirteen cities and towns, together with fourteen hundred villages, some of which are very considerable; and there are here about two millions of inhabitants, exclusive of those of twenty-five towns in the conquered lands. But the most populous and best improved of all the seven provinces is that of Holland. The towns here, in the form of the houses, in the canals cut through the streets, and planted with trees, as also in the cleanliness of the streets themselves, make a more agreeable appearance than is usually seen in other countries; and for the villages, no part of the globe can be compared with North Holland.

The language spoken here is Dutch, which is a dialect of the Low German; but so different from the German tongue, that those who only understand that, find the Dutch unintelligible. The French is also much used, and is generally understood; so that most of the news-papers and books are printed in that language.

At the time of the Reformation the inhabitants declared for Lutheranism, adhering only to the Augsburg confession; but in 1562, a different system of articles, corresponding with those of Geneva, was drawn up for the Netherland churches; at the union of Utrecht in 1579, the States agreed to maintain and defend it; and in 1651, the Calvinist doctrines, as set forth by the synod of Dort, received the sanction of the states of each particular province. Hence the Calvinists alone are admitted to any share of the government, and deemed capable of holding the principal employments. The number of Calvinist ministers in the seven United Provinces, and the countries belonging to them, amount to one thousand

thousand five hundred and seventy. However, respect is paid to the rights of conscience, an universal toleration being allowed.

The popish churches in the United Provinces amount to about three hundred and fifty, and the priests to near four hundred; of these fifty-one churches and seventy-four priests are Jansenists, and the rest are of Jesuitical principles, or adhere to the constitution Unigenitus. The papists are admitted only to military employments; but no person of that sect is ever created field-marshal. They are computed to make one-third of the inhabitants; the Jesuits, however, are not tolerated, though in some places connived at.

The Lutherans are allowed the free exercise of their religion in the towns, and their places of worship, in the outward architecture, have all the appearance of churches. The Lutherans are, however, incapable of all posts and employments. In the United Provinces and Brabant are forty Lutheran congregations, who have fifty-two fixed ministers. The Saltzburghers have also a congregation in the district of Cadfand.

The Remonstrants, so called from a remonstrance which they presented to the assembly of the states in 1610, are also called Arminians, from the learned Jacob Arminius, who taught the doctrine of universal redemption. These are at present tolerated; but instead of increasing, are rather under a decline. Of this society there are thirty-four congregations, under forty-three ministers, in Holland, Guelderland, Utrecht, and Friesland. These every year hold a general assembly at Amsterdam and Rotterdam.

The Mennonites or Baptists are divided into various sects, the principal of which are the Flemischers and Wasserlanders. In many places these several congregations are incorporated with each other. The Baptist congregations throughout all the Netherlands do not exceed one hundred and eighty-six, and their ministers amount to about three hundred and twelve.

The Rheinburgers, or Collegiants, obtained the first of these appellations from Rheinburg, a village near Leyden, where they meet twice a year to celebrate the eucharist; the second title had its rise from the colleges, or particular assemblies, they have established in several places, to the number of about eighteen or twenty.

The Quakers are at present dwindled to a very small number; but the Moravians form a considerable body. The Armenian Christians, who in many respects resemble those of the Greek church, chiefly reside at Amsterdam, and also enjoy the free exercise of their religion. There are many other sects that have no settled congregations. The Jews have been allowed the public exercise of their religion ever since the year 1619, and with respect to many rights and privileges, are on a footing with the other inhabitants, except their being excluded from most trades at Amsterdam and some other places. They are divided into Portuguese and Germans, the former of whom came from Portugal in great numbers, in the years 1530 and 1550, and were very kindly received.

With respect to the fine arts, the Dutch have chiefly distinguished themselves in painting and engraving, though they are not without skilful statuaries. For some centuries past, the sciences have been cultivated among them with great application and encouragement, and the number of persons eminent for knowledge and literature, who were either natives of the Netherlands, or invited hither, is very considerable. There are no less than five universities in this country, namely, Leyden, Utrecht, Harderwyck, Franeker, and Groningen, with two gymnasiums, one at Amsterdam, and another at Deventer. There are likewise several famous grammar schools, and in Harlem is an academy of sciences.

The United Provinces being so populous and well improved is chiefly owing to the variety of manufactures carried on there, and to the amazing extent of their commerce. Among the former are the beautiful tiles, of which immense quantities are made in South Holland and Utrecht; their small bricks, called klinkers, great numbers of which are exported; their potters-ware, and tobacco-pipes, particularly those of Tergow; with the Delft porcelain, great quantities of which are also carried

to foreign countries. Good borax is also made in Holland, and common salt well refined. Here are likewise a multitude of oil mills, and starch both blue and white furnishes employment for a number of hands. Great quantities of thread spun in Germany are imported both bleached and unbleached into the Netherlands, where it undergoes farther improvements, and is used either for laces or linen; but the finest linen is made in the province of Friesland, and the Holland damask is not to be exceeded. A great deal of German linen is also bleached and whitened by the Dutch. Hemp is likewise manufactured here several ways: and with respect to paper, immense quantities of it are made, and the best sort is acknowledged to be as fine and beautiful as any in Europe. The timber brought from Norway and the Baltic, is sawed by mills for the building of ships and houses; and besides being a very profitable article in their exports to Spain, Portugal, and other countries, is made use of by the Dutch for the construction of large ships for many European nations; and for making a vast variety of toys, which are exported to foreign countries. Sugar-baking is also the source of a great trade. The woollen, cotton, and silk manufactures do not want beauty; but are at present on the decline; good leather is also made in the United Provinces, and some places are particularly remarkable for the bleaching of wax.

The great trade of these provinces is facilitated and supported by means both natural and political, as by their situation along the German ocean, though without any convenient or safe harbour; the Zuyder Sea, the navigable rivers, and multitude of canals; their civil and religious freedom, with the number, skill, and industry of the inhabitants in handicrafts, manufactures, and fisheries; the great multitude of their merchant ships, the plenty of specie, their national parsimony, and eagerness of gain; their credit among foreigners, the bank at Amsterdam, and their East India trade. By their commerce and shipping this little republic has been able to support many wars, and still maintains its freedom; but both the commerce and power of the Dutch have constantly gone hand in hand, rising and falling together: that their trade and power have for some time past been under a decline is very evident, and this by some is imputed to a decline of parsimony and industry among the inhabitants; but the principal cause is probably the improvement of manufactures, traffic, and navigation, in some of the neighbouring nations. It is still, however, very considerable, though its principal dependence is on the East India company, whose power and riches are too great to be conceived, and of which the reader may see an account in vol. I. page 116, &c.

The Dutch trade almost to every country and port, either as carriers, or in exporting goods, and bringing home returns on their own account: their most considerable exports are goods brought to Holland in their East and West India ships, and among those chiefly spices. Their trade to the Mediterranean and the Levant is conducted by a company; they also carry on a great trade to Spain; their trade to Portugal is very advantageous, but in that to France the imports exceed their exports. The commerce of the States with Great Britain and Ireland is very much curtailed by the strict prohibitions made by the English against the importation of certain commodities, and by the heavy duties laid on others. Another very considerable branch of their trade is that to Norway, Denmark, Russia, and the other countries lying on the Baltic. Their trade to Germany and the neighbouring countries is carried on along the Elbe, the Weser, the Rhine, the Maese, and the Ems; but Hamburg is the port most frequented by them. Their traffic with the divided Netherlands daily decreases.

The coinage of the United Provinces is under the direction of a general mint-college. Indeed every province being a sovereignty of itself, each of course has the privilege of coining; but all pieces, in order to obtain a general currency through the whole republic, are obliged to be of the same intrinsic value; without which regulation one province would not fail to cry down such pieces of the others as happened to come short of the due weight. The smallest piece here is named a deut, or dite,



dite, is worth about half a farthing ; a grot Flemish is four dites, and a stiver two grots ; two stivers make a small silver piece called dubbelchen, and a schilling is equivalent to six stivers. There are also lowered schillings of five stivers and a half ; and festehalves, which are of the same value ; the eight and fourteen stiver pieces, are not very common. A Holland guilder is equivalent to twenty stivers, or one shilling and eight-pence. There are likewise half guilder and three guilder pieces ; but these are seldom seen. A gold gulden makes two twenty-eight stivers, and a thaler, or dollar, thirty ; a rixdollar, or Albert dollar, is two guilders ten stivers. There are also half and quarter rixdollars ; a lion dollar is worth forty-two stivers, or three shillings and seven-pence ; and a ducatoon is worth sixty-three, or five shillings and two-pence. Their gold coins are the well known ducats, which are worth five Holland guilders, and four or five-pence ; and whole ruydders are worth fourteen guilders.

S E C T. III.

A concise History of the United Provinces ; their political Constitution, with a particular Account of the States General. The Titles and Arms of the States ; the Taxes and Revenues of the Republic ; with their Military and Naval Force.

THE Netherlands, with that part of Germany which lies west of the Rhine, was possessed by the Romans, who called it Gallia Belgica : but upon the decline of the Roman empire, the Goths, and other northern people, took possession of these provinces, as they passed through them in their way to France and Spain : and here erected several small governments that were a kind of limited monarchies, whose sovereigns were stiled dukes, counts, and lords. The people enjoyed great privileges under these princes, who were contented with preserving them, because the smallness of their respective dominions made their greatest strength consist in the affection of their subjects. But afterwards when all these provinces became subject to one prince, who had large dominions elsewhere, the people were treated with less indulgence. Charles V. was the first of these, and, as he was king of Spain, emperor of Germany, and duke of Burgundy, he had different interests from those of his predecessors ; and being engaged in a war with France, he brought foreign forces from his other dominions into the Netherlands, notwithstanding the laws to the contrary.

At length the reformation breaking out, that prince exhibited very rigorous edicts against those who separated from the Romish church ; and Grotius affirms, that, during his reign, above a hundred thousand persons suffered death for their religion ; but the number and courage of those who embraced the doctrines of the reformation, instead of being diminished by the horrors of persecution, daily increased, and sometimes the people rescued out of the hands of the officers those who were led to execution. Thus the Netherlands became extremely alienated from the house of Austria, and their discontents increased on Charles's nominating his son Philip II. to be their governor. This prince would admit only of the Popish religion ; and a sanguinary persecution against the heretics, as they were called, was carried on with fresh vigour, a court of inquisition was erected, and these cruelties aggravated by insupportable taxes.

These oppressions being carried to the most tyrannical height by Ferdinand of Toledo, duke of Alba, whom Philip had created governor, the Netherlands made a push for their freedom, and William prince of Orange, in conjunction with his brother, count Lewis of Nassau, undertook the defence of the inhabitants, in their noble struggles for religious and civil liberty. Accordingly the states of Holland, in their own names, conferred the stadtholdership on the former, and several other towns and provinces declaring for him, he at first united them, in 1576, in one general association, under the title of The Pacification of Ghent. But this union being soon dissolved, the prince laboured to the utmost of his power

to form a more durable alliance, which he happily accomplished in 1579. In that year the celebrated league of Utrecht was concluded, which gave name to the United Provinces, and became the basis and plan of their constitution. The prince of Orange was afterwards on the point of being nominated sovereign of these countries, but was treacherously shot in 1584, by an assassin hired by the Spanish ministry. The United Netherlands, however, continuing to maintain, sword in hand, that liberty to which they had raised themselves, queen Elizabeth of England took them under her protection, and sent them assistance. Thus the war went on prosperously, and their commerce arrived at such a pitch, that in 1602 their celebrated East India company was established, and Spain being both weakened and discouraged by the ill success of a tedious war, in 1606, agreed to an armistice for twelve years, and in the very first article acknowledged the United Netherlands to be a free and independent state ; and, during this truce, the republic attained to a degree of power which it has never since exceeded.

In 1621 the war was again renewed, during which the stadtholder, prince Frederic Henry, greatly distinguished himself. This war was brought to a period in 1648, by the peace of Munster, at which Philip IV. king of Spain, renounced all claim to the United Netherlands.

In 1652 a war broke out between the United Provinces and England ; but was terminated two years after by a treaty, in which the states of Holland engaged for ever to exclude the house of Orange from the stadtholdership of their province.

In 1665 another war was kindled with England, which lasted till the treaty of Breda. The states of Holland and West Friesland then passed an edict, by which they abolished the stadtholdership in their province. When France formed a design to seize on the Spanish Netherlands, the United Provinces entered into an alliance with the crowns of England and Sweden, for the defence of those countries : thus France was, in 1668, compelled to agree to the peace of Aix la Chapelle ; but soon took a severe revenge by subverting that alliance, and inducing England, with some other powers, to enter into a league against the United Provinces, on which a war ensued. In this critical juncture the republic, in 1672, nominated the young prince of Orange, named William III. captain and admiral-general ; and the populace compelled the states of Holland to invest him with the stadtholdership, which two years after was declared hereditary.

In 1678 a peace was concluded with France at Nimeguen ; but it was of no long continuance, for in 1688, the states supporting their stadtholder in his expedition to England, with a fleet and a large body of troops, France declared war against them, which lasted till the peace of Ryswic in 1697. At length, on the death of Charles II. king of Spain, in the year 1700, the Spanish provinces fell to the share of the house of Austria, and the republic became involved in a war relating to that succession, which continued till the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. On the decease of the emperor Charles VI. they assisted the queen of Hungary against France, which drew on them the resentment of that power ; and, in 1747, the French making an irruption into Dutch Flanders, the republic unanimously declared the late prince of Orange hereditary stadtholder, captain-general, and admiral in chief.

The Seven United Provinces form seven republics, or independent sovereign states, united together for their common defence in a close alliance ; but on condition, that all shall enjoy their own respective laws, liberties, and privileges. As they are confederated and allied together, it is requisite that they should meet, in order to consult on the most proper method of promoting their common interest ; but as it is impossible for all the members of these several states to meet together, each particular state appoints some person to represent it ; and the assembly of these representatives is called the assembly of the States-general.

Not only each province, but the principal cities, send deputies to the States-general, as do also the nobles. Thus the number of the representatives is very considerable, and all are maintained at the expence of their respective provinces ;

provinces; the deputies of Holland being allowed four florins a day, and those of the other states six. But whatever be the number of the deputies from each province, be they nobles or commoners, they have all together but one voice; and therefore in the assembly of the States-general there are but seven voices. Besides this, being properly the assembly of the representatives of the seven sovereignties which compose the states of the United Provinces, their power is limited either expressly or tacitly by this instruction: "Not to suffer the least wound to be given to the sovereignty of that province which deputes them."

The States-general, however, not only make peace or war in their own name, but send and receive ambassadors and other public ministers. The commander in chief, and all other military officers, take an oath of fidelity to them; and, during a war, some of their members, or of the council of state, follow the army, sit in the council of war, and without their consent nothing of importance can be undertaken. In time of war the States likewise grant licences and protections.

Thus the States-general appear at first view to be the sovereigns of the country; but most of these deputies are appointed only for a few years, and though they have the power of debating on the most important affairs that may tend to secure or promote the preservation and happiness of the state, yet they have not power to conclude any point of great consequence, without previously communicating it to their respective provinces, and receiving their express consent. This renders the resolutions of the republic so tedious and dilatory, as to tire the patience of those powers who have affairs to negotiate with the states; but tho' this slow method of proceeding be attended with many inconveniences, it has some advantages: it affords leisure for mature deliberation and caution, and is sometimes an unexceptionable pretence for protracting time and waiting events.

In the assembly of the States-general, the provinces preside weekly in their turn, beginning with Guelderland, who had the precedence before the union; then Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Overijssel, and Groningen. He who is first named in the deputation of his province presides, and is from hence called the President of the Week. He proposes the subject to be debated, and collects the votes of the assembly, upon which he forms his conclusion, dictates to the register, and afterwards signs the resolution. They sit throughout the whole year without adjournment, and their meetings are always held at the Hague.

The highest office in this country is that of stadtholder; for he is at the same time governor-general of the seven United Provinces, captain-general, and grand-admiral; but his power is extremely limited. He swears to obey the States-general, and can neither make peace nor war without their consent. He may come to their assembly to lay before them any business in which the public is concerned; but has not ordinarily a seat in it. He may pardon criminals condemned to suffer death, and has the right of choosing the magistrates of cities upon a double nomination of their respective senates, excepting only Amsterdam, with several other important privileges.

The title assumed by the States is that of High and Mighty Lords, or the Lords the States-general of the United Netherlands, and in public addresses they are stiled their High Mightinesses.

Their arms are, gules, a lion rampant, holding in one paw a sword, and in the other a bundle of seven arrows; beneath the shield, which is surmounted with a ducal coronet, is the motto *CONCORDIA RES PARVÆ CRESCUNT*.

The council of state consists of twelve deputies of the several provinces, and their office is either triennial, or during the pleasure of their principals. In this council the deputies of Holland have the greatest weight, that province being possessed of three votes, while none of the others have more than two, and some of them only one. The presidentship indeed is held alternately by the twelve members, each in their week. The council of state assembles every day in the same court with the States-general. The principal affairs which come under the deliberation of this council are, those of the army and

revenue; and in conjunction with the deputies of the States-general, they also provide every thing necessary for the defence of the country, both in time of peace and war. The revenues under the direction of this council are those paid by the Seven Provinces, and the country of Drenthe, into the military chest, and by the Generalité-lands into the public treasury; as likewise all contributions, confiscations, and the like. Sometimes the council of state is summoned before the States-general; but whenever the latter require a particular conference with them, they only send two or three deputies. The title of this council is Noble and Mighty Lords. The treasurer-general is also honoured with this title, as being an assessor in the council of state, and may deliver his opinion; but has no definitive voice. The receiver-general has a seat in the same council.

The general chamber of accounts is composed of fourteen deputies, each province sending two. Their chief employment is to receive, state, and balance the accounts of the several provinces. The members of this chamber are also stiled Noble and Mighty Lords.

The general chamber of finances is subordinate to the former, and consists of four commissioners and a secretary.

The mint-office consists of three counsellors, assisted by a mint-master-general, a general assay-master, and an under secretary. All these several colleges meet at the Hague.

With respect to the administration of justice, the proceedings of the several courts are regulated by the particular laws of the respective towns and provinces where they are tried, the edicts of the states, and the civil law. Each province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal cases, appeals lie from the petty and county courts, and if the party cast is disposed to stand a third trial, he may apply to the states of the province, who appoint certain persons learned in the laws and customs of that province to examine the decree, and pass a final decision. Justice is said to be no where so well administered as in these provinces.

The taxes payable by the inhabitants of the United provinces, and by those of the conquered lands, have been rendered necessary by the long and severe wars which the republic has sustained, and the number of them, especially in Holland, where they are always the heaviest, is so great, that a certain writer asserts, that the only thing which has escaped taxation is the air we breathe. The principal ordinary taxes are the duties on exports and imports, levied by the admiralty offices, and appropriated to defray the expences of the navy. The taxes on houses, lands, horned cattle, &c. and on the purchase money of all immoveables, under which are comprehended vessels of above eight tons burthen, for which the fortieth penny is paid; and this alone in Holland annually brings in above seven hundred thousand golden florins. The twentieth penny levied on inheritances in the collateral and ascending line. A poll tax, which obtains only in some provinces. The excise on all kinds of provisions, necessaries, and liquors; and here the money levied on bread and beer is estimated at above one third, that on wine at somewhat less, and that on turf for firing also at one third. There is likewise a duty on horses, coaches, and servants. The stamp paper used in all their several instruments, contracts, and bonds, is said to exceed four hundred thousand golden florins.

In particular emergencies, when the ordinary revenues are insufficient, the tax on lands and houses is doubled, and some other duties raised. Thus, in 1747, an edict passed for a voluntary aid, consisting of the fiftieth penny of every man's whole wealth and substance. The ordinary revenues of the republic are estimated at twenty-one millions of guilders; but as the contributions have fallen short of the expences incurred by their long wars, the state has borrowed immense sums from the inhabitants, and every one of the provinces labours under very heavy debts.

The United Provinces stand in need of a considerable military force for their defence, notwithstanding which, this has never been put on a proper establishment. Each province keeps on foot such a number of troops as it can conveniently maintain; but the Swiss regi-

regiments are paid by the States-general. In time of peace the forces of the republic seldom exceed forty thousand men, and very often their number is still less. In time of war the republic hires troops of the German princes, and keeps them in pay till peace be restored. The chief command of the army is vested in the stadtholder as captain-general; but the executive part, especially in time of war, is filled by the field marshal general. The fortresses are always kept in good repair. In 1755, the expences of the military establishment amounted to nine million eight hundred forty-four thousand four hundred and thirty-seven guilders sixteen stivers; but in 1756, only to nine million seven hundred sixty-five thousand and four. The naval force of the republic formerly made a great figure, and in some wars the Dutch have had at sea a hundred men of war; but the usual number in time of peace is only thirty, and those not always fit for service. It however passes for a certain truth, that the admiralties, by the assistance of the several provinces, can in a short time equip forty or fifty ships of the line. Their men of war are chiefly employed in cruising in the Mediterranean, to protect their trade against the Corsairs, or as convoys to the homeward bound Indiamen.

S E C T. IV.

Of GUELDERLAND.

Its Situation, Climate, Produce, and Rivers. The Government of the Province, its Divisions, and a Description of Nimeguen, Zutphen, and Arnheim.

GUELDERLAND, or Gelderland, is bounded on the north by the Zuyder-sea and Overijssel; on the east by the bishopric of Munster, and the dutchy of Cleve; on the south is divided by the Maese from Brabant; and on the west borders on Utrecht and Holland.

The air is the best in all the Seven Provinces, and the soil for the most part good. The country of Zutphen has such plenty of apple, pear, and cherry-trees, that it supplies all the other provinces with those fruits. There are here also large tracts of arable land, with a sufficient quantity of meadow grounds fit for pastures.

Guelderland is watered by the Rhine, and its three branches the Waal, the Yssel, and the Lek, and on its southern borders runs the Maese. The smaller rivers are the Linge, formerly called the Longwater, which takes its course between the Rhine and the Waal, till it falls into the Merwe; the Old Yssel which joins the Yssel near Doesberg, and the Berkel, which falls into the same river.

In the whole province are twenty-two towns, and two boroughs. It is divided into three districts, Nimeguen, Zutphen, and Arnheim, each of which has its own particular states composed of the nobility and towns. The number of the nobility admitted in the legislative power is not fixed, every one legally qualified being advanced to a share in the government at twenty-one years of age. The towns may depute as many as they please to assist at the diet of the district, though each town has but one vote. The assemblies of the states of each district are always held in the capital, from which it derives its name, and the burgomaster for the time being sits as president at the diet, at which all affairs relating to that district are determined. Two general assemblies of the states of the whole province, consisting of the deputies of the states of the three provinces, are annually held in the three capitals, one in spring, and the other in autumn. The burgrave of Nimeguen always sits as president, and in these assemblies all affairs relating to the whole province are regulated. Guelderland also sends nineteen deputies to the assembly of the States-general of the United Provinces.

The district of Nimeguen contains the south part of Guelderland, and lies between the Rhine, the Waal, and the Maese. Though this quarter is the smallest, it is the most considerable, and pays the largest contingent to the public expences. It contains only three towns that have a seat and vote in the assembly, the principal of these is the following:

Nimeguen, the capital of this district, stands on several little eminences along the river Waal, over which it has a bridge of boats, in the fifty-first degree fifty-two minutes north latitude, and in the fifth degree forty-six minutes east longitude. Towards the land it is very strongly fortified, it being the utmost boundary of the Netherlands to the east; but the great extent of its outworks requires a very numerous garrison. The churches here are two of Dutch Calvinists, the principal of which is that of St. Stephen, a French church, a Lutheran church, and five belonging to the Roman catholics. On the east side of the city, within the walls, stands an old burg, or castle, called the Falkenhof, which is said to have been built by Charlemagne; and the burgrave, who resides in it, is one of the most considerable nobles in all Guelderland. Within the walls of this castle are delightful walks, planted with rows of lime-trees. The stadthouse, which stands in Burg-street, is the place where the states of the quarter meet, and where the provincial diets are held.

In 1678 the celebrated treaty of Nimeguen was concluded here, and in 1702 marshal Boufflers formed a design of seizing this place, it being then without a garrison; but the earl of Athlone, the Dutch general, marched to its relief with such expedition, that the marshal's scheme was frustrated. Nimeguen carries on a good trade with the dutchy of Cleve, and sends great quantities of its white beer into all the United Provinces.

The Zutphen quarter, or county of Zutphen, is separated from Arnheim by the river Yssel. The soil is on the west and south sides not inferior to any in Guelderland; but to the eastward near the frontiers of Munster is full of heaths and morasses. It contains five towns that enjoy a seat and vote in the diets, the principal place in which is the following:

Zutphen, in Latin Zutphania, the capital of the county to which it gives name, stands on the banks of the Yssel, over which it has a bridge of boats, fifty-five miles east-by-south of Hanover. The Yssel here receives the Borkel, or Berkel, which divides the town into two parts, the Old and the New. The former of these is much larger than the latter; but both have extensive suburbs, which chiefly consist of pleasure-houses, yet by degrees have been included within the circuit of the walls. The town is well fortified, except towards the works in the suburbs, where there is less occasion for strength, as the country may be easily laid under water by means of the Borkel. There are here several pleasant walks, particularly on the ramparts, which are planted with trees. Zutphen was formerly a Hanse-town, and more opulent than at present. The Dutch Calvinists have two churches here, and there is also one belonging to the Walloons, another to the Lutherans, another to the Catholics, and another to the Mennonites. A gymnasium, founded here in 1687, has six masters. This town has several times been besieged and taken.

The Arnheim quarter, or the Veluwe, is separated from that of Zutphen by the Yssel. Its soil is for the most part very indifferent, especially towards the middle, which abounding in sand, heath, and brakes has the appearance of a wilderness; but the country near the river is as fertile as any other part of the Netherlands. It has five towns that enjoy a seat and vote in the diets, the principal of which is

Arnheim, the capital of the quarter, seated on the Rhine at the foot of the Veluwe hills, at no great distance from the place where the Yssel and the Rhine divide their streams. Over the latter of these rivers it has a bridge of boats, and before the Rhine-gate is a commodious harbour of a quadrangular form. The fortifications to the land-side were considerably enlarged in 1702 by that skilful engineer general Coehorn, who also enclosed within a strong line an eminence to the west of the town, which in case of a siege might be a great annoyance to it; but is now capable of containing a small camp for its defence. To the north of the town runs the molebeek, which fills the moats with water. The walls are delightfully planted with lime-trees, and may be walked round with ease in an hour and a half. The town itself is well built: here all the states of this quarter have their meetings, and it is likewise the seat of the provincial

vincial chief court of justice, and the chamber of accounts. Antiently the dukes of Guelderland, and after them the stadtholders of this province, kept their court in the old palace; which, whenever the hereditary stadtholder comes to assist at the assembly of the states of the province, is fitted up for his reception. In the great church, dedicated to St. Eusebius, are the monuments of several counts and dukes of Guelderland. The Dutch Calvinists have also another church, and there is likewise a French church and a congregation of Lutherans. Arnheim was taken from the Spaniards in 1585; the French made themselves masters of it in 1672, and kept it till the year 1674.

The above-mentioned district, called Veluwe, is surrounded by a narrow strip of land so extremely fertile, as to give occasion to a saying, that the Veluwe is a thread-bare coat with a very rich border.

It is proper to observe, that part of the upper quarter of Guelderland includes the quarter of Ruremond, which, with its capital of the same name, is subject to the house of Austria; and the small town and prefecture of Guedres, which belong to the king of Prussia.

S E C T. V.

Of the Province of HOLLAND.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. The Populousness of the Country, and the Neatness of the Towns and Villages. The Government of the Province; with a Description of the Cities of Dort, Harlem, Leyden, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, the Hague, and the Village of Broek.

THE province of Holland is bounded on the south by Brabant; on the east by the provinces of Guelderland, Utrecht, the Zuyder sea, and the North sea; on the latter of which its whole western frontiers lie. This is the largest of all the seven provinces, and, according to the computation of the celebrated John de Witt, contains four hundred thousand acres; but later authors suppose that it contains four hundred and forty thousand.

Its situation is in general very low, and some part even lower than the sea, from which it is secured by dykes and dams, and intersected by innumerable ditches and canals, through which the water is carried off at the time of ebb. The air is foggy and unwholesome; however, the greatest part of the province consists of fine pasture lands, and therefore the principal employment of the country people is making butter and cheese; for which purpose they keep a number of milch-cows. The more southern parts of the province, which lie near Zealand, and also the west lands, as they are called, are excellent corn countries. The middle part of the province consists almost entirely of turf grounds.

Besides the large rivers common to the Netherlands in general, there are several smaller streams; as the Vecht, which coming from Utrecht falls into the Zuyder sea: the Amstel, which receives the Crooked Amstel, and runs through Amsterdam into the Y: the Zaan, which waters North Holland, and also discharges itself into the Y; as does also the Spaaren, which issues out of the lake of Harlem. On this river pass the larger vessels bound to Zealand, and other ports, crossing Harlem lake: the Shie, which runs through Delft to Shiedam, where it joins the Maese; as does also the Rotte at Rotterdam: the Gouwe, which proceeds out of the Old Rhine, and at Gouda falls into the Yssel: the Holland Yssel, which, after receiving its waters from the Rhine-canal, as it is called, discharges itself into the Maese; this river is also joined by the Vlist: and lastly, the Linge, which issuing out of Guelderland, traverses Holland, and loses itself in the Merve.

In several parts of the country these rivers are joined by navigable canals, which afford a cheap communication between the several towns and villages of this populous province, as, by means of the treckschuyts, passengers go from place to place at fixed hours on these canals, and at very cheap rates. Goods are likewise sent the same way, which is of unspeakable advantage to the inland trade.

The broad water, which passes by Amsterdam from the Zuyder sea, and divides the province into South and North Holland, or into Holland and West Friesland, is called the Y, or, as it is pronounced, the Ey, and at Beverwick forms the Wykermeer.

This province abounds in the most extraordinary improvements, and is amazingly populous, the number of its inhabitants being computed at one million two hundred thousand. The buildings in the towns are mostly of brick, and for handsome villages and cleanliness in their houses, it exceeds every other country; but in North Holland neatness is carried to an astonishing pitch. In that province are villages in which the houses, together with the rooms and furniture, are clean and bright beyond imagination; the buildings themselves, the floors, and every wooden utensil, both within and without, even to the very gates in the roads, and the posts in the pastures against which the cows rub, as also the very trunks of the trees, being painted: the chimnies likewise, with the cow stalls, both on the floor and on the sides, are kept extremely neat; but in these cow stalls the families themselves reside, to avoid soiling their shining rooms. Their streets too are paved with brick, and very carefully washed and strewed with a fine white sand.

The two parts of which this province consists are under one joint-regency, called the States of Holland and West Friesland, composed of the nobility and voting towns. The number of nobility admitted into the assembly of the States is not limited, and therefore not always the same. The nobility elect their several members by a majority of votes, but they seldom exceed ten. The voting towns, at the first foundation of the republic, were only the six following: Dort, Harlem, Delft, Leyden, Amsterdam, and Gouda; but William I. prince of Orange, added twelve more; so that at present they are eighteen, that is, eleven in South Holland, and seven in North Holland. The smallest of these cities has an equal voice in the provincial states with Amsterdam, which pays almost half the charge of the whole province.

Each member at his first appearance in this assembly, is obliged to swear to maintain the rights, privileges, immunities, laws, and customs of the country, and to give his vote according to his conscience, for the common happiness and prosperity of the province, without hatred, or regard to the interest of any particular town or person; to execute all the resolutions taken in the assembly with fidelity, and to keep inviolable the secrets with which he shall be entrusted.

The States of Holland enjoy entire liberty of speech, and are only answerable for their actions to the town which deposes them, without being liable to be called in question by any other authority. They meet four times a year, in February, June, September, and November. In the three former sessions they fill up the vacant employments in their disposal, consult about the common affairs of the province, and determine particular differences that may happen between the towns. In November they meet for raising such supplies as may have been granted by their deputies to the States General, for the service of the subsequent year.

The resolutions of the States are generally determined by a majority of voices; but in very important affairs they must be unanimous: so that the opposition of one of the smallest cities can prevent a resolution being taken; in which case the assembly is adjourned for a day or two, that the deputies may have time to return to their respective cities for farther instructions.

The grand pensionary of Holland is a person of great dignity; he has no decisive vote; he proposes the subjects of debate to the assembly of the states of that province, collects the suffrages of the nineteen representatives, pronounces the resolutions, and dictates the terms in which they are to be registered: he is also the constant deputy to the States General, and keeps the public registers and great seal of the province. He is elected by a majority of suffrages in the assembly of the states; and his office is properly only for five years, at the expiration of which a new election, or rather a confirmation of the former, must be obtained.

After

After the states of Holland, the court of the greatest authority is the provincial council of state, which, from the two parts of this province, is divided into two assemblies; that of South Holland consists of ten representatives, of which one always represents the nobility, and has the precedence of all the rest. These take cognizance both of the revenue and military affairs; and, when necessary, convene a general assembly of the states of the province. The assembly of North Holland is composed of seven deputies of the towns of that part of the province. These hold a joint assembly every year in the month of November, to settle, in conjunction with the deputies of the States General, the necessary funds to be levied in the subsequent year for the service of the army.

For the administration of justice there are two courts held at the Hague, namely, the court of Holland, and the high council. The provinces of Holland and Zeeland have always been so strictly united, as to have but one common high court of justice; and accordingly the court of Holland is composed of a president, with eight counsellors of that province, and three for Zeeland; a solicitor, two attorneys, a register, and six secretaries: Holland chooses the president two years, and Zeeland the third. The members of this court are excluded from being magistrates of cities, directors of trading companies, or enjoying any post, or any other salary than what is annexed to their office. The nobles of Holland, and the magistrates of the cities, are subject to the jurisdiction of this court, and appeals from the judgments of the magistrates are decided by it.

The high council of Holland and Zeeland is composed of a president and six counsellors for Holland, and three for Zeeland, a register, and a substitute. This court judges definitively in all cases brought before them by an appeal from the court of Holland, and gives judgment from which there is no farther appeal, except by way of revision.

The senate of Amsterdam consists of thirty-six members, part of whom have the direction of political affairs, and others the administration of justice. The dignity of a senator is for life, unless forfeited by mal-administration. The senate has the power of filling up vacancies, and directing all other affairs with a supreme and absolute authority, independent of the people. They choose the burgomasters and schepens, or aldermen, of every city. The first are always part of their own body, and in order to become a burgomaster it is necessary that a person has borne the office of a schepen. There are twelve burgomasters in Amsterdam, four of whom have the administration of affairs, and are from thence called regent-burgomasters. Three of these are annually changed, and the fourth continues in office a second year, to instruct the new-comers: he likewise presides for the first quarter, and then gives place to his colleagues, who in the same manner preside three months alternately, till the year is finished.

The schepen, or aldermen, form the chief court of justice in every city. In Amsterdam there are nine, seven of whom are annually elected, and two remain a second year. These have the administration of justice both in civil and criminal affairs; but, before they condemn a person to suffer death, they always consult the burgomasters on the merits of the cause; but are not obliged to conform to their opinion, and sometimes they give judgment contrary to it. There lies no appeal from their sentence in criminal causes. Where the punishment is capital, not only the proof of the crime is required to be extremely evident, but the prisoner himself must confess it; for which purpose they employ the rack and other tortures; but this is never done except when the evidence is so strong against the criminal as to leave no room to question his guilt, whence it is said, that an innocent person is never put to the rack.

There is another court inferior to the former, but worthy of being imitated by all Christian nations, since it seems founded on the very spirit of Christianity. This court consists of eight or ten members, stiled peace-makers, who are generally young gentlemen of fortune, who must be house-keepers and married. Their business is to make up all quarrels, and to prevent or dissuade peo-

ple from going to law. They, with one experienced magistrate at their head, also take cognizance of civil causes amounting to a sum not exceeding six hundred guilders, or about fifty-five pounds sterling. Their method of proceeding is by way of citation: the creditor summons his debtor to appear, and, after the fact has been stated, and both sides heard, the peace-makers determine what ought to be done, and order the parties to comply with it: but there lies an appeal from their decision to the schepens.

There is no where such large credit given to all sorts of persons as in Holland, and there never was any country where so few languish in prison. Whenever any person acquaints the magistrates of his inability to pay his creditors, and lays before them an exact account of his circumstances, they immediately order the commissioners of bankrupts to take possession of his effects, and exempt his person from all arrests for six weeks, which time is allowed him to compound with his creditors. In the mean time his books are laid before the commissioners to be examined, and all letters directed to him are delivered to them before he peruses them. If his endeavours to compound with his creditors prove ineffectual, and his failure appears to be owing to losses and misfortunes, the commissioners, when the six weeks are expired, sell his effects, and make a dividend, after which the magistrates acquit and exempt him from all claim, whether foreign or domestic; nor is it in the power of any or of all his creditors to hinder this, when the failure is not fraudulent.

There is also another method of obtaining absolute freedom in Holland still more expeditious, which is for the debtor to apply to the provincial high court of justice, representing his condition, and giving up all he has upon oath, after which he is exempted, as before, from all future claims, and may again engage in trade; but if the debtor here takes a false oath, the magistrates are authorized to punish him as they please, and even to sentence him to suffer death.

Holland, with respect to its ecclesiastical establishment, is divided into two parts, each of which has its particular synod. The synod of South Holland is composed of eleven classes, under which are three hundred and thirty-one ministers: the synod of North Holland has only six classes, in which are two hundred and twenty ministers. Besides these ministers of the established church, there are assemblies of English Presbyterians at Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Dort, Leyden, and Harlem; and at Amsterdam is an English episcopal church. The Remonstrants amount to thirty congregations, and thirty-eight ministers. The Lutherans compose nineteen congregations, and have twenty-seven preachers. The Roman catholics have about two hundred and fifty churches, and two hundred and thirty-five priests, among which are about forty churches and sixty priests of Jansenist principles. At Amsterdam is also the metropolitan church of the Moravians; and also a Quakers meeting.

The principal cities in Holland are the following:

Dort, or Dordrecht, in Latin Dordracum, is seated on an island in the Merwe, that was formed in 1421 by a terrible inundation, which destroyed no less than seventy-two villages, and about a hundred thousand persons. This city stands fifteen miles to the east of Rotterdam, and its situation is naturally so strong, that, though destitute of fortifications, it has never yet been taken. The number of houses in 1732 amounted to three thousand nine hundred and fifty-four. It is the seat of the mintage for South Holland, and has a seminary. The harbour is very commodious, and its trade considerable, especially in grain, Rhenish, and other wines; as also in timber, which, in summer time, is brought from Germany down the Rhine and the Waal, and here sawed in mills, of which there are great numbers about the city.

Harlem, Haarlem, or Haerlem, is situated on the river Sparin, which runs through it, and is the only passage for the many ships and other vessels coming from Friesland and other parts, in their way to the towns of Holland and Zeeland. Harlem stands fourteen miles to the west of Amsterdam, and enjoys a communication with that city and Leyden, by means of two spacious canals. The houses, which are neat brick buildings, in 1732

amounted to seven thousand nine hundred and sixty-three; but very few of them are built in the modern taste, or make an elegant appearance. There are in this city four Dutch Calvinist churches, one of French, one of Lutheran, and several mass-houses, the Papists being here much more numerous than the Protestants. Its manufactures of silk and linen, though still considerable, are greatly declined. The bleaching of thread and linen, for which this city is famous, employs a great number of hands. Once a most extravagant trade in flowers, particularly in tulips, was carried on here; but at present this passion, which was carried to a strange excess, is much abated.

The inhabitants attribute the invention of printing to Lawrence Coster of this city; on whose house, which stood in about the middle of the town, was a Latin inscription that he invented it about the year 1440: a statue was also erected to him on the same account; and in the town-house is kept in a silver case, wrapped up in silk, the first book that Coster printed. There is here an academy of sciences, founded in 1751.

In the year 1573 this city held out a famous siege against the Spaniards for ten months; during which the brave citizens were reduced to eat leather, and the vilest animals. They for a considerable time kept up a correspondence with the prince of Orange by carrier-pigeons, till the Spaniards discovering it, shot all the pigeons about the town. The citizens at last surrendered, on condition of being saved from plunder; but the Spaniards had the cruelty to punish the inhabitants for their bravery by a most inhuman massacre in cold blood. The garrison, which had consisted of four thousand men, was reduced to sixteen hundred, and of these they barbarously murdered nine hundred.

To the south of the town lie several beautiful seats, and a wood cut out into delightful walks and vistas.

Leyden, in Latin Lugdunum Batavorum, is seated on the Rhine, in the fifty-second degree fifteen minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree ten minutes east longitude, and, next to Amsterdam, is the largest and finest city in all Holland. In 1732 the houses amounted to ten thousand eight hundred and ninety-one. The streets are long, broad, neat, and adorned with beautiful canals. Here are some fine churches belonging to the Dutch Calvinists, with a Lutheran, an English, a French, and a Mennonite meeting; as also several mass-houses, the Papists constituting the majority of the inhabitants. The university, founded in 1575 by William I. prince of Orange, is the largest and most antient in all the United Netherlands. Its library, besides a multitude of printed books, has two thousand Oriental manuscripts, many of which are in Arabic, and a large sphere adapted to the Copernican system, and moving by clock-work: it has also an anatomical theatre, an observatory, and a physic-garden. The celebrated cloth manufactures of this city are much decayed, the demand for them being greatly lessened. This city is famous for the long and severe siege it sustained in 1573 against the Spaniards, who encompassed it with seventy-two forts. This siege lasted above five months with such vigour, that the inhabitants were reduced to the greatest extremities, and above ten thousand of them perished: yet, considering the barbarous treatment Harlem met with, they resolved to hold out, and upon receiving a summons, answered, "They would never surrender, while they had one arm to eat, and another to fight." At length they cut the main bank of the Maese and the Yssel. At first the water rose but slowly; but the wind soon changing to the north-west, turned the country round Leyden into a sea, by which means fifteen hundred Spaniards were drowned. The anniversary of this deliverance is observed on the third of October as a solemn day of thanksgiving, and after sermon the same siege is represented in a tragedy, the money arising from which is applied to charitable uses.

Amsterdam, or Armsteldam, is situated in the 52d degree 20 minutes north latitude, and in the 4th degree 30 minutes east longitude, at the influx of the Y and the Amstel, where is a sluice, by means of which that river continues its course through the town. This is one of the greatest trading towns in Europe, and though from the shallowness of the Pampus, the only passage leading to it out of

the Zuyder sea, it might be thought but indifferently situated for commerce, as ships of burthen must be lightened in order to pass through it, and afterwards wait for an easterly or north-east wind, to go through the Marsdiep into the North Sea; yet the harbour is one of the largest and safest in Europe: and it has this advantage, that the other towns of the province can easily send their goods thither, and receive returns; and with a fair wind it is but a few hours passage to or from all the ports of North Holland, Friesland, Overijssel, and Guelderland. The ground is naturally marshy, and the buildings founded on oaken piles, which occasioned the facetious Erasmus to say, that in his country vast multitudes of people lived on the tops of trees. The middle of the town is intersected by a great number of navigable canals, which, while they conduce to the pleasantness and cleanliness of the place, are at the same time a great convenience to trade; but in hot and calm weather they emit fetid effluvia, which would be still worse, were not the water kept in continual motion by the working of two large water-mills, and one turned by horses. All the canals issue into the Y and the Amstel, and such as go far up into the town, being intersected by cross canals, have a communication with each other. These canals divide the town into a multitude of islands joined together by bridges, some of which are of stone and others of wood.

The city forms a semicircle on the Y, and is fortified on the land-side with ramparts and twenty-six regular bastions, and on that side the neighbouring country may be laid under water. On the side next the Y it is secured by a double row of piles driven into the river, projecting some feet above the surface; but in some places openings are left for ships to pass in and out, and in the night these openings are fenced with a boom. The piles extend in length no less than fifty thousand feet, and without them, in a place called the Laag, lie the large ships in such numbers, that their masts resemble a wood. In the intermediate spaces, between the town and the inner row of piles, are ranged innumerable small ships and barks.

The Amstel divides the town into two parts, and in 1732, when the houses were numbered, they were found to amount to twenty-six thousand eight hundred and thirty-five; but the inhabitants do not exceed two hundred thousand.

The gates of the city are very fine, particularly that of Harlem, which is adorned on each side with large columns, and a lion's head on the top of each; in the middle is the city's present arms, and on the frieze of the inside of the gate towards the town is the antient coat, which was a ship without a rudder. On each side of this gate is a guard-house, one for the burghers, and the other for the soldiers of the garrison, who are paid by the magistrates, and are under their command. There are four other principal gates; before which is a bridge of several arches, with draw-bridges, and another stone gate, that is shut every night. The bridge over the Amstel, which joins one side of the rampart to the other, consists of thirty-five arches, eleven of which are very high, and eight of them shut up; the rest of them being open for boats to go up and down the Amstel. This bridge is six hundred and sixty feet long, and seventy broad, with iron rails on each side.

Most of the streets are extremely clean; but, except those that have canals, they are much too narrow. They are, however, rendered less inconvenient by the hired coaches being set on sledges drawn by one horse. Merchandise is also drawn on sledges, which are not only the most useful vehicles for the inhabitants and their trade, but are calculated to preserve the houses, which, from their being built on piles, might in time be damaged in their foundations, by having a great number of wheel-carriages. Gentlemen's coaches are, however, for the most part set on wheels; but for this liberty they pay a considerable tax. The principal streets, or rather quays of the canals, are agreeably planted on each side with trees. The houses are rather neat than elegant or commodious: the nature of the climate renders it necessary to wash them often; but the greatest part of the people carry this kind of cleanliness so far as hardly to afford themselves

themselves time for the necessary care of their persons. The entrance of their houses is generally by steps, which rise four or five feet from the ground, and the passage into the rooms, which runs very deep, is floored and panelled with marble, which has an air of grandeur in miniature. They have much neat, and some rich furniture, which seems rather occasioned by an antient custom of neatness and elegance, than the effect of a luxurious and expensive taste.

Of all the buildings in Amsterdam the town-house is the most distinguished. It is two hundred and eighty-two feet in front, two hundred and thirty-two deep, and a hundred and sixteen high, exclusive of the cupola. It cost three millions of guilders, or three hundred thousand pounds sterling, when money was more valuable than it is now, which will be less surprising, if we consider that it is founded upon thirteen thousand large piles. This is a very grand and useful building, and yet it is neither elegant nor agreeable. It contains the offices and tribunals for the execution of the laws in the several branches of the military, as well as civil government. It is very observable, that the entrance of this building is very mean; but had the doors been proportioned to the rest of the edifice, they would have been more subject to be forced, upon occasion of those tumultuous assemblies of the people, that are not unfrequent in this country. The want of a large door suitable to the grandeur of the building is, according to Dr. Busching, a designed omission, the seven doors in number and uniformity representing the seven provinces. The inside is said to be very beautifully ornamented with marble, jasper, sculpture, and paintings. In some of their vaults, or cellars, are kept the treasures of the celebrated bank of Amsterdam; in others are confined criminals under sentence of death, and others again serve as apartments for officers of several classes. In the upper part is an arsenal, as it is called, though it is rather a collection of old-fashioned armour and weapons. The chimes of the tower are incomparable, and it commands a fine prospect of the city and its environs as far as the Zuyder sea. Among the other public buildings are the admiralty and East India-house, which are large and beautiful. On the harbour stands the arsenal and magazine for military stores both for sea and land-service. Among several things remarkable in this magazine is a reservoir on the top of the house capable of containing sixteen hundred tons of water, which, by means of leaden pipes, may be conveyed in case of fire to sixteen different parts of the city. Near the arsenal is the dock, which is above five hundred feet long.

In Amsterdam are eleven churches of Dutch Calvinists, two of which are parochial, with two of French, two of English, one of Arminians or Remonstrants, two of Lutherans, and three of Mennonites. The Armenian Christians have likewise a church here, but the Papists have a greater number of places of worship than all the above-mentioned sects put together, and in particular have twenty-four mass houses that are very large. The synagogue of the Portuguese Jews is a spacious and stately building of a quadrangular form, and the inside is extremely neat. The other Jews have also their distinct synagogues. The number of poor-houses is considerable; their incomes, and their conveniencies and cleanliness are worthy of admiration. Here is an hospital for aged men and women, consisting of several buildings; a new edifice for aged people of both sexes; the diaconie for old women, which is the most stately structure of them all, and in which old men also receive a comfortable support; with a receptacle for lunatics, and several orphan-houses, as the eleemosynary-house, in which are frequently two thousand children, the diaconie orphan-house, the burgher orphan-house, &c. There are also some houses of correction, as the rasp-house, where felons rasp Brazil wood for three, four, seven, ten years, or for life, according to the nature of their crime. When they are incorrigible, and too lazy to work, they are often put for an hour or two into a dungeon where water comes in; so that they must be continually labouring at the pump, in order to avoid being drowned. Here are also spin-houses, where prostitutes, and other women of bad character, are kept to spinning. All these foundations, and the good police of the city, have such an effect, that

there are no beggars in the streets: Here are officers who take up all vagabonds, and convey them directly to houses provided for that purpose, where they are forced to work every man in his own business, in proportion to his strength and ability. Here the poor who want work, and offer themselves, are received. In Amsterdam and most of the considerable cities in Holland, is also a public office, where all poor travellers that can give any account of themselves may go and take a loaf, a penny, and a passport, by virtue of which they are received gratis into the boats which carry passengers and goods from town to town.

They have also a charitable foundation, which is extremely remarkable. As persons of all nations resort to Amsterdam, many of whom have not much to spend, and the taverns are generally very dear, they have spacious edifices, where all poor strangers of both sexes who are obliged to make any stay in this city are received, neatly lodged, and have bed, board, and washing, for three days and nights, during which time, if any of them fall sick, they are removed into a neighbouring hospital; but after the expiration of three days, they must remove from thence, and are not allowed to return for six weeks, on pain of being severely punished.

Amsterdam abounds in artificers and manufacturers. Besides which, this city is alone in possession of half the immense trade which the Dutch carry on to the East-Indies, and governs the whole. Its commerce with Spain and the Spanish West-Indies is very great, nor is it less considerable to the Levant, Italy, and Portugal. Amsterdam also engrosses almost the whole northern trade carried on by the Dutch to Norway, and the countries situated in the Baltic.

Rotterdam, a large and populous city, fourteen miles to the south-east of the Hague, in the fifty-second degree ten minutes north latitude, and the fourth degree twenty-six minutes east longitude. It is seated on the Merwe, which at this place receives the Rotter, after it has taken its course through the city. This river is very broad, and of a depth sufficient to admit ships of tolerable burthen; but if they draw above fifteen feet water, they are obliged to take the way of Helvoetsluys to Rotterdam. The mouth of the Merwe lies five German miles to the west of Rotterdam, where it gradually becomes shallow by the gathering of the sands. The canals within the town are so deep, that the largest ships come up and take in, or deliver their cargoes at the very doors of the warehouses. Accordingly this city, next to Amsterdam, is the place of greatest trade, especially to England and Scotland.

In 1732, its houses were computed at six thousand six hundred and twenty-one. The finest street in Rotterdam is called the Haaring-sliet; most of the houses are noble stone buildings. The Boomties, or Boomquays street extends delightfully along the Maese, here called the Merwe, which is here near a mile and a half in breadth. It is upwards of half a mile long. It has a row of lofty trees, and the houses resemble palaces; on the other side runs the river, which has ships continually sailing in or out, or lying at anchor. This is the place of general resort for people of condition, to whom it serves as a mall.

The principal public buildings here are the bank, the East and West-India-houses, the arsenal, and the exchange. The first admiralty college of the United Provinces has its seat here, under the direction of twelve commissioners.

There are here four churches belonging to the Dutch, one of French, and one of English presbyterians, with an English episcopal church, whose minister has a hundred pounds sterling per annum from the king of Great-Britain, besides surplice fees, said to amount to two hundred pounds more; there are also a Scots and a Lutheran church, the last of which is new and handsome. The synagogue of the Portuguese Jews is a very fine structure, though not so magnificent as that in Amsterdam. Among other public buildings is the great bridge across the Merwe, in the middle of which is a fine brass statue of the celebrated Erasmus, who was a native of this city.

The Hague is a most beautiful place, situated in a very delightful country, ten miles north-west of Rotterdam; but, from its having neither gates nor walls, is called a village. It is, however, surrounded by a moat, bordered with a walk of lofty and shady trees, and at the avenues of the town is passed by means of draw-bridges. The streets are broad, several of them are without canals, and the houses are, for the most part, extremely well built. The number of coaches belonging to the noblemen and gentlemen, and the gay appearance in point of dress, give a very different idea of life from that of the trading cities. People here are more polite and easy in their behaviour, than in other parts of Holland; the most considerable persons in Europe meeting there, as well as the assembly of the States General, which also draws thither the greatest part of the people of the first distinction in the United Provinces. Indeed, the Hague may be considered either as a great city, or as a rural scene, while, as it is customary in great cities, they have plays and other amusements.

In 1732, the number of houses were found to amount to six thousand one hundred and sixty-four, besides the public edifices, and among the former are very large and regular buildings. There are also here several squares, which being planted with trees, and forming pleasant walks, occasion a great resort of people. Besides the States General, and those of the provinces, which render it the residence of foreign ambassadors, envoys, and other foreign ministers, here is the council of state for the United Netherlands, the council of war, the general chamber of accounts, the general mint-chamber, the council of Brabant, and several others.

The old palace of the counts of Holland at present belongs to the stadtholders, and has been repaired with some very magnificent additions. In the center of the area between the buildings of this palace, is the great hall where the trophies of the republic in their many victories over various enemies are hung up. Within this building are not only the above colleges; but a number of booksellers shops, and the church of the French Calvinists. At the Hague are also three churches of Dutch Calvinists, an English church, one belonging to the Lutherans, several mass-houses, and two Jewish synagogues, two alms-houses, an house of correction, and an orphan-house. The canals are not kept with such care as at Amsterdam and other places, on which account the air is thought to be less pure and healthy than in many other parts of Holland.

The environs of the Hague are extremely delightful; and in its neighbourhood is a fine pleasure-garden, in imitation of that of Vaux-hall: on the east side the town is bounded by beautiful meadows, to the south by splendid seats, to the west by sand-hills along the North Sea, on which side is a straight avenue paved with brick, and a walk for passengers, planted with several rows of trees leading to the village of Scheveling, which is at two miles distance; and to the north is a delightful wood, in which the stadtholder has a seat known by the name of The House in the Wood.

It will not be improper to mention here Broek, a large and handsome village of North Holland. The houses are all built of boards; they seldom exceed one story, and the roofs are tiled. The boards which form the outside are painted according to every one's fancy, and this is so often done, that the houses seem always new. The windows are generally shad- and decorated with beautiful curtains. The inside of the dwellings is not only neat, but embellished beyond what can be easily imagined, and all who have the smallest piece of ground before their houses, never fail to convert it into an agreeable garden, diversified with gravel walks, shell-work, images, and little hedges, or painted rails. The village is watered by canals, which are kept with the greatest care, and all the streets paved with bricks, which in some places are disposed in the form of flowers, and are frequently washed. That these ornaments may not be defaced, or their cleanliness interrupted, the streets are designedly made too narrow for carriages to pass through. The cattle, instead of being permitted into the village, are kept by the meaner sort of peasants, who

dwelt among the pastures, and all passengers must put up at the inns without the village. Not only the wooden furniture in the houses, but the very broomsticks are painted, as are also the gates and rails in the meadows. The inhabitants either trade or subsist on their fortunes, and among the latter are frequently many merchants, and tradesmen of Amsterdam, who having acquired a plentiful fortune, retire here to enjoy it in tranquility.

There are likewise within the province of Holland several small islands, that lie in the Zuyder sea, and formerly joined to the continent. The inhabitants of these islands being from their childhood innured to that element, make excellent mariners.

The principal of these islands is the Texel, which has a fruitful soil, and many of the inhabitants breed sheep, and besides trading in wool, make with the milk a kind of green cheese, which is much admired. In the whole district are six villages, and on the eastern coast is a commodious road, stiled the Mosco-road, which is the rendezvous of the outward-bound India ships.

SECT. VI.

Of the Province of ZEALAND.

Its Situation, and the Manner in which the Islands of which this Province is composed are secured by Dykes. Of the Air, Climate, and Produce of the Country; with a concise Account of the States, and a Description of the Cities of Middleburg, Flushing, &c.

ZEALAND or Zeeland entirely consists of islands formed by the many outlets of the Scheld. On the east it is bounded by Brabant, to the southward by Flanders, to the westward by the North Sea, and on the north by Holland. The name of this province, which signifies Sea-land, sufficiently points out its situation.

The islands of Walcheren and Schouwen, on the western coast, are defended against the violence of the sea by downs or sand-hills; and on the other sides, like the rest of the islands of Zeeland, by vast dykes, or banks, which at the bottom are twenty-five German ells broad, and at the top so wide that two carriages may pass abreast. The height is also proportioned to their thickness; yet in high tides and stormy weather, the waves, in many places, sometimes force a passage, or even flow over them. The first formation of these dykes must have been attended with immense labour and expence, since the very repair and maintenance of them require large sums. The dykes of this province alone would form a length of forty miles, each mile reckoned at fourteen hundred rods, and supposing the expence of one rod with another was six Dutch guilders, the expence of the several outward dykes taken together amount to three hundred and forty thousand pounds sterling.

Though the inhabitants of the other provinces, as well as foreigners in general, complain that the air is here heavy, disagreeable, and unhealthy; yet no people look better, or enjoy a more confirmed state of health than the natives, who are bred up in the country.

The soil is fertile, and famed for its excellent wheat, and also for madder, the cultivation of which employs many of the inhabitants. It likewise abounds in fruit, and its rich pastures are covered with flocks of fine sheep. The water around the islands supply the people with plenty of fish, particularly with oysters, lobsters, and muscles of an uncommon size and goodness. But though Zeeland enjoys plenty of all kinds of provisions, fuel is very scarce, especially turf, which being brought from the other provinces, bears a great price. They also use great quantities of English coals.

In the whole province are eleven cities, and a hundred and ten villages, some of which are very large. The inhabitants are said to be the most wealthy in all the Netherlands, which is in a great measure owing to their trade by sea, for which they have every convenience that can be desired. Their numerous privateers also, in time of war, are supposed to have brought great riches into the country.

The states of Zealand consist of seven members, the president of which is the first nobleman of the province, and the other members or states are the deputies of six voting towns, which are Middleburg, Zirkzee, Goes, Tholen, Flushing, and Veer. Zealand has two high courts of justice in common with Holland, of which we have already given an account. This province always sends four deputies to the assembly of the States General, who hold their office during life, and are alternately chosen from among the magistrates of the several voting towns, only Middleburg always sends one.

Middleburg, the capital of Walcheren, and of the whole province, is a large, handsome, rich, and strong town, which stands nearly in the center of the island, to which situation it owes its name, and is seated in the fifty-first degree forty-seven minutes north latitude, and in the third degree forty-one minutes east longitude. A canal a mile and a half in length affords this city a communication with the West Scheld, and is capable of receiving the largest ships. Middleburg is fortified with a wall, strengthened with thirteen bastions. Here the states of the province hold their meetings, as also the deputies who assemble in St. Nicholas's abbey. It is likewise the seat of the admiralty-college, the chamber of accounts, and the mint.

Here are several fine squares and stately public buildings, particularly the town-house, which is a noble pile, with a very high tower and clock, which last cost a hundred and fifty thousand guilders. It contains seven Calvinist churches, with an academy, an English, French, Lutheran, Mennonite, and Popish church, and a Jewish synagogue. It is a place of great trade, particularly in wines. In 1574, after a siege of two years, it fell into the hands of William I. prince of Orange, and has ever since been in the possession of the States. The high road from hence to Flushing is all the way beautifully planted with trees.

Flushing, in Dutch Vlissingen, is a well fortified town at the mouth of the Hondt, or Western Scheld, and defends not only the passage into that river, but also that to the other isles of Zealand, and even into Flanders by sea. It lies eight miles to the south of Middleburg. Its harbour, which is large and secure, lies between two moles, or dykes, on the south-east of the isle of Walcheren, and two canals. Its new harbour was formed at the general expence of the province in 1688, and is seventeen hundred Rheinland rods in length, with two hundred in breadth, and will admit, even up to the town, a fleet of eighty large men of war. To the right of the new haven, leading to the provincial basin, is a large dock, to the westward of which lies the entrance into the old harbour, which is divided into two departments, and serves for merchant-ships. The sea runs quite up to the other end of the town; so that loaded vessels come up to the very doors of the merchants. The houses are in general well built, and, besides other fine structures, the town-house is a magnificent and regular pile. In the town are three churches of Dutch Calvinists, one of French, one of English, and one of Mennonites. In the year 1749 one of the churches, the prince's palace, and the naval store-house, were destroyed by fire; but the first was soon rebuilt. This was one of the cautionary towns delivered up to queen Elizabeth by the States as a pledge of their fidelity, and as a security for the money that princess had expended in assisting them against the Spaniards, and of which the celebrated Sir Philip Sidney was governor in 1585; but it was redeemed again in 1616, under the reign of king James I. for an inconsiderable sum, much less than the money they stood indebted to England.

With respect to the other islands, South Beveland is both the largest and most pleasant, containing the town of Goes, and a considerable number of villages. North Beveland was once indeed the most pleasant and fertile country of all Zealand; but in 1530 and 1532 it suffered such a terrible inundation, that great numbers of people and cattle perished, and nothing was to be seen on the whole island but one steeple, which rose above the surface of the water. But about a century after, the ground being raised by the continual increase of the mud, the island was dyked in and cultivated, and at present con-

tains a small town and several villages. The island of Shouwen has the town of Zirksee, which has a seat and vote in the states of the province; with a small town and some villages. There are also the islands of Duiveland and Ter Tholen, in which there are several villages, and in the latter also a town of the same name with the island.

S E C T. VII.

Of the Province of UTRECHT.

Its Situation and Produce: the Number of its Cities, Towns, and Villages: the States of the Country, and its ecclesiastical Government; with a Description of the Cities of Utrecht and Amersfort.

THE province of Utrecht, excepting in one small slip of land to the northward, which borders on the Zuyder-sea, is wholly environed by Holland and Guelderland. It extends about thirty-two miles from the south-east to the north-west, and twenty-two from the south-west to the north-east. This country enjoys a good air, and in most parts the soil is very fruitful. Indeed to the eastward, near the borders of the Veluwe, it consists either of sandy hills or small eminences, which are in general covered with trees; but in some places contains spots of indifferent pasture-ground. On the south side, between the hilly part and the river Lek, it has good arable land, and to the westward the country perfectly resembles Holland; it chiefly consisting of rich meadows, though there are many spots of turf grounds.

In the province of Utrecht are five cities, and sixty-five towns and villages. Its states are composed of the clergy, the nobility, and the towns: indeed the former are merely nominal, and consist of nobles and citizens of the Calvinist religion, and not of ecclesiastics. They are, however, elected from the chapters of the five churches at Utrecht, and still in the assembly of the states represent the antient clergy of the country. The college of the deputies of this province consists of twelve members, each class of the states sending four. The chamber of accounts is under the direction of four commissioners, and the provincial court of justice is composed of a president, six ordinary and three extraordinary assessors.

The Calvinist congregations of this province have seventy-nine ministers, who hold a synod once a year at Utrecht. The Papists have above thirty churches in this province, under forty-five priests; the Lutherans two congregations and three ministers; the Remonstrants the same number; and the Baptists two.

The province of Utrecht is divided into four quarters, and has five cities, which have a vote in the states of the province; the principal of which are the following:

Utrecht, in Latin *Ultrajectum*, the capital of the province, stands in a delightful corn country, in the fifty-second degree ten minutes north latitude, and in the fifth degree seven minutes east longitude. It is situated on the river Rhine, which here divides itself into two branches, called the Old and New Rhine, both of which traverse the city through its whole length, after which they unite again. This city is pretty large, it being about an hour and an half's walk in circuit, and is also very populous, though it has no other defence than a wall on the old canal. The inhabitants chiefly consist of traders and artificers; but along the new canal are large and handsome houses inhabited by gentlemen.

Among the seven churches belonging to the Dutch Calvinists, the principal is the cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Martin, and stands in the center of the city; but only consists of the choir, the greatest part of the old cathedral being destroyed by a terrible storm in 1674, since which the tower has always remained separate from the body of the church. The chapter belonging to this cathedral is composed of forty members, who purchase their places, for which they generally pay between six and seven thousand guilders. The other chapter churches in this city are the Old Minster, or that of St. Salvator, St. Mary's, St. Peter's, and St. John's. In the first of these a part has been partitioned off, as a place of worship for the English who reside here, though they are not

very

very numerous. Over the church is a museum, which contains a variety of curiosities and antiques. St. Peter's church has been assigned to the French Calvinists, who constitute a numerous congregation. The Lutherans, the Remonstrants, and the Mennonites, have each of them a church, while the Papists meet in houses of which they have several appropriated for that purpose. In this city also resides the chief of the Jansenists in the Netherlands, who styles himself archbishop of Utrecht, and is elected by the nominal chapter, which, including the dean, consists of eight canons. The states of the province meet in a building called the States chamber, which is also the seat of the other provincial colleges. In the German-house resides the commander of the Teutonic order; here is also a celebrated university, which is dependent only on the city magistracy, and not on the whole province. Its physic-garden is particularly curious, and for the recreation of the students, on the east side of the city, just without the gate, is a beautiful mall, consisting of seven straight walks, two thousand paces in length, regularly planted with limes; but that in the middle is properly the mall.

In this city the memorable union was formed between the Seven United Provinces, in the year 1579. In 1672 the French took this city without the least resistance, and in 1712 a congress of plenipotentiaries was opened here from all the states in Europe, which, within two years, terminated in a general peace.

Amersfort, or Amersfoort, is situated fourteen miles to the north-east of Utrecht, on the river Ems, which has its rise in these parts from the confluence of several rivulets, and first receives that name here, where it becomes navigable. It is a strong town situated at the foot of a hill, in a pleasant and fertile country. The buildings, particularly those of the Old Town, are very neat. It has three churches, one of which is a large and stately structure. The hospitals of Amersfort resemble those of the larger cities, and here is a public school, where several persons of eminence have had their education. At this port are shipped all the goods brought out of Germany by the Hessian waggons, and consigned to Amsterdam. Its new erected manufactures of dimity and bombazines are in a thriving way. It formerly suffered much from the inhabitants of Guelderland, who took it in 1543, and in 1629 this city was also taken by the Spaniards, who afterwards quitted it.

SECT. VIII.

The Province of FRIESLAND.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce: the Manner in which the antient Inhabitants escaped from the Inundations occasioned by the breaking of the Dykes: their Language, Religions, and Government; with a Description of Lewarden, Franeker, and Harlingen.

FRIESLAND, in Latin Frisia, is thus called from the antient Frisians, a martial people, who are said to derive their name from Frissen, to dig, they having recovered this country from the sea and rivers by digging, or casting up dykes. This country is bounded on the east by the river Lawers, which parts it from Groningen; on the south by Overijssel; on the west by the Zuyder-sea; and on the north by the German or North sea. Its greatest extent from north to south is thirty-seven miles, and from east to west thirty-two.

The air and soil of this province very nearly resemble those of Holland, especially in the north-west parts, which lie lower than the sea, and are particularly remarkable for their fine pastures, among which are excellent oxen, cows, and sheep, with numerous breeds of large horses, many of which are exported to Germany and other countries. In the more elevated parts are good corn lands, and the wheat produced in them is particularly esteemed for the fineness of the ears and the whiteness of its flour. The Friesland peas have also an agreeableness in their taste superior to most others. Here is likewise a great deal of turf ground; but the turf is inferior to that of Holland.

The inhabitants along the sea-coast are under the necessity of securing themselves by means of dykes, at a vast expence. Formerly, when the care of these dykes was only the concern of the proprietors of particular estates, they were very low, and frequently suffered to fall to decay; whence they became unable to withstand the impetuosity of the waves, especially when driven by a strong north-westerly wind. By these breaches the country was laid under water, and great numbers of people, as well as cattle, perished. To preserve themselves from these calamities, the inhabitants raised several eminences from twenty to twenty-five feet high, and of considerable circumference, to which, if not prevented by the rapidity of the inundation, they betook themselves, with their cattle and household-furniture, and there remained till the flood had subsided.

Friesland may vie with Holland in the number of canals with which it is in all parts intercepted. In the whole province are eleven towns, and three hundred and thirty-six villages.

The inhabitants still retain that strong passion for liberty which distinguished their ancestors, together with their customs and manner of living, even to the antient Frisian dialect and accent, which renders the language of the country people unintelligible to the other Netherlanders. Friesland is famed for its woollen stuffs; but more especially for its linen, which is the finest in Europe, the price of the best sort being at prime cost no less than twelve Holland guilders an ell.

The majority of the inhabitants are Calvinists; there are also many Papists, and a still greater number of Mennonites; which is the less to be wondered at, as Menno Simon, from whom they derived their name, was born at Witmarsum, and first propagated his doctrines in this province. These Mennonites form fifty-eight congregations, under the direction of a hundred and fifty-two pastors: the Papists have twenty-four congregations, and thirty-one priests: the Lutherans have only two congregations, and three ministers; and the Remonstrants have no more than one; but the Collegiants have several colleges.

The whole province is divided into three quarters, namely, Oostergo, Westergo, and Zevenwolde, each of which is again subdivided in grietenyes, or prefectures. Each of these prefectures annually chooses two deputies, one of which is a nobleman, and the other a wealthy freeholder, distinguished by his abilities and his virtue. The number of these prefectures being thirty, Friesland has of course sixty deputies, who are distinguished according to the three quarters. Eleven towns also send two deputies each to the assembly of the states, which is thus composed of eighty-two persons, who are annually elected.

The college of the deputy states consists of nine persons, six from the prefectures, and three from the towns. This college puts in execution the resolutions of the states with respect to civil and military affairs, as also those relating to the provincial revenues, the disposal of employments, and the like. The provincial court of justice is composed of twelve assessors, assisted by an attorney-general and a secretary. This court alone takes cognizance of criminal causes; but in civil, the first hearing is in the courts of the prefectures and towns.

With respect to its ecclesiastical establishment, Friesland is divided into six classes, under which are two hundred and seven ministers. Each class annually sends two ministers and the like number of elders to the synod, which is held eight days after Easter.

The principal places in this province are the following:

Lewarden, or Leeuwarden, the capital of the province, stands about sixty miles to the north-east of Amsterdam, and is a rich, populous, and strong town, the seat of its chief colleges, as also of the mint, and the residence of the principal nobility of Friesland, whence its buildings, as well public as private, are very magnificent. It has several canals which run through the streets, and are of great advantage to the trade of the inhabitants, which is very considerable, especially as these canals are continued not only to the sea, but to the most considerable towns in the province. The fortifications of this city are however

ever neglected. While Friesland enjoyed its own stadtholders, they resided in the Prinzenhof, in this city, which gave it an air of splendor and dignity; but they lost this honour in the year 1747, when William IV. was declared hereditary stadtholder of all the United Netherlands. The town-house is a noble structure begun in 1715. The Dutch Calvinists have here three churches, and in that of St. James, which is also called the Great Church, is the vault of the stadtholder's family. The French Calvinists have one church here, the Lutherans one, the Mennonites three, the Papists several, and the Jews a synagogue. Formerly a bay extended from the North Sea to this city, and was so large, as to be called the Middle Sea; but it being gradually dried up, the ground has been cultivated and built upon.

Without the city lies Marienburg, a palace belonging to the house of Nassau Orange.

Twelve miles to the west of Lewarden lies Franeker, which is situated on a canal, but is neither large nor fortified, though endowed with an university founded by count Lewis of Nassau. The halls of this university are in a building which formerly served as a convent to the fraternity of the Cross, and has a physic-garden belonging to it. There was here an antient castle, which falling to ruin, was lately pulled down. Here is also a good grammar-school, and an orphan-house. St. Martin's church is a fine building, with a handsome steeple.

Harlingen is, next to Lewarden, the largest and most populous town in all Friesland. It is situated on the sea, or rather on the Flie-water, and has a commodious harbour, with a depth of water sufficient for ships of the greatest burthen; but the entrance being obstructed by the gathering of the sands, part of the lading must be taken out before they can come in. It is pretty well fortified on the land-side, and, in case of necessity, the inhabitants can lay the whole country under water. To the west it is guarded against the invasions of the sea by dykes of prodigious strength. The Calvinist Dutch have two churches; but the wealthiest part of the inhabitants are Mennonites. Here are also some Lutherans and Papists. In 1580, the States made themselves masters of the town, and raised a strong castle here, which at that time stood close to the sea-shore.

S E C T. IX.

Of the Province of OVERYSSEL.

Its Situation, Produce, Civil and Ecclesiastical Government; with a Description of its principal Towns, viz. Deventer, Campen, and Zwol.

THE province of Overysfel, or Overissel, is bounded on the north by Friesland and Drenthe; to the east by the county of Bentheim, and the bishopric of Munster; to the southward by Guelderland; and on the west by the Zuyder Sea. Its name shews that it is on the other side, or beyond the Yssel, or Issel, with respect to those provinces that lie to the west of that river, as Holland and Utrecht.

The soil is for the most part marshy, yielding only turf; but along the Yssel is very good corn-land, with several pastures, though these have not the richness of the pastures in other countries; but instead of being the property of particular persons, they belong in common to the inhabitants of the nearest villages; however, the meadows along the rivers have excellent grass. The ground is in most parts low and level, except a ridge of small hills, which run near the center of the province from south to north. It is also a fine sporting country.

The province of Overysfel is, from the nature of its soil, not so well cultivated and inhabited as some of the other provinces, and therefore has only sixteen towns, with eighty villages, all which are ranged under three divisions, named Salland, Twenthe, and Vollenhoven.

Its states consist of the nobility and the towns, both of which have an equal weight in the public deliberations. The nobility are more numerous than in any other province, and a nobleman, in order to be admitted to the assembly of this class, must not only prove his descent, and that he is of the Calvinist religion; but

that he is upwards of twenty years of age, and in his district has an estate qualifying him to be summoned to the assembly, that is, of twenty-five thousand guilders. Any nobleman likewise who is in the army, and is possessed of these qualifications, is capable of being a member of the regency, provided he be not below the rank of captain; but when military affairs come under consideration, he must quit the assembly. The towns which send representatives to the states are Deventer, Campen, and Zwol, where the states alternately hold their annual meetings.

In this province is a college that may be considered as a chamber of state, or rather of finances, and is composed of six members, three of whom are appointed by the nobility, and three by the towns. It has likewise a chamber of accounts, and a chancery. In juridical affairs the three principal towns determine in the dernier resort; where, as from the sentences of the country courts, appeals may be brought before a higher tribunal, called the claringe, only held at Deventer, and before it the nobility and gentry have their first hearing. It is composed of the nobles and other persons elected by the three towns, who have a president at their head. This province sends five representatives to the States General, that is, two from the nobility, and one from each of the three towns.

The national clergy, consisting of eighty-four ministers, are divided into four classes, and each class sends three ministers and one elder to the annual synods. The Papists of this province are possessed of twenty-seven churches, and have thirty priests; the Baptists have sixteen, and thirty-five ministers; and the Lutherans three, and the like number of ministers.

The three great towns of the province that send deputies to the assemblies of the States, are the following:

Deventer, in Latin Daventria, is situated in a fertile pleasant country on the banks of the Yssel, and is the capital of the Salland quarter. It stands in the fifty-second degree twenty-five minutes north latitude, and in the sixth degree five minutes east longitude. Deventer is encompassed by a good wall, strengthened by eight bastions, some ravelins and outworks. It is not very large in circuit; but is close built, populous, and enjoys a very good trade. Here are three churches of Dutch Calvinists, one of French Calvinists, one of Lutherans, a meeting of Mennonites, and a mass-house. A gymnasium illustre was founded by the states of the province about the beginning of the seventeenth century. It was antiently a free imperial Hanse town, and has still the right of coining both gold and silver. The inhabitants at present brew excellent beer, of which great quantities are exported, and the Deventer cakes are celebrated all over these provinces. In 1589, the Spaniards made themselves masters of the town by treachery; but it was recovered by prince Maurice in 1591. In 1672, the French having reduced it without much opposition, conferred it on the bishop of Munster, whose troops kept possession of it till 1674.

Campen, a large city and port, is seated on the river Yssel, which a little before it discharges itself into the Zuyder-sea, is divided into several branches, the two principal of which form an island called Campen. The wooden bridge over the Yssel is a curious structure, it being seven hundred and twenty-three feet in length, and twenty broad: it is founded on piles; but the piers are at such a distance from each other, that it seems suspended in the air. It was formerly defended by a small fort on the other side of the river; but in 1673, that fort was destroyed by the troops of Munster. Though, according to the modern taste in fortification, this town must not be classed among the fortresses, yet on any emergency, it is able to lay the adjacent country under water. It is much smaller than Deventer, and not so compactly built; but carries on a small trade, and was one of the Hanse towns; it has also the right of coining gold and silver.

There are here three churches belonging to the Dutch Calvinists, in one of which the French Protestants are also permitted to assemble. The Mennonites, Papists, and Lutherans, are indulged in the free exercise of their religion. In 1672, the troops of France and Munster, having

having made themselves masters of this town, committed great outrages.

The last town we shall describe in this province is Zwol, which is seated in a pleasant country on the Aa, which here takes the name of the Black-water. It is seated at about an hour's distance from the Yssel, and somewhat farther from the Vecht; but has a communication with the latter by means of a canal called the New-Vecht. The Black-water being deep enough for ships of burthen, affords the town a communication with the Zuyder-sea, whence it is the handsomest and most wealthy place in all Overijssel. The north part is not only watered by the Aa, but intersected by two canals, and on the outside of two of the gates are very handsome suburbs. It is a very strong place, it being environed both with a wall and a rampart, strengthened by large and good bastions, with several outworks, among which are three forts to the south-west, which have a communication with each other, and with the town, by means of strong lines. The Dutch Calvinists have here three churches, besides which there is a French congregation of the same persuasion. The Papists meet in four mass-houses; the Mennonites are likewise very numerous; but there are few Lutherans. Zwol was antiently a free imperial Hanse town, and still possesses the privilege of coining. In 1672, it was taken by the bishop of Munster, who kept possession of it till the year 1674.

SECT. X.

Of the Province of GRONINGEN.

Its Situation, Produce, and Rivers: its Civil and Ecclesiastical Government, with a Description of the City of Groningen.

GRONINGEN, or Groeningen, is bounded on the north by the German ocean, on the east by the bishopric of Munster, and the principality of East Friesland, on the south by the territory of Drenthe, and on the west by the little river Lawers, which separates it from Friesland.

In its air and soil it nearly resembles the contiguous province of Friesland. The land for the most part lies low, and abounds in fine pastures, whence grazing is one of the principal employments of its inhabitants, and it has also some corn-land. The turf here is neither so good, nor in such plenty as in Friesland. On the south side of the province towards Drenthe, the ground consists of heaths and sands, interspersed with forests. Between its north-east side and East Friesland, the German ocean forms a large bay called the Dollert, which has a communication with the North Sea by means of the mouth of the Ems.

The principal river in this province is the Hunse, which is formed out of several streams, all which unite in the town of Groningen: in that city also rises the Fivel, which winding to the north-west, falls into the Ems. This province, like Friesland, is every where intersected with canals and dykes for carrying off the superfluous water.

It contains only three towns; but its villages amount to one hundred and sixty-five. The states consists of the town of Groningen, and the Ommeland or circumjacent country; of the latter some are elected by the nobility, and others by the peasants; but by way of qualification, they must be possessed of land within the province to a certain value. The city of Groningen is the only place where the states hold their meetings, and the time of their assembling is generally in the month of February. Here is also the college of the states deputies, which is composed of eight persons, that is, four as representatives of Groningen, and the like number from the Ommelands. These execute the resolutions of the states. The chamber of accounts consists of six persons, and Groningen sends six deputies to the States General.

The ministers of the established church, who amount to one hundred and sixty-one, are divided into seven classes, and the synod meets annually at the beginning

of May, one year at Groningen, and the next at Appingedam, and so on to five other towns, each of which belongs to a particular class. To this synod every class sends three ministers, with a certain number of elders. The Roman catholics in this province are possessed of about ten churches, under the direction of thirteen priests; the Baptists have twenty-seven churches, and sixty-one ministers; the Lutherans have three churches, and sixty-one ministers; and the Collegiants, two colleges in the town of Groningen.

This province is divided into two parts, the city of Groningen and its precincts.

Groningen, or Groeningen, the capital of the province, is situated in the fifty-third degree twenty-eight minutes north latitude, and in the sixth degree thirty-one minutes east longitude, at the confluence of several rivulets, out of which are formed the Hunse and Fivel. The former of these streams admits large ships from the sea quite up to the city, and is of course of great convenience to its commerce. Its extent was formerly inconsiderable, till in 1613 it enlarged itself towards the west and north, and its ramparts were repaired with the addition of seventeen bastions and a good counterscarp; but though these fortifications used to be carefully surveyed every year by deputies from the college of the states, yet they are now suffered to run to ruin. However, at about a quarter of an hour's distance from the town, has been erected a modern work in the form of a line, which is kept in a defensible state.

Groningen is the place where all the great provincial colleges assemble, and is consequently the residence of the richest and most eminent families both among the nobles and commons. It contains three churches of Dutch Calvinists, besides the university church, in which the sermons are preached in Latin by the professors of divinity. Among these the principal church is that of St. Martin, which is a fine structure, at one end of the great market, with a high tower. St. Mary's church stands at the end of the fish market, and has also a very high tower, and harmonious chimes. The Lutherans are also possessed of one church, the Mennonites of two, and the Roman catholics of five. Here are three market-places, the largest of which is the ox market, surrounded with fine buildings; and among these are the town-house, exchange, and weigh-house. In the three market-places terminate seventeen streets, six of which extend in a straight line to the like number of gates, and there are twenty-seven spacious streets in all. Most of the houses have pleasant gardens with fruit-trees. The prince's palace is on the north side of the city, and is adorned with pictures of all the princes of Orange and counts of Nassau. The university has professors in all the sciences, and in their library is a well-attested inscription that a soldier lived there sixteen days after receiving a wound in the right ventricle of the heart. They have also a public school for the languages, with seven masters, who have each a house and a handsome salary.

This city has often been taken; but in 1672 the inhabitants made such a brave resistance against the bishop of Munster, that after the loss of ten thousand men that prelate was at last obliged to raise the siege. We have now gone through the Seven United Provinces, and have only to consider the countries dependent on them.

SECT. XI.

Of the County of DRENTHE, or DRENT.

Its Situation, Produce, Towns, and Villages; with its civil and ecclesiastical Government, and a Description of the Town of Gouwerden.

THE country of Drenthe, or Drent, borders to the northward on the province of Groningen; to the eastward on the same province and the bishopric of Munster; to the southward on Bentheim and Overijssel; and to the westward on Friesland.

The ground here is visibly higher than in Friesland and Groningen, it bearing a nearer resemblance to that of Overijssel. The more elevated parts are woody, but along the rivers it affords good pasturage. Its most com-

mon grain is rye, and a few places also produce wheat. With respect to the harvest of the latter, a singular custom prevails, that it must every where be begun on a certain day, which is proclaimed by tolling the bells in all the villages, and one stated day it must likewise be every where concluded. The southern parts are over-run with marshes.

The places in this country are, two market-towns, thirty-seven villages, one fortress, and two forts. The states consist of the nobles and freeholders; but every nobleman belonging to them must be possessed of an estate sufficient to qualify him to sit and vote, and there being only eighteen such estates, the legislative part of the nobility amount only to that number. There are also thirty-six freeholders, who are annually elected by those villages that have a right of voting. The ordinary assembly of the states every year is held at Assen towards the beginning of March. The president of this assembly is the intendant of the country, and is always nominated by the hereditary stadtholder.

This country was formerly a county of the German empire. But it threw off the yoke of Philip II. king of Spain, and became a free state; yet probably on account of its smallness was never able to obtain the privilege of sending a representative to the States General, it being only under their protection, and to every hundred florins raised by the Seven United Provinces it pays only one.

Besides the above assembly of the states, here is another college composed of the intendant and four deputies, two from among the nobles, and two from the freeholders. This college meets eight times a year to execute the resolutions of the States, and on these occasions has two more members added to it, one out of the nobility, and the other from among the freeholders. The supreme court of justice here consists of an intendant, an assessor, and twenty-four counsellors, who decide without appeal.

The clergy are divided into three classes, under the direction of forty ministers. Each class sends a determinate number of ministers and elders to the synod, which is always held at Assen in November; but has no connection with the synod of the Seven United Provinces. The principal places in the county of Drenthe are the following:

Assen, the capital of the county, is situated nearly in its center, on the rivulet of Hoorendiep, and is well built.

Coeverden, or Covorden, a strong fortress near the frontiers of the county of Bentheim, and strengthened with seven bastions, that take their names from the Seven United Provinces, and likewise with the same number of half-moons and ravelins, together with a counterscarp; besides which there is a citadel distinct from the town, fortified with five bastions. These works are kept in repair at the expence of the States General. The fortress itself stands on a sandy ground; but is on all sides environed by a morass, which terminates on the out-works. A small quantity of rain lays all this morass so effectually under water, that the place immediately becomes inaccessible. Its strength has procured it the name of the key to Overijssel, Friesland, and Groningen.

In the year 1592 it was seized by prince Maurice for the States, and immediately fortified in the best manner; and in 1607 count William Lewis of Nassau-Dietz put it into so good a state of defence, that it was thought impregnable; but some of the governors permitting the inhabitants to drain and inclose the adjacent lands, and convert them into fields and meadows, this oversight, with the want of artillery and military stores, occasioned its being taken by the bishop of Munster, after a very short siege, in 1672, though not without a stout resistance: however, on the last day of the same year the States recovered it by surprise.

S E C T. XII.

Of the Generalité Lands, including Dutch Brabant; their Government, and the Religions of the Inhabitants; with a

Description of the Cities of Bois le Duc, Breda, Berg-op-Zoom, Maëstricht, and Sluys, in Flanders.

BY the Generalité Lands is meant that part of the Netherlands that has been subdued by the Seven United Provinces, by their joint arms, and solemnly ceded to them by treaties and conventions. The nobility and towns of these countries, particularly those of Brabant, have frequently sought to become members of the state, and to be allowed to vote as a distinct province in the assemblies of the States General; but this has as often been denied them. They, however, retain all the privileges they enjoyed when they fell under the power of the republic. The hereditary stadtholder of the United Provinces is governor-general over all these countries; and the States General, probably from a principle of œconomy, never appoint particular governors to any particular province. They have indeed governors of fortresses, but their power is limited to the soldiers. The States General and the council of state annually send some of their members to execute all affairs of importance, who, at their return, lay an account of their proceedings before the assembly.

Justice is here administered by several colleges; first by the court of Brabant, under whose cognizance is that part of Limburg which belongs to the States, and this college holds its sessions at the Hague: the second is the Flanders court, which meets at Middleburg; and the third the court of the upper quarter of Guelderland, which has its seat at Venlo.

The established religion in these countries is the Calvinist; but the Catholics, being much more numerous, are permitted an entire freedom in public worship, except in processions and other public solemnities.

The Generalité Lands consist first of a part of Brabant. This district contains the whole quarter of Bois le Duc, and a small part of the Antwerp quarter, it bordering towards the north on Guelderland and Holland; to the eastward on the dutchy of Cleve and the upper quarter of Guelderland; to the southward on the bishopric of Liege and Austrian Brabant; and to the westward on Dutch Flanders and Zealand.

The court for Brabant, which is the high tribunal for this country, and likewise of that beyond the Maese, meets at the Hague, and consists of a president and eight assessors, with several officers for various cases, as those for widows, orphans, and other destitute persons. It is invested with an unlimited power, and grants patents, privileges, favours, and pardons; confers honours, naturalizations, &c.

The soil of Bois le Duc is sandy, and for the most part naturally barren; but by the indefatigable industry of the inhabitants is brought to yield good pulse, rye, and buckwheat, with oats and flax, though it affords little or no wheat and barley. It has also good fruit, and plenty of poultry and wild-fowl. The inhabitants are very fond of field sports, especially of falconry, and most of the falconers of the European princes are of this country.

The principal city in the quarter of Bois le Duc is the city of the same name, called in Latin Silva Ducis: it is situated in the fifty-first degree thirty-six minutes north latitude, and in the fifth degree twenty-five minutes east longitude, at the confluence of the rivers Dommel and Aa, which, after their junction, are called the Dieft. At about an hour's distance from hence, this river loses itself in the Maese. Formerly Bois le Duc was surrounded by a deep morass; but some parts of this morass becoming dry, rendered it necessary to strengthen the works towards these accessible places. It was also defended on the north-west side by a citadel, on the south by two forts, and on the north side by a small fort. The city is pretty large, and intersected by many canals; it has three churches belonging to the Dutch Calvinists, with one of French, one of Lutherans, and ten mass-houses; the majority of the people being of the Romish religion. The trade and shipping of Bois le Duc are considerable. It was first founded in 1184 by Godfrey III. duke of Brabant, who caused a wood here to be cleared and used in building the houses, and to this circumstance it owes its name, which signifies the Duke's wood. In

1559 pope Paul IV. erected a bishopric here; but on its being taken by the States in 1629, the see was abolished.

Within that part of the quarter of Antwerp is the barony or free lordship of Breda, which consists of good corn land and pastures; but has many heaths and morasses. Its principal rivers are the Merk, or Mark, which, after receiving several other rivulets, is called the Dintel. This barony belongs to the house of Nassau; the sovereignty of it is lodged in the States General. The principal city it contains is the following:

Breda, the capital of the barony of the same name, is seated on the river Merk, which at this place receives the Aa. The latter of these two streams being a little before increased by the Byloop, is here rendered navigable, and has a communication with the German ocean. It stands in the fifty-first degree thirty-five minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree fifty-two minutes east longitude. Its fortifications, without very great improvements, are unable to stand a long siege, though the city itself is partly covered by a morass, and, by means of the Merk and Aa, the inhabitants are able to lay a part of the country under water. It consists of about fifteen hundred houses, is well built, and contains a regular castle encompassed with a moat; and fronting the entrance is a square delightfully planted with trees. The great church, now in the hands of the Protestants, has several very fine monuments, and a handsome spire three hundred and sixty-two feet high: the Dutch have also another church, and the French have also one, as have likewise the Lutherans; but though the Roman Catholics are more numerous, they are allowed only three chapels. The town-house is a large structure, and there are four spacious market-places; but its commerce and woollen manufactures are greatly declined.

In 1590 prince Maurice took this city by stratagem; but the Spaniards recovered it in 1625, and in 1637 the States again made themselves masters of it. Here king Charles II. resided when invited over to England, and his famous declaration was dated from Breda. In 1667 the treaty between him, Lewis XIV. of France, and the States General, was concluded here.

Twenty miles to the west of Breda is Bergen-op-zoom, the capital of a marquisate of the same name; through it runs the rivulet or rather moat of Zoom. The south side of the town stands on a small eminence. It has been long celebrated as a strong fortress; and its wall, which is about an hour's walk in circuit, is defended by five bastions and ten horn-works. Besides the other fortifications on the north side, a strong line was drawn there in 1727, that has a communication with Moermont, Pilsen, and Rover forts, and the South or Water fort of five bastions commands the entrances of the old and new harbour. The adjacent country may also be laid under water; and as long as Zealand continues clear of enemies, supplies and reinforcements may be thrown into it by means of the Scheld. It contains about eleven hundred houses, with an old palace called the Hof, that was once the residence of the marquises of Bergen; and at present the chamber of accounts, and the feudal court belonging to the marquisate, are kept in it. Here is a Dutch Calvinist church, and another divided into two partitions, which is assigned to the French Calvinists and the Lutherans. The Papists have likewise a chapel. The States General keep a good garrison here, and the governor is always a person of distinguished reputation.

This town was first walled in 1287. In 1588 and 1622, it held out against two powerful armies of Spaniards; but in 1747, the French made themselves masters of it by surprise, after a siege of ten weeks. It was, however, restored in 1749, though in a very ruinous condition; but the houses and Dutch church demolished in that siege, have been since rebuilt.

Maestricht is one of the most antient and remarkable cities in the Netherlands, particularly for its strength. It is seated in the fiftieth degree fifty-one minutes north latitude, and in the fifth degree thirty-eight minutes east longitude, on the banks of the Maese, by which it is divided into two parts, joined to each other by a grand stone bridge. The smallest, which is situated to the

side of the dutchy of Limburg, is called Wyk. Maestricht is one of the strongest fortresses belonging to the republic, and also one of the principal keys of the Maese. Some defect having been observed in the out-works, the late stadtholder William IV. about a month before his death, took a survey of them, and a plan was formed for their removal. The Jeker, a small river that runs through the south side of the town, and falls into the Maese at the bridge, may be checked in its course by means of sluices, and the level country laid under water.

The houses within the walls amount to about three thousand, besides which there are three Calvinist churches, that is, two of Dutch, and one of French, with a Calvinist grammar school, a gymnasium, a Lutheran church, two Popish collegiate, and four parochial churches, eight convents of monks, eleven nunneries, one Jesuits college, and a commandery of the Teutonic order. Though the Papists are permitted the free exercise of their religion, yet they are allowed to make their public processions only twice a year, and then only round the two collegiate churches. The town-house is a stately edifice, and has a public library. There are two other elegant buildings: these are the house of the deputies of the States General, and that of the governor. This city had once a considerable cloth manufactory; but it is now greatly decayed.

The sovereignty of the town belongs jointly to the States General and the bishop of Liege; but the former alone garrison it, and are likewise possessed of the sole power over the convents and ecclesiastics, by virtue of which they grant privileges and immunities of all kinds. In other respects the town is under the joint government of the States and the bishop; and the towns are divided into two departments, each electing half of the magistracy, which consists of an equal number of Calvinist Brabanters and Papists, born in the bishopric of Liege. Every year both sovereigns send four deciding commissaries, as they are called, that is, two each, for the final determination of causes, and other affairs relating to the town.

Antiently Maestricht was immediately subject to the head of the German empire; but in 1204 the emperor Philip ceded it to Henry II. duke of Brabant. In 1632 this city was taken by the troops of the States General, and in 1648 their possession of it was confirmed by the crown of Spain, at the peace of Munster. In 1672, the French made themselves masters of it, and in 1676, king William III. endeavoured to recover it; but without success. It was, however, restored to the Dutch at the peace of Nimeguen. In short, in 1748, agreeable to the preliminaries of the peace of Aix la Chapelle, it was ceded to the French, who again evacuated it at the conclusion of the peace.

About two musket-shots from this place stands a hill, called St. Petersburg, which being much higher than the town, and having been very detrimental to it in a former siege, the States General caused a very strong fort to be erected upon it in 1701, under the name of St. Peter's fort. This lying within the territory of Liege, the bishop complained loudly of this proceeding; but in 1717 the affair was accommodated. On this hill is an excellent horizontal quarry, with an entrance to it close by the Maese, so that carts go in and unload at the bank of the river. Within this quarry are long passages supported by innumerable square pillars, which are every where twenty feet high, and in many places more. It has several vent holes cut in it, as also some small reservoirs, and in war-time it is a safe refuge to the country people, who being acquainted with all its windings, secure their cattle and valuable effects in this subterranean retreat, which affords room for forty thousand men. A stranger who should visit it without an experienced guide, would be in danger not only of bewildering himself, or of stumbling against the corners of the pillars; but of being suddenly shot by villains lurking there. The upper part of the hill consists of good corn land, and on the side towards the Maese stands the monastery of Slavante.

To the States General also belong the most northern part of Flanders; a small district lying between the German ocean, the Hondt, the Scheld, and Austrian Flanders. This country was ceded by Spain at the peace of Munster, to the States General, and afterwards enlarged by the emperor at the barrier treaty of 1715, and contains Sluys, and the little towns of Ardenburg, Oostburg, Hulst, and other small places.

Sluys, and in French l'Ecluse, stands on a bay in the German ocean, named the horse-market, from the supposed resemblance it bears in stormy weather, to the noise of a market filled with those animals. The town is pretty large in circuit; but the greatest part of it is taken up with garden and bleaching grounds. It is strongly fortified, and the country towards the south and south-west may be laid under water; but the north side being higher, has a double wall. On the east it is

fenced by the bay, and by a morass, which every flood is laid under water. All the efforts of an enemy cannot hinder its communication with the sea, whence it may receive all necessary supplies and reinforcements. Its air, however, is so unhealthy, that the garrison is changed every year. The governor's power extends to all the fortified towns in Flanders, belonging to the States General. The harbour is so choaked up, that to the very great detriment of the town, it admits only of small vessels. The old castle which stood by the side of the harbour, is at present converted into lodgings for the governor and other military officers. In 1405, the English miscarried in their attempt on this place. In 1587 it was taken by the Spaniards; but in 1604 recovered by prince Maurice. The besieged held out for three months, till they had eaten up all the leather, mice, and rats they could find.

C H A P. XXII.

Of the Thirteen United Cantons of S W I S S E R L A N D, with their Allies:

S E C T. I.

The Situation, Extent, and Face of the Country, with respect to its Mountains and Vallies. Its different Climates, Fossils, and Minerals. Its Springs, Rivers, and Lakes. Its Fruits, Vegetables, and Animals.

SWISSERLAND, or Switzerland, the Helvetia of the antients, is bounded on the north by Swabia; on the west by the Sundgaw, Burgundy, and the country of Gex; to the southward by Savoy, the Milanese, and the territories of Venice; and to the eastward by the county of Tyrol and Swabia. Its greatest length, according to Busching, is about two hundred and eighteen miles, and its breadth one hundred and forty-two.

Though Swisserland is situated between the forty-fifth and the forty-eighth degree of north latitude, yet lying among the Alps, the highest mountains of Europe, the air is much sharper than in most northerly latitudes. This is indeed the highest country in this part of the earth, the greatest part of it consisting of chains of hills ranged one upon another, with only narrow vallies between. These hills are also composed of stupendous rocky masses, two, four, and even six being piled on each other, and from four to twelve thousand feet high. One peak of a mountain called the Gotthard, is by du Cret computed at sixteen thousand five hundred French feet. The lower parts of these high mountains are covered with woods and pastures, the herbage in which is of a remarkable length and richness. The middle abounds with a great variety of odoriferous herbs, thickets, bushes, and excellent springs, and in summer are resorted to by herdsmen with their cattle. The third part of these mountains almost entirely consist of craggy and inaccessible rocks, some of which are quite bare, without the least herbage growing upon them, while others are continually covered with snow or ice. The vallies between these icy and snowy mountains appear like so many smooth frozen lakes, and from them vast fragments of ice frequently fall down into the more fruitful spots beneath. It is from these masses, and the thawing of the ice and snow, that the greatest part of the streams and rivers in Swisserland are derived. The ice hills begin in the canton of Glaris, and after passing through the territory of the Grisons, and from thence into the canton of Uri, terminate in the district of Bern. The most lofty of these mountains are those in the canton of Uri, namely, St. Gotthard, Furka, Crispalt, and Luckmanier, which send forth rivers to all the principal parts of Europe.

This is the most dreary part of all Swisserland; for on the summits of these mountains an eternal cold almost constantly prevails, with hard gales of wind, and very damp fogs; while the valleys, except some towns and villages, with a few fields and vineyards, thick woods, and rich pastures, are covered with lakes, and the summer heats are there frequently so insupportable, that the inhabitants betake themselves to the mountains, though in winter their houses are almost buried in snow. In many places within a small compass, the four seasons are seen at once, and sometimes summer and winter are so near each other, that one hand may take up snow, and the other pluck the flowers.

During the greatest part of the year the clouds hang beneath the peaks of the highest mountains, and from those peaks they resemble a sea, from which the peaks rise like islands. Sometimes they break, and thus display a view of the extensive country beneath. From the rising and sinking of these clouds, the inhabitants form pretty certain conjectures with respect to the weather. Not one of the above mountains is without a cataract, and as the eye by reason of the intervention of the clouds is not always able to reach the beginning of them, they look as if poured down from heaven upon the rocks.

The water thus falling from one rock to another, makes an astonishing noise, and raises a mist around it, on which when the sun beams play, is formed a very beautiful sight, particularly at the foot of the cataract, where is exhibited a rainbow of the most lively colours.

Among these mountains are many medicinal springs; some of which form cold and others warm baths, celebrated for their extraordinary virtues.

Very different from this is the remaining smaller part of Swisserland, including the county of Thurgaw, which is a part of the cantons of Zurich, Schaffhausen, Berne, Basil, Solothurn, and Freyburg; for though this district is not without mountains, some of which are even two thousand or two thousand five hundred feet high; yet it is much more level than the above-mentioned part, and the foot of the mountains, and sometimes also the very summits, are covered with vineyards, corn-fields, meadows, and pasture grounds. Here are likewise no rocky precipices, no cataracts, few trees, and, in summer, neither snow nor ice. The mountains, instead of being interrupted with vast chasms or abysses, are generally entire, and composed of a few eminences, the summits of which are so far from shooting into peaks, that they are flat or round to the extent of many miles, without any considerable inequality, and frequently afford not only pasturage, but arable land. It is only during long

long rains that the clouds sink below the eminences. The fields, though generally stony, are fertile, and the meadows are in most places planted with fruit-trees. "There is no country in the world better supplied with water," says Mr. Addison, "than the several parts of Swisserland that I travelled through. One meets every where in the roads with springs continually running into huge troughs that stand underneath them, which is wonderfully commodious in a country that so much abounds with horses and cattle. It has so many springs breaking out of the sides of the hills, and such vast quantities of wood to make pipes with, that it is no wonder they are so well stocked with fountains." Indeed these comparatively level parts of Swisserland are watered only by a few rivers; but those are large.

There are here found great numbers of petrifications, and the fossil tribe is very considerable, as chalk, mundic, several kinds of clay for the making of earthen-ware, and crucibles, as also terra-sigillata and sulphur. In many parts slate is very common; and though white marble be scarce, it abounds in a black sort interspersed with veins of white, as also in brown, yellow, and, in some places, in a green, and even carnation coloured marble. Red porphyry, speckled with white, has likewise been found in the icy mountains. Common gypsum and alabaster are not uncommon, and of the latter here is the fine sort so much prized by sculptors. A kind of stone full of glittering sparks of a brown colour, and capable of a very fine polish, is very common here; and several sorts of crystal composed of lamina and angular columns. Its other fossils are sandstone, saltpetre, salt, pit-coal, and near Roche a pure and transparent sulphur, with a rich sulphureous ore. Gold-dust is found among the sand of some of its river; but in no great quantities. Swisserland has also silver, copper, lead, and more particularly iron ores, of which Gunzen, a lofty mountain in the county of Sargans, yields three kinds, namely, black, red, and iron coloured, which being mingled by fusion, without any other ingredient, form a true steel. It must, however, be owned, that the metals of this country are generally observed to be brittle, and accordingly all metallic attempts, a few iron mines excepted, have turned out to the disadvantage of the undertakers.

The principal rivers are the Rhine, a name given by the Swiss to all streams and rivers in general: it has its rise in the country of the Grisons, and, with respect to its source, is divided into the Anterior, the Middle, and Hinder. The Anterior or Upper Rhine issues from a small lake on a mountain commonly called the Oberalp, and by some Cima del Baduz. The source of the Middle Rhine lies in Luckmanier, a part of the Adula chain, and, after a course of about six hours, joins the Anterior Rhine. The Hinder Rhine rises about three hours distance in a mountain called by the Italians Monte del Uccello, or Birds-hill. The other rivers are the Rusa, which issues from the lake called Lago di Luzendro, on the mountain called St. Gotthard, and having joined two rivulets, precipitates itself through a deep and narrow valley down several rocks; but at length becomes more gentle, then falls into the lake at the four Forest towns; but at Lucern again makes its appearance under its former name, and soon after receives the Lesser Emmat, or Emmen, which rises in the mountains, and at last discharges itself into the Aar, or Aren. This last river, which proceeds from the mountain of Grimsel, at length falls into the Rhine. The Rhone is first formed by a water which issues out of two rocks of ice on the Furka chain, and precipitates itself with a thundering noise between two rocks of an astonishing height, which receiving several rivulets in its course, runs into the lake of Geneva, and issuing again from thence traverses the territory of that city, and after watering a small part of Savoy enters France. The Tesin, in Italian Tesino, rises partly from two lakes on the mountain of St. Gotthard, and partly from several other lakes on the mountains, and after passing through the valley of Livis, and the Lago Maggiore, enters the dutchy of Milan, and at length loses itself in the Po.

The large lakes are those of Geneva, Neuenburg, Biel, Zurich, the four Forest towns, Thun, and Brien, with

many others: that part of the lake of Constance which waters the borders of Thurgaw, and the abbey of St. Gall, belongs also to the Helvetic Confederacy.

These several rivers and lakes are of considerable advantage to Swisserland, by supplying it with fish, and furnishing the inhabitants with the means of water-carriage.

The levels and valleys produce grain; but not in a sufficient quantity to answer all the demands of home consumption. Barley is sowed in a very elevated situation, the oats in a warmer soil, rye in a warmer still, and the warmest of all is assigned to spelt. Flax is much cultivated and worked, and the like may be said of hemp. They have also begun to plant tobacco. The Pais de Vaud, the cantons of Berne and Schaffhausen, the Veltlein, and the Valais, produce the best wines in Swisserland. There are here plenty of apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plums, chesnuts, and the parts towards Italy abound in peaches, morells, almonds, figs, citrons, pomegranates, and others. Most of the cantons abound in timber.

Of wild animals the chamois are the most remarkable, and of two different species; one of which make their constant abode in the highest and wildest mountains, to which scarce any access can be found. These are of a reddish brown, and for the most part somewhat smaller than the others. The second species are of a light brown colour, and do not confine themselves to the summits of the mountains; but likewise resort to the woods and thickets in the vales.

The marmouset is a kind of badger, and towards winter grow so exceeding fat as to weigh twenty pounds, by which means they become an easier prey to the peasants and hunters. They burrow either in the earth, or under a rock.

Among the Alps are likewise found a species of hares, which in summer perfectly resemble other hares, but in winter become all over white, in so much that they are scarce distinguishable among the snow. Here are also yellow and white foxes in great numbers, which in winter come down to the valleys.

Among the birds, the most remarkable is the lammergeyer, which delights in the highest peaks, and resembles a large eagle, of so prodigious a size, that its wings frequently extend fourteen feet: it preys alike upon wild and tame animals. There are also several sorts of fowls fit for eating, as the moor-cock, the rail, the snipe, the partridge, and some others.

S E C T. II.

Of the Persons, Dress, Manners, and Customs of the Swiss; their Magazines for Corn; their Management of their Cattle; the Populousness of the Country; their Languages, Religions, and the Unanimity that generally prevails amongst them: with the Sciences, Manufactures, and Coins of Swisserland.

THE Swiss are generally tall, well made, strong, and laborious; they are distinguished by their honesty, their steadiness in their resolutions, and their bravery. It is the principal endeavour of the several cantons to preserve the greatest plainness and simplicity of manners, and to banish from among them every thing that has the appearance of pomp or superfluity; for should dressing, feasting, and balls, once get among the cantons, their military roughness would be soon lost; their tempers would become too soft for their climate, and their expences exceed their income; and, as the materials of luxury must be brought from other nations, they would soon ruin a country that is not over-stocked with money. Hence every thing is prohibited that may introduce vanity and luxury. Besides the several fines set upon plays, games, balls, and feasting, they have many customs which greatly contribute to the preservation of their ancient simplicity.

The citizens, at the head of the government, are obliged to appear at all their public assemblies in a black cloak and a band. The dress of the women is extremely plain, those

those of the first quality generally wearing nothing on their heads but furs, which are to be had in their own country. Indeed, persons of different ranks of both sexes are allowed their different ornaments; but these are far from being expensive, and are merely marks of distinction. Thus the chief officers of Bern are known by the crowns of their hats, which are much deeper than those worn by people of inferior rank. The peasants are usually clothed in a coarse cloth manufactured in the country; while their holiday cloaths descend from father to son, and are seldom worn out till the second or third generation; so that it is not very uncommon to see a countryman in the doublet and breeches of his grandfather.

As these little states abound more in pasturage than in corn, they are all provided with public granaries, and in exigencies, where the scarcity is not universal, have the humanity to assist one another. The administration of affairs relating to the public granaries being much the same in every particular government, it will be sufficient to give the rules observed in these respects by the little commonwealth of Geneva. Three of the little council are deputed for this office, and obliged to keep together a sufficient quantity of provisions, to last the people in case of war or famine at least two years. Their magazines must be filled in times of the greatest plenty, in order that they may afford to sell cheap, and increase the public revenue at a small expence to its members. Besides, that the three managers may have no temptation to pay too great a price out of the public treasury, or to impose upon the public by purchasing bad corn, none of them must, upon any pretence, furnish the granaries from their own fields; and that the filling of the magazines may not prejudice their market, and raise the price of provisions at home, they must buy no corn within twelve miles of the city. In short, that such a quantity of corn may not spoil by keeping, all the inns and public-houses are obliged to furnish themselves out of it, by which means the most considerable branch of the public revenue is raised. The corn being sold out at a much dearer rate than it was bought up, the principal income of the common-wealth, which pays the pensions of most of its officers and ministers, is raised on travellers, or such of their own body as have money enough to spend at taverns and public houses.

The inhabitants derive their principal subsistence from the grazing of cattle, which is here very profitable; both the valleys and the middle part of those enormous mountains the Alps, yielding excellent fodder. White meats are the usual food of the peasants, and such as labour in the mines. In the beginning of the summer their cattle are driven up among the Alps, and there committed to the care of persons stiled Senns, who pay them a certain sum for keeping them. The Senns on all the Alps likewise keep hogs, which are fed with the whey after making two sorts of cheese and butter; and these people also drink this whey themselves. The Swiss cheese is much esteemed in other parts of Europe; but the best is that of Berne and the canton of Freyburg. Great numbers of horses are likewise bred here, which are bought up for the French cavalry.

Swisserland is more populous than foreigners generally imagine, the women being remarkably prolific; yet in several provinces there is not so much as a single town, and in the whole country little more than a hundred. The Protestant cantons are better inhabited, and more wealthy, than the Popish, which is owing to the celibacy occasioned by the number of convents for both sexes. The number of inhabitants is computed at two millions, and these are divided into three classes; the nobility, the burghers, and the peasants. D. Zimmermann, in his Essay on National Pride, maintains that in Swisserland self-murder is more common than even in England.

In Geneva and Swisserland it is customary to divide their estates equally among all their children, and thus every one lives at his ease, without becoming dangerous to the republic: for an overgrown estate no sooner falls into the hands of one who has many children, than it is divided into so many parts, that though it renders the sharers of it rich enough, they are not raised too much above the level of the rest. In these little republics this

is absolutely necessary; for as the rich merchants are obliged to live much within their estates, they might, by heaping up vast sums, become formidable to the rest of their fellow-citizens, and destroy that equality which is so necessary in these kinds of governments.

The inhabitants in general speak German, and in this language all their state and public affairs are transacted, as also those in the republic of the Grisons and the Valais. In a part of the town of Freyburg, and its dependencies, with those of Bern and the city of Geneva, the principality of Neuenburg, the Upper and Lower Valais, the tythings of Syders and Sitten, the French is used; but it is generally only the Patois, or a bastard sort. In several districts of the Grisons they speak the Chur Italian, with this difference, that in some places it borders on the Latin, and is accordingly termed Ladinum, while in others it has no small affinity with the Italian. Indeed in many places the Italian language prevails; but in each with different degrees of purity.

The two prevailing religions are the Calvinist and Popish; the former is professed by four cantons, five annexed places, and three governments: the latter is established in seven cantons, three incorporated districts, twelve governments, and the like number of protected places. In two cantons among the Grisons, five governments, and two protected places, both religions are on an equal footing. Each town, place, and state, has its own particular constitution, for the management of its churches, schools, and other ecclesiastical affairs.

"I have often considered, with a great deal of pleasure," says the ingenious Mr. Addison, the profound peace and tranquility that reigns in Swisserland and its alliances. It is very wonderful to see such a knot of governments, which are so divided among themselves in matters of religion, maintain so uninterrupted an union and correspondence, that no one of them is for invading the rights of another, but remains content within the bounds of its first establishment. This I think, must be chiefly ascribed to the nature of the people, and the constitution of their government. Were the Swiss animated by zeal or ambition, some or other of their states would immediately break in upon the rest; or were the states so many principalities, they might often have an ambitious sovereign at the head of them, that would embroil his neighbours, and sacrifice the repose of his subjects to his own glory."

The sciences are cultivated in Swisserland with an application equal to that of any other nation, and the many eminent scholars it has produced are illustrious proofs of the genius of the inhabitants. There are many good foundations for the instruction of youth, especially among the Calvinists, who, besides the gymnasiums and schools in many places, have academies at Zurich, Bern, Lausanne, and Geneva, with the celebrated university of Basil. The Papists have also several gymnasiums and a Jesuits college at Lausanne. The Calvinists have likewise literary societies for the improvement of the German tongue at Bern, Zurich, and Basil: others apply their attention to the cultivation of the sciences, among which is the Helvetic society at Basil, and the æconomical society at Bern. Some Swiss have also distinguished themselves in the fine arts, and the number of masterly painters this country can boast may be seen in the Lives of the Swiss Painters, published at Zurich in 1755. This country has also produced some excellent engravers.

Swisserland has a great number of manufactures. In those parts that produce tobacco, that plant is prepared both for smoking and snuff. Great quantities of flax and hemp are spun into thread of different fineness, for the weaving of linen. Thread, lace, and stockings, are likewise made here; and Winterthur is noted for its neckcloths for men and women. Among its linen manufactures are its dimities, cotelines, limoges, and trieges. Cotton is spun and wove into muslin and stuffs for gowns; into handkerchiefs, stockings, and gloves. Cottons are also printed with figures of the most beautiful colours. In Swisserland are made several sorts of silks, particularly paduasoy and organzines, gold and silver brocades, velvets, handkerchiefs, ribbons, and stockings. Its woollen manufactures are druggets, calamancoes, fatts, damasks, camblets, ratines, flannels, blankets, lindsley-

lindsey-woolsey, and stockings. Bleaching and dying are likewise performed in the best manner. The other manufactures are those of hats, coarse and fine paper, leather for all uses, particularly the Neuenburg chamois, and the Schwitz calf's leather, are particularly famous. Horn is worked into a variety of utensils. Winterthur and Lausanne are famous for their earthen-wares, particularly for their beautiful white and painted stoves; and several places make a very pretty porcelain. The marble of this country is sawn and polished at home; but the greatest part of the beautiful crystals met with here are carried to Italy. Their gold and silver manufacturers deal in laces, fringes, &c. and the best gold-beaters are those of Basil. Several places trade largely in toys; neat and good watches are made here, and Swisserland is not without skilful printers, braziers, founders, cutlers, &c.

The situation of this country between Germany, France, and Italy, with its navigable lakes and rivers, particularly the Rhine and the Rhone, by which it has a communication both with the German ocean and the Mediterranean, together with droves of pack-horses for the conveyance of goods over the mountains, where no carriages can pass, render the trade of this country very extensive. Its principal exports are cheese, butter, horses, horned cattle, sheep, some wine, and several of the above manufactures. On the other hand, this country imports grain from Swabia, Tirol, and Alsace, as also hemp and flax; with wine, wool, salt, several species of manufactures, and particularly American and Asiatic goods.

The coinage in all the cantons and incorporated states is not alike: Zurich, Basil, Schaffhausen, and St. Gall, follow the standard of Germany; while Bern, Lucern, Uri, Schwitz, Unterwald, Zug, Freyburg, Solothurn, Geneva, Neuenburg, and the Valais, keep to the old Burgundian standard.

The lowest coin here, according to Dr. Busching, is the heller, or haller, which is the sixteenth part of a penny, two of which make a pfenning, or angster; Zurich coins drey hallerlins, or three hallers; and Bern dreyerlin, or vierer. Another small piece here is the rap, six of which go to a plapper, and ten to a batz, and fifteen of the last make a Swiss guilder. Six angsters are equal to a Zurich shilling, seven hellers to a kreutzer, and four hellers to a Bernlander, or Chur batz. Bern and Zug have likewise their half kreutzers; Zug, Freyburg, and Solothurn, coin three kreutzer pieces; and Bern some of ten and twenty. The batzes are of three sorts; the good, which are coined at Schaffhausen, are of the value of sixteen pfennings; the Zurich batzes are equal to fifteen pfennings; and those of Berne to fourteen: there are also half batzes. A gemein gulden usually passes for fifteen good batzes, and sixteen Zurich batzes; a Bern gulden for fifteen Bern batzes, or thirty-six Zurich shillings; and a lander for thirty-two. In the country of the Grisons seventy blutzgers, or thirty-five Zurich shillings, make a gulden. The gold coins here are whole, half, and quarter ducats.

SECT. III.

The History of Swisserland; with a general Account of the Regulations with respect to the thirteen United Cantons in general: the Titles by which they are addressed by foreign States, their military Establishments, and the Contingents of each State; with the Regulations with regard to such of their Troops as enter into the Service of foreign Princes.

THE antient Helvetians were a Gaulish or Celtic people, and Helvetia, which received its name from them, was divided into four cantons or territories. Julius Cæsar was the first who reduced the inhabitants under the dominion of the Romans, who founded colonies here; and their dominion continued till the fifth century, when the country was over-run by the Burgundians and Germans, and at length became united to the German empire; but about the year 1300 the emperor Albert I. not only refused to confirm their antient privileges, without condescending to alledge any reason for his refusal, but set over the Swiss two noblemen of the

most infamous characters for avarice and arrogance, whose administration becoming insupportable, the people addressed their petitions and complaints to the emperor, but without success.

This so encouraged their tyrants, that Griser, the governor of Unterwald, set his hat upon a pole at Altoiff, and, in the wantonness of power, demanded that the same respect should be paid to it as to himself. The histories of Swisserland say, that one William Tell refusing to submit to this mark of slavery, Griser had him brought before him, and telling him that he heard he was an excellent marksman, commanded that he should shoot an arrow at an apple placed upon his own son's head; and that if he missed it, he should be hanged. Tell, though with a trembling hand, struck off the apple without touching his son, and thereby saved his life; but Griser perceiving that Tell, though he was to have but one shot, had an arrow in his belt, demanded the reason; on which he frankly confessed, that had he been so unfortunate as to have killed his son, he would have shot it at him. The tyrant, who had promised to give him his life on his acknowledging the truth, now ordered him to be bound and carried prisoner for life to a place on the lake of Lucern; but Tell happily escaping out of the boat in crossing the lake, retired into the mountains, where he waited for an opportunity of destroying the tyrant, and at length shot him as he was passing along the road.

The people now universally expressed their hatred against the tyrants, and the inhabitants of Uri, Schwitz, and Unterwald, who had from time immemorial possessed the right of being governed by their own magistrates, with other important privileges, united in order to defend themselves to the last extremity. For this purpose they chose three commanders, gentlemen of approved courage and abilities; these were Gerhard Stauffach, Walter Furst, and Arnold Melchthal, who secretly agreed to surprise and demolish the castles in which the imperial governors resided.

This resolution being effected, these three places joined again in a league for ten years, which gave birth to the Helvetic confederacy. The emperor Albert thinking this a proper time for totally reducing these places by force of arms, hastened to Baden to begin the preparations; but being on his return murdered by John of Hapsburg, the design was dropped till the house of Austria invented another pretence for falling on the United Cantons. These and other parts of Swisserland adhering to the emperor Lewis of Bavaria, Frederic of Austria, his competitor, was so extremely irritated, that he put the inhabitants of Schwitz under the ban of the empire, because during their contests with the abbey of Einsidlen, they had made some of the monks prisoners; and they were excommunicated by the bishop of Constance. Soon after Leopold, duke of Austria, in 1315, attacked the Confederates with an army of twenty thousand men; but was defeated at Morgarten, in the canton of Schwitz. Upon this, on the eighth of December, in the same year, they entered into a perpetual alliance, which proved the origin of the present Helvetic confederacy. In 1332 Lucern acceded to it; in 1351 they were joined by Zurich and Glaris; and in 1352 their number was increased, by their being joined by Zug and Bern. For the space of 125 years this confederacy was composed only of these eight cantons; but in 1481 Freyburg and Solothurn, and in 1501 Basil and Schaffhausen, were admitted into the confederacy; and in 1513 Appenzel also acceded to it.

The federal union, however, extends no farther than is necessary for their mutual defence, and accommodating differences that may arise between two or more towns or cantons, and in all other affairs they are left to their liberty, particularly with respect to concluding alliances with foreign powers, their granting auxiliaries, receiving subsidies, permitting a passage to foreign troops, and also in their transactions among each other; as the sending of envoys to foreign states, adjusting the value of their coins, or calling them in, and other matters of public concern, though, both in their foreign and domestic affairs, great pains are taken to produce an unanimity of opinion, in order to add the greater weight to their resolutions. Besides, every town and canton is an independent



*W.^m Tell's bold Answer to the Tyrant, after having
shot the Apple from his Son's Head.*

independent state of itself, enjoys the privilege of modelling its own form of government; and of making laws, without any obstruction from the other members of the confederacy.

Thus the whole Helvetic confederacy properly consists of thirteen distinct republics, or free states, united by oath for their mutual security and defence. It has now for some centuries supported itself in an absolute freedom and independency; increased all the privileges of majesty; made wars, concluded treaties, received and sent envoys from and to the several European powers; entered into alliances with them; given what form they thought proper to their constitution; enacted laws and ordinances, both in temporal and spiritual affairs; and exercised all the various prerogatives of sovereignty.

Accordingly, at the peace of Westphalia in 1648, it was acknowledged to be a free state, even by the emperor and empire. The former gives it the title of "The most valiant, firm, and full of dignity, our best beloved friends the common confederates of all the thirteen cantons and other places of Swisserland." The French king addresses them in the following manner, "To our very dear and great friends and confederates the burgomasters, advoyers, landammen, and council of the Swiss league in Upper Germany." The king of Great Britain styles them, "The illustrious and most mighty lords, the consuls, seneschals, landmen, and senators of the confederated Swiss cantons, our very dear friends." The king of Sweden styles them, "The noble, most mighty, magnificent, and renowned people, our dearly beloved friends, consuls, seneschals, landammen, senators and communities of the thirteen confederated Swiss cantons." The king of Prussia writes to "The high born, noble, most firm, wise, and very learned, our singularly beloved friends, of all offices and other posts of honour, the burgomaster, prætor, bailiffs, and council of the thirteen confederated cantons of Zurich, Bern, Lucern, &c." And the pope's address to the catholic cantons runs thus: "To our beloved sons the prætors, landammen, &c. the counsellors of the eight Swiss cantons; that is to say, of Lucern, &c. the defenders of the faith." The United Cantons in rank are reckoned next to Venice. To them belong in common twenty-one bailliages, two towns, and the like number of lordships. Eleven other free Helvetian republics are united, either with the whole confederacy, or with particular states.

The form of government in the states of the Helvetic republic is in some monarchical, in others aristocratical, and in others again democratical. Their sovereigns are the princes of the empire, as the bishop of Basil, and abbot of St. Gall. The aristocratical governments are the cantons of Zurich, Basil, and Schaffhausen, with some incorporated places, as the towns of St. Gall, Muhlhausen, and Biel, which are governed by six burgomasters; the cantons of Bern, Lucern, Freyburg, and Solothurn, over which are appointed justiciaries; and Neuenburg and Geneva, where the supreme power is lodged in bailiffs. The democratical form of government prevails in the six cantons of Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzell, which are under the direction of landammen, and also with some variation in the eight acceding places, as the Grisons and the Valais; but in all of them every male from sixteen years of age has a vote.

The revenues of the states are the usual imports, tythes, annual incomes, payments annexed to the sovereignty, and their subsidies.

With respect to their military establishment, the only regular forces are those of the garrisons of Zurich, Bern, Basil, Geneva, and Arburg; but every burgher, peasant, and subject, must exercise himself in the use of arms; appear on the stated days for shooting at a mark; furnish himself with proper cloathing, accoutrements, powder and ball; be always ready for the defence of his country, and punctually comply with every article of war. For this end almost every canton, particularly those of Zurich, Bern, Basil, Freyburg, and Solothurn, have classed their subjects into regiments of horse and foot under the command of proper officers, who are composed of the burghers of the several towns.

According to several ordinances, and the conventions for the common defence and immediate assistance of any injured party, the contingents of the several cantons are as follow:

	Men.
Bern	2000
Zurich	1400
Lucern	1200
Uri	400
Schwitz	600
Underwald	400
Zug	400
Glaris	400
Basil	400
Freyburg	800
Solothurn	600
Schaffhausen	400
Appenzell	600
Abbot of St. Gall	1000
The Town of St. Gall	200
Biel	200
Baden	200
Thurgau	600
The Free Bailliages	300
Sargans	300
The Rheinthal or Rhein Vale	200
Lauwis	400
Luggaris	200
Mendris	100
Mayenthal	100
Total	13,400

Besides which, each canton and incorporated district is to have in readiness one field-piece, with all other implements, powder, ball, &c. that on the first notice their succours may be sent without delay. Also every confederated and incorporated district, for the second and third draught, is to furnish and hold in readiness double the same proportion. Such towns and territories as levy cavalry are also immediately to march.

Thus, as in the Seven United Provinces of the Netherlands, the weak are defended by the strong, and those who can send at one time only one or two hundred men, are generously protected by those who are willing to send as many thousands; and all are mutually engaged in one common interest, in the defence of their liberties and their respective laws. Happy would it be for mankind in general, were all its princes united by a like confederacy!

The above corps, composed of the troops of all the different cantons, form two armies, one consisting of the troops of Zurich, Lucern, Schwitz, Zug, Basil, Solothurn, Appenzell, the town of St. Gall, the Thurgau, the Free Bailliages, Sargans, and Lauwis: to the other belong those of Bern, Uri, Underwald, Glaris, Freyburg, Schaffhausen, the abbey of St. Gall, Biel, Baden, the Rhein Vale, Luggaris, Mendris, and Mayenthal. Over the first of these armies the towns of Zurich and Lucern nominate each a commander in chief; Schwitz and Zug, each a major-general of the artillery; Solothurn, a quarter-master-general; Appenzell, a provost-marshal; and the town of St. Gall, a waggon-master. In the latter, the two commanders are appointed by Bern and Uri; the two major-generals, by Underwald and Glaris; the general of the artillery, by Freyburg; the quarter-master-general, by Schaffhausen; the provost-marshal, by the abbot of St. Gall; and the waggon-master, by Biel.

Any territory in visible danger of an attack or surprize by the enemy, may claim from the next territory all the three draughts collectively, and this territory again is to demand succour of the next; and so on, each being obliged to march its contingent to the rendezvous. For the more expeditious assembling of these armies, signals are ordered to be made on the mountains and high places.

Swisserland is well provided with arsenals, particularly at Bern; but the only fortified places are Geneva, Solothurn, Zurich, Bern, Basil, and Arburg.

The Swiss engage in the service of foreign princes and states, either merely as guards, or as marching regiments.

In the latter case, the government permits the enlisting volunteers, though only for such states as they are in alliance with, or have entered into a previous agreement on that article; and no subject is to be forced into foreign service, nor even to be enlisted without the concurrence of the magistracy. All the advantages arising to these regencies from these levies are usually an annual subsidy, paid by the state in whose favour the levies are granted, and perhaps a promise of reciprocal aid when necessary. A public benefit, however, attending this custom is, that these men, on their return home, after a long service abroad, greatly improve the standing militia of the country. The greatest number of Swiss troops is kept by France.

In order to give a more particular description of the several parts of Switzerland, we shall begin with the thirteen cantons, and afterwards shall add the incorporated territories.

SECT. IV.

Of the Canton of ZURICH.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce: a Description of the Lake of Zurich; and of the City of the same Name.

ZURICH is bounded on the north by Swabia and the county of Schaffhausen, on the east by Thurgau and the county of Tockenbourg, on the south by the canton of Schwitz, and on the west by the canton of Zug and the Free Provinces.

This canton is, according to the learned Scheuchzer, an epitome of all Switzerland, as containing hills, valleys, plains, corn lands, vineyards, lakes, rivers, vegetables of all kinds, and whatever else is necessary to the support of life. Grain is cultivated all over the country; but it ripens later in the mountainous parts, where the air is coldest, than in the sandy valleys. The hilly grounds on the east, west, and south borders, afford a specimen of the fertility of the Alps, as abounding in cattle, milk, butter, and cheese; and towards Schaffhausen and the Thurgau the country produces good wine, which, tho' at first tart, improves by keeping, and after some years becomes smooth, pleasant, and wholesome. Fruits are also found every where in great plenty. The most remarkable minerals and fossils are, the fine white chalk at the village of Mur, different kinds of clay for making earthen-ware, pit-coal, and turf; and in several places are veins of sulphur.

The principal lake in this country is that of Zurich, which is one of the largest in Switzerland, it being twenty-four miles in length, and about three in breadth. The prospect from it is extremely delightful, the little eminences by which it is bordered being all over diversified with corn fields and vineyards, and behind these is every where a gradual ascent of larger hills terminating in the stupendous mountains of Glaris, Schwitz, and the Grisons, whose summits are always covered with snow. The Rhine waters the north side of this canton, where it is joined by the Thur, the Toss, and other smaller streams. Out of the lake of Zurich issues a river which flows through the town, and having a little below it received the Hill, begins to be called the Limmat; till traversing the county of Baden, it at last loses itself in the Aar.

This canton is, next to Bern, the largest and most populous, it being thought capable of bringing near fifty thousand fighting men into the field, without any considerable detriment to its agriculture or manufactures.

The Reformation was begun here by Zwinglius, in 1517, in the city of Zurich, and in 1524 spread through the whole canton. Religious affairs are under the direction of an ecclesiastical council composed of eight members, two of whom are clergymen, and of a synod of ten deaneries, including under them a hundred and fifty ministers.

On the accession of this canton in 1351 to the perpetual alliance with Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, and Lucern, the latter, on swearing to the alliance, made no difficulty of yielding the presidency to Zurich, which

it has since constantly retained; but this honour, instead of being any real advantage, is rather a burthen, all affairs relating to the collective body of the confederacy being transacted in its offices, and from thence communicated to the other towns and places.

The city of Zurich, the Tigurum Thuricum of the ancients, is seated in the forty-seventh degree fifty-four minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree thirty-two minutes east longitude, in a very pleasant and fertile country on the outlet of the lake, and is esteemed the handsomest town in Switzerland. It is large and well fortified, and contains five arsenals, which are well stored. Its churches are the Great Minster, which has prebends; the Frau-Minster, a parochial church; but the largest ecclesiastical foundation before the Reformation was an abbey for ladies, the abbess of which bore the title of princess. To these are to be added St. Peter's and the Prediger church. There is here an academy, which has fifteen professors, with two colleges. Here is also a German society, which owes its origin to professor Bodmer, and is associated with that of Bern. The town-library, which is very considerable, with the public museum, are in the Water-church. In the prebend-library are several valuable manuscripts. The town-house is a very fine pile of building, and so well designed, that it would make a good figure even in Italy. The frontispiece to this edifice has pillars of a beautiful black marble streaked with white, which is found in the neighbouring mountains; and the chambers for the several councils, with the other apartments, are very neat.

The burghers are divided into thirteen companies, the first of which is chiefly composed of gentry. Out of these companies are chosen the city regency, that is, the greater and lesser council, in whom the sovereignty and administration of all civil and military affairs are lodged. The great council consists of one hundred and sixty-two members, and to this assembly none can be admitted under thirty years of age. The lesser council is composed of fifty members, who must all have attained their thirty-sixth year, and is divided into two equal bodies, each of which is alternately possessed of the regency for the term of six months.

The principal persons in the city are two burgo-masters, freely elected by the burghers and counsellors from the above councils, and these hold the government by turns, each for half a year. Next to them are four stadtholders, or masters of companies, and two treasurers, who continue in office twelve years by annual rotation. The privy council is composed of twelve members, who are the two burgomasters, the four stadtholders, two treasurers, the obman of the convents belonging to the public, and three others elected by the counsellors. In this assembly the affairs of the canton are first discussed, and if thought necessary, they lay them before the lesser and greater councils. The chamber of accounts consists of twelve members; these are the two burgomasters, one stadtholder, two treasurers, the obman of the convents, three members of the lesser, and three of the greater council. These inspect the city receipts and disbursements, the accounts of the treasurers and city builders excepted, and likewise take cognizance of the tithes. The council of reformation is composed of eight members of the lesser, and four of the greater council, and superintends the execution of the sumptuary laws, the reformation of manners, defamatory expressions, and acts of violence. To the marriage court belong eight members, who determine all matrimonial disputes, and inflict punishments on all persons convicted of whoredom, prohibited games, swearing, superstitious practices, profanation of the sabbath, and the like. The city court hears causes relating to debts and pecuniary claims; and the revenue court decides contests in matters under its jurisdiction. To the above-mentioned obman of the convents is committed the management of the church revenues, both in the city and country.

Zurich has all the manufactures that are to be met with in the most ingenious and flourishing nations, as cloths, stuffs and linen crapes, calamancoes, half silk and half worsted cipers, calicoes, silk handkerchiefs, fattins, organsines, and several other sorts of silks; silk stockings,

stockings, cotton stockings, muslins, lawns, gold and silver thread, and galloons; besides a foundery for bells, cannon, and other things.

The arms of the city of Zurich are, a shield argent and azure, party per bend.

S E C T. V.

The Canton of BERN.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, Lakes, Mountains, and Vallies. The military Affairs of the Canton; with a particular Description of the City of Bern, and its Government; the Welschen or foreign Lands, and also a Description of Lausanne.

BERN is terminated to the east by the cantons of Uri, Unterwald, and Lucern; to the northward by the Austrian forest towns, and the cantons of Basil and Solothurn; to the westward it borders on the canton of Solothurn, the district of Biel, the principality of Neuenburg, Franche Comté, and the land of Gex; and to the southward on the lake of Geneva, the dutchy of Savoy, and the Valais. It pretty nearly environs the whole canton of Freyburg, extending about a hundred and fifty-one miles in length, and seventy-five in breadth, it being the largest of the thirteen cantons, and forming in the whole little less than one-third of the confederacy.

Scheuchzer styles this canton, with respect to its extent, figure, and fertility, the most valuable gem of all Switzerland. The levels yield an exuberance of grain and fruit, and the high lands afford rich pastures covered with cattle; whence the inhabitants are in no want of milk, butter, and cheese. The finest spots here are in the country bordering on the lakes of Biel, Neuenburg, and Geneva, which not only yield the choicest fruits, but also excellent wine. Here is clay of different colours, of which earthen-ware is made. In this canton is also found mundic, with a beautiful blue and white sandstone, used at Bern for building. There are here also gypsum, pit-coal, sulphur, and iron ore. Some gold is likewise found among the sands of the Emmat and the Aar. The latter of these rivers is the largest in the whole canton, and has its source within it, receiving the larger Emmat, the Sanen, the Sensen, the Wigger, the Aa, the Hufs, and the Limmat, and at length loses itself in the Rhine. The Candel, or Cander, is an impetuous torrent that issues from the Gaster Alp, being joined by the rivulet of Alp, and afterwards by the Simmen, whence it continues its course through a new canal three thousand feet in length, in the making of which an eminence a hundred and fifty-two feet high was levelled.

Among the lakes the principal is that of Geneva, the greatest part of which is within this canton, and which we shall describe in treating of Geneva.

To this canton likewise in some measure belong the lakes of Neuenburg and Biel, the latter of which is also called the Nydaw lake, and is very full of fish: it receives into it the Thiele, which issues from the Neuenburg lake. The borders of this lake are fruitful; they are planted with many vineyards, and almost in its center are two small islands, the largest of which, called St. Peter's, is a delightful spot covered with meadows, vineyards, and the most beautiful woods.

The Simmenthal, or Simmen Vale, in this canton, says Dr. Busching, extends between twelve and thirteen hours in length, with a breadth of only one quarter or a sixth, and is on both sides bounded by a ridge of high mountains, of equal length, but of very different quality, some of them being extremely fertile, and others barren, while others again are merely bare rocks. The rivulet of Simmen, or Siemen, which traverses the whole length of the vale, is said to have a seven-fold source, and from this circumstance to derive its name, which it has since communicated to the vale. The stupendous height of the rocks, whence vast fragments frequently fall into the road, render the entrance into the vale somewhat frightful, especially during the spring, when, by the dissolution of the ice and snow, whole masses of rocks separate

from each other, and render it really dangerous. In this long valley are several villages; but the inhabitants in few places sow either wheat, oats, or rye; they receiving great profit from their grass, which is extraordinary rich, breeding vast numbers of cattle, from which they obtain milk, butter, and cheese. The best sort of the latter, which is made of cream, is in great repute abroad, under the name of Saan cheese. The greatest part of the inhabitants, instead of bread, eat thin barley-cakes, with the second sort of cheese; but the principal food of the common people is potatoes, and they drink milk or whey: but the more wealthy have wine, which is of a high price, it being brought over the mountains from Vivis. Some parts produce good fruit, and the rivulets abound both with red and common trout.

The territory of Hafsli, which is also in this canton, according to the above author, extends about eleven hours from the summit of the Grimsel hill. In the upper valley are fine woods of beech and pine, with plenty of grass for cattle, both on the heights and low lands. The mountains yield most excellent roots, and are frequented by chamois goats, and other animals that resort to the mountains; as also by wild fowl of all kinds. This country likewise abounds in mines, particularly in those of lead and iron, as also in fine crystals.

Over the high mountain called the Grimsel hill is a road leading to Upper Gestelen in the Valais, that is passable only in summer; and even then, on account of the ice and snow, is very difficult, troublesome, and dangerous, and is with great labour and expence kept in repair by the inhabitants of the Hafsli vale. In many places this road is hewn out of the hard rock in a serpentine form, secured with walls, and connected by bridges that extend from one rock to another; and on the top of the road towards the north is a lake. On this road, at the foot of a hill, is an inn or hospital, where every five years the land-holders of the Hafsli vale appoint an hospitaller, as he is styled, who continues there from the middle of March to Martinmas, that is, as long as the road is passable, and accommodates travellers with meat and drink, for which those pay who are able, but the poor are entertained gratis. The expence is defrayed by an annual collection made throughout the whole confederacy, and even in some places beyond it.

Southward from the hospital an ice vale extends two hours in length, and afterwards for six hours more winds to the west with the mountains, terminating at last at the high ice-mountain of Schreckhorn; and in this vale, which is called the Grimselthal, lies the source of the river Aar, or Aren. On a part of the Grimsel hill, called Zinkenbergr, a crystal-pit was discovered in 1719, which yielded crystal to the value of upwards of thirty thousand rixdollars; many pieces dug in it weighing from four to seven and eight hundred pounds, most of which were without flaw, and as transparent as water.

The canton of Bern is well cultivated and very populous, containing thirty-nine large and small towns, and above thirteen villages, with about four hundred thousand persons. The German is the prevailing language in the greatest part of the canton; but in the Foreign Lands, as they are called, the French is mostly used.

The whole canton is Protestant, except a few Papists, who reside in the Vale of Frick. The churches of the German territory of Bern are ranged under six chapters, each of which has a dean, who is appointed by the daily council of Bern, and also a treasurer assisted by certain jurats; and these, every year, in conjunction with such officers of the bailliage as live within their department, hold a chapter or synod.

In the year 1353 the city of Bern concluded a perpetual union with Uri, Schwitz, and Unterwald, and thus became a member of the confederacy. One article of this union was, that Bern should likewise assist Zurich and Lucern, when required by the three above-mentioned cantons, as allies of those states, and, at the request of those cantons, Zurich and Lucern were also to assist Bern. This canton, on account of its power and opulence, has been allowed the second rank among the confederates.

Its arms are gules, a bear sable, rampant, on a bend or.

The military affairs of this canton are under the care of a war-office, instituted in the capital. This office appoints the musters, and also the majors who conduct them; gives orders in every thing relating to the furniture and discipline of the militia, and also the implements of war. Every male from sixteen to sixty is entered in the war-roll, and about one-third of them divided into regiments under the title of fusiliers and aufzugers, who are recruited from the other two-thirds. The fusiliers are all single, picked men; but the aufzugers are married. In time of war both serve, but the first draught is made from the fusiliers. A regiment of these, including the staff-officers, consists of two battalions, each containing five companies, and to every company are a hundred and ten men, including ten commission and non-commission officers; but of the aufzugers, a regiment consists of twelve companies, each containing two hundred and eighteen men, thirteen of whom are officers.

Every person when entered on the roll is to provide himself with arms, which, as well as the cloathing, are to be all uniform. The colour universally used is brown, and the distinctions between the regiments consist entirely in their facing. Among the horse is a regiment of cuirassiers, who are furnished by the vassals in the Païs de Vaud and the Walschen lands: the rest of the horse, one troop of curiaffiers excepted, who are burghers of Bern, consist entirely of dragoons. Every regiment contains ten troops, making in the whole five squadrons, who all find their respective horses, arms, and accoutrements; on which account those who keep horses are generally chosen for the cavalry.

That the men thus distributed into regiments, and the others also may be provided with arms, and be rendered expert in the use of them, commissaries at arms are stationed all over the canton for mustering and exercising the people in every department throughout the year, and for seeing that all their arms and accoutrements are in good order. The country is also divided into certain districts, each under the direction of a land-major, who receives pay from the states, and is to see that the soldiers are kept in constant readiness to march. This officer frequently makes a progress for the inspection of the officers and private men, and every year brings those of his circuit to a general muster.

A commander in chief is never appointed but in time of war, and even then he is assisted by a council composed of the most eminent members of the regency and other experienced officers, without whose concurrence he can undertake nothing, but with their approbation any thing. As in such cases several different corps are necessarily put in motion, so each has a commander and counsellor at war. During a peace the president of the war-office at Bern is the first military officer.

Though the grand train of artillery be kept in the arsenal at Bern, yet a considerable number of field-pieces are distributed all over the country, especially at the mansion-houses and castles where the governors and prefects reside. To this artillery belong three companies of matrosses, and one of bombardiers, each consisting of one hundred men, under their proper officers; and every district knows the horses and carriages it is to furnish for the artillery, stores, and baggage. There is also a company of a hundred and twenty men, composed of various artificers, for adjusting and repairing the artillery; as also another of guides, with its officers. These last are always composed of such as are thoroughly acquainted with the roads, bye-ways, and different parts of the country.

In time of peace the only force constantly kept up is a guard in the city of Bern, consisting of two hundred men, commanded by a town major, who is always a member of the great council, and three lieutenants, with seventy-five men, and three non-commissioned officers included, as a garrison for Fort Arburg.

For the better regulation of levies to be made for any foreign power, Bern has a particular office called the recruit-chamber, the commissioners of which consist of two members of the daily council, and five of the great council. From this office licences for such levies are issued, and here the recruits make their appearance and are registered.

The prefects over the countries subject to Bern reside, while in office, in their several departments, and have their deputies, clerks, and collectors. In civil causes they sit as judges in the bailliage courts; but from them appeals lie to the court of appeals at Bern. They punish petty crimes, and in greater ones draw up the indictments and form the process, which being transmitted to the lesser council at Bern, sentence is there passed, but the execution is referred to the prefects.

The city of Bern, in Latin *Berna*, or *Arcotopolis*, is seated on the river Aar, which washes three sides of it, forming a peninsula. Down the river at the stone-bridge the peninsula is so narrow as to be reduced to a single street; but gradually widens along the side of an eminence three or four hundred paces in length, after which it is first divided into two streets, then into three or four, and lastly into five. On this eminence is a fine plain, both sides of which are watered by the Aar, which here flows in a deep channel, and on the top towards the west is fortified with walls, moats, and out-works. The houses, except those in the highest and lowest parts, with a few bye streets, are built of stone, particularly in the main streets, which are adorned with piazzas, neatly paved with square flags, for the convenience of walking dry in rainy or snowy weather. The streets, especially the high street which runs through the center of the city, are paved with flints; and the latter is so broad as to admit of two carriages a-breast on each side of the canal which runs through it. The banks of this canal are lined with free-stone, it passes through most of the streets, and makes sufficient amends for the expence of bringing it from a considerable distance, by its being, exclusive of other uses, of great service in case of fires, and very convenient for carrying off the soil of the town into the Aar.

What appears very extraordinary at Bern is their public walks by the great church. These are raised a prodigious height, and, that their weight might not break down the walls and pilasters which surround them, they are built upon arches. The ingenious Mr. Addison observes, that these walks being as high from the streets and gardens that lie at the foot of them, as most steeples in England, they afford the noblest summer prospect in the world; for they give a full view of a prodigious range of mountains that lie in the country of the Grisons, and are covered with snow. These are about twenty five leagues distance from the town, though their height and colour makes them seem much nearer. The cathedral stands on one side of these walks, and is a master-piece in Gothic architecture. The chief minister is the head of the city clergy, and bears the title of dean; and formerly this church had also its prebends. The inferior ministers and deacons belonging to it now officiate in the Dominican church, where was once a convent of monks of that order; but it is now divided into an hospital and house of correction, and the upper part of the choir being vaulted over, has been converted into a music-room for the *collegium musicum*. A French congregation has also its meetings in this church. The church on the Nydec stands at the lower end of the city, near the bridge over the Aar, and has a particular minister, with an assistant. The hospital of the Holy Ghost, which stands in the uppermost part of the city, has been made parochial, and provided with a minister and assistant.

There is here an academy, to which belong eight professors: it has three halls for public lectures, examinations, and other exercises, with apartments for a provost and twenty students in divinity, who are maintained gratis, and also a large public library, with a museum. There is likewise here a grammar school. Here is an oeconomic society, composed of men of letters. Under the town-hall is a large granary, and on the lower side stands the office of record. The arsenal is a very extensive building, in which, besides the artillery, are arms of all kinds for twenty thousand men. Here are shewn the figure and armour of the count who founded the town, and those of the famous Tell, who is represented at the head of the hall, aiming at the apple on his little son's head, who stands opposite to him: these are images of wood, in which the hands and eyes are admirably expressed. He appears to have been a tall raw-boned man, with a very honest countenance, and, according to the fashion

fashion of those times, one half of his coat is red, and the other black and yellow stripes alternately; his breeches and stockings are of one single piece, and an arrow sticks in his coat behind his head: the boy is laughing, as apprehending no kind of danger. They likewise shew abundance of arms, which they took from the Burgundians in the three great battles which established them in the possession of their liberties, and destroyed the great duke of Burgundy himself, with the bravest of his subjects.

The hospital is a very spacious structure, completely finished in 1742. The infirmary is another very large building.

This city is divided into four quarters, namely, those of the bakers, the butchers, the smiths, and the tanners, each having the privilege of chusing a knight-banneret. Besides these there are other companies; but it is the privilege of the former, that the four bannerets are chosen only out of those bodies.

The burghers of the city are divided into the qualified for government, and the perpetual inhabitants. The latter, consisting of such who were made freemen since the year 1635, enjoy all privileges; but are incapable of the magistracy, and all public employments, which are the peculiar portion of the former, as the descendants of those who were burghers before that year. Though the city was erected in the year 1191, as a check to the violent proceedings of the nobility, yet six very ancient noble families found means to be classed among the qualified burghers: these, besides being respected above all others, have this privilege, that when any of them are admitted a member of the senate or lesser council, he takes place of all other members, though his senior in office, and immediately follows the knights-bannerets, or tribunes of the people.

The great council, into which none is admitted under thirty years, is not to consist of less than two hundred persons; and when complete, their number amounts to two hundred and ninety-nine; but never to three hundred. This council makes war, peace, and alliances; manages every thing relating to the revenues, gratuities, aids, and buildings, above the value of one hundred rixdollars; chooses the lesser council, and nominates the several officers of the prefectures: the members also preside in all capital causes for crimes committed within the district of the city, and likewise in civil causes, when the sum in debate exceeds the value of five hundred pounds.

In the lesser or daily council, sit the two prætors, twenty-five council-men, among which are the four knights-bannerets, and the two treasurers. These meet every day, Sundays and holidays excepted, for the dispatch of all business, whether political, criminal, civil, or any other, that does not fall under the cognizance of the great council, or of any particular office.

The heads of the aristocracy are the two prætors, by the French called avoyers: their office is for life, and they act alternately every other year. The acting magistrate presides in the great and lesser council, dressed in a black robe, and sitting in a chair of state, somewhat raised; yet he is possessed of no vote, except in case of an equality, where he has the casting voice. However, on most occasions his opinion is asked. To his custody is committed the city seal, and by him all letters and other instruments are signed. The prætor out of office takes place next to the other, and, in his absence, acts as his representative, and is invested with the same marks of distinction.

Next to the prætors sits the treasurer of the German lands, who holds his place for six years, after which there must be an interval of four more before he can be a second time elected treasurer. His province is to elect and superintend the revenues of the several districts in the German lands, as also the stock belonging to the cantons in the English funds, for which he passes his accounts twice a year.

The knights-bannerets, who are the next in rank, precede all other members of the lesser council, and derive their title from their office of keeping the banners or flags of the four several parts of the town. These are empowered to see that the militia under their ban-

ner, have their arms in readiness. They are elected from the four above-mentioned tradesmen: no member of the daily council who is not free of those companies, can be made a banneret, nor can two bannerets be of the same company, each of the four having one of their own. They continue in office four years, but resign at the end of every year, that their election may be confirmed by a fresh choice. They are possessed of certain privileges in the legislature, and may stand candidates for any office not peculiar to the lesser council, and each of them is vested with the intendency of some districts, consisting of several villages about the city.

These are followed by the treasurer of the *Païs de Vaud*, which office is the most profitable of all.

The country governments of the cantons being very lucrative, used to occasion great struggles; so that to prevent disputes and cabals, it was ordered in the year 1711, that these and other posts of great profit should be disposed of by lot. The candidates first draw lots about their turns in drawing for the office; after which, as many balls as there are candidates are put in a bag. These balls are all silver gilt, except one with gold, which entitles to the government. This office is indeed held only six years; but is attended with such emoluments, that within that short space, they lay up thirty or forty thousand dollars. No batchelor is capable of this or any other profitable employment: unquestionably the scope of the ordinance was to promote marriage, and thereby good order and the increase of the subjects.

In the center of the city is a large stone seat encompassed with iron rails, on which sits the acting judge, and the two members of the council next to him, when any sentence of death is to be pronounced.

The commonalty of both sexes wear straw hats, and the women's coats come so near the arm-pits, that not above an hand's breadth is left for the shape. The peasants of the canton of Bern are the wealthiest in Switzerland, there being scarce a village without at least one inhabitant worth twenty, thirty, or even sixty thousand guilders. Within these sixty years the manners of the country are become greatly altered, and a fondness for show, pleasure, and sumptuous living, is increased in a manner unknown to their simple ancestors; yet many vices are neither so bare-faced nor so common as in other cities.

To the city of Bern belong many governments, each containing a number of villages, particularly the *Walschen Lands*, otherwise called the Foreign or Italian Lands, which were conquered by the city of Bern in the year 1536. It will be proper here to mention the city of *Lausanne*.

This city, which was antiently called *Lausodunum*, or *Lausonium*, is seated in a valley, at about the distance of half a league from the lake of Geneva. The city has several gentlemen's houses in it, that are tolerably well built, and very commodious, and is furnished with two public fountains.

The wall of the cathedral was opened by an earthquake in 1634, and some years after shut by a second; but though it is at present not above an inch broad, and filled up with mortar; when Mr. Addison was there, several persons in the town were living who had formerly passed through it. The tower is not without beauty; but having been twice burned, only half of it is now standing. A smaller tower belonging to this church, was also set on fire by lightning, when they prudently beat it down by a chain ball, by which the body of the church was saved, and since that was done, a spire has been raised upon it. This church has two hundred and seventy-two stately pillars, and a fine choir. The choir is separated from the nave of the church by a fine gallery supported by eleven pillars of black marble. To this church are three gates, two great ones and a smaller; one of the largest has a fine portico, adorned with the statues of the twelve apostles, and the Virgin in the middle. The other has also a magnificent portico adorned with small figures in relievo, representing historical passages, besides some statues as big as the life.

Here were formerly eight churches more, together with two convents; but they have been most of them demolished since the Reformation, only *St. Francis's church*,

a handsome large structure, is still preserved for the use of the lower part of the city.

The town-house is a very handsome building, in the finest part of the city, adorned with a portico that has two fine pillars of green marble.

On the east side of the cathedral is a spacious walled terrace, like that at Bern, with this difference, that the terrace of Bern is much higher walled, and that of Lausanne has the advantage in prospect, it commanding the lake, and all the low country towards Geneva. This country, indeed, from its nature and improvements, affords a delightful view in the variety of little hills and dales, fields, meadows, vineyards, and woods, together with the neighbourhood of the lake.

The city is governed by a great and lesser council, the former of which consists of sixteen members, who have the burgomaster for their president; next to him is the treasurer, with the five bannerets, belonging to so many divisions of the city. From these councils, in causes not exceeding twelve hundred florins, appeals lie to a superior council composed of sixty members: but contests relating to larger sums, are carried before the council of Bern. It is remarkable, that there is one street in this city, in which the people have the privilege of acquitting or condemning any one of their own body in affairs of life and death; and as every inhabitant of this street has a vote, houses sell better here than in any other part of the town.

This city was formerly a bishop's see, originally founded at Avenche; but Lausanne closing with the Reformation, and coming under the sovereignty of Bern, the bishop withdrew to Freyburg. A part of the episcopal revenues was applied to the academical gymnasium erected here in 1557, and the bailiff of Bern resides in the bishop's palace, where he judges in all disputes brought before him from the country courts.

S E C T. VI.

The Canton of LUCERN.

Its Situation, Extent, Rivers, and Government, with a Description of the City of Lucern.

THE canton of Lucern, which is the most considerable next to Zurich and Bern, is bounded on the east by the cantons of Underwald, Schwitz, and Zug, and on all other sides by the canton of Bern; extending thirty miles in length, and twenty in breadth.

This canton produces a sufficient quantity of corn for Uri, Schwitz, and Underwald; and as the pasturage is also excellent, the inhabitants likewise apply themselves to grazing.

The principal rivers are the Rufs, which issues from the lake of Lucern, and receives the Emmat, and several other streams. The Wigger has its source in this canton, and also the Suran.

There are only four towns in this country, and the whole canton is entirely Popish, under the see of Constance. It has on all occasions been the principal abettor of Popery in Swisserland; and in 1747, and the following years, it resumed the antient severities against the Protestants; and some of these heretics, as they were called, were put to death with many aggravations of insult and cruelty.

This canton acceded to the Helvetic alliance in 1332, on which the third place was allotted to it; but it is reckoned the first and most powerful of the Popish cantons. Accordingly, whenever they assemble on religious concerns, provided such assembly be not held in one of their capital towns, the envoy of Lucern always presides. The summons are likewise issued from this city, and the recorder is always a member of the council of Lucern.

The city arms are, argent and azure party per pale, and its government is aristocratical.

The city of Lucern, in Latin Lucerna and Luceria, is situated on the banks of the Rufs, which divides it into two unequal parts, that have a communication with each other by three covered bridges. It is encompassed with a single wall, and is rich and populous, it being a well built and polite place. The inhabitants have a great

trade with the merchants of Germany and Italy. The most remarkable things to be seen here, are the organ of the great church, which is very fine, and of an extraordinary size, and the skeleton of a giant in the town-house. The religious buildings are the cathedral of St. Leodigarius and Maurice, the Jesuits college, which contains a church, and four monasteries.

The depositaries of the supreme power are the lesser and greater council: the former is composed of thirty-six members, divided into two equal parts, that relieve each other every half year: the members are chosen by the lesser council alone. The greater council consists of sixty-four persons elected from among the burghers. It is likewise vested with the penal jurisdiction, judges in the last resort, and confers the freedom of the city. At Lucern usually resides a nuncio from the pope, under the title of *legatus a latere*.

The lands and towns subject to this city are divided into fifteen prefectures.

S E C T. VII.

The Canton of U R I.

Its Situation, Extent, and Face of the Country; with a remarkable Road; and a concise Account of the Produce of the Country, and of its Capital.

THE canton of Uri borders towards the west on the cantons of Bern and Underwald; to the north on the canton of Schwitz; and to the eastward joins on the canton of Glaris, the Grisons, and the seven Italian districts, with the dutchy of Milan and the Valais; extending about thirty miles in length, and twelve in breadth.

It almost every where consists of dreadful mountains and deep vallies, the summits of which are perpetually covered with ice and snow. The loftiest among them, and indeed the highest in all Swisserland, is that of St. Gothard, over which is carried a fine road in one continued ascent of eight hours to the very summit of this stupendous mountain. This road deserves particular notice, it being in most parts six feet wide, and every where well paved during its whole ascent. The Rufs runs by its side, sometimes to the right, and at others to the left, over which are several handsome bridges, most of which are of stone. This road in summer is perfectly safe, not only for horses but even for carriages, though in winter the fall of masses of snow have proved fatal to many travellers. It lies between very high mountains, the lower parts of which are covered with thick woods, but above are quite bare. Several parts likewise exhibit the most beautiful cataracts, either from the Rufs, or other smaller streams; while many of them, by reason of the rocks that obstruct their passage, are resolved into a mist, which, by the refracting rays of the sun, form a variety of rainbows, and at the same time both charm and cool the traveller. But as he advances he is terrified at the view of frightful rocks hanging over the road, and so worn out underneath, as if they were just going to fall and crush him to atoms. On the other hand, when he finds himself shut in on all sides by such prodigious high mountains of vastly different aspects, some quite bare, and others tufted with trees, and abounding with a hundred sorts of medicinal herbs, he has reason to admire the wonderful works of the Creator, and to extol the industry and ingenuity of the inhabitants, who at immense hazard, toil, and expence, keep these roads open. For this purpose they join rocks together by arched bridges, cut a way through several rocks; and when the road seems ready to sink, support it by stout walls and buttresses, with great posts, which they drive deep into the earth, and stones, which they fasten to one another by iron hooks.

At about two hours distance above the village of Gestineu lies the largest bridge over the Rufs; it is of stone, and is of a surprising height, with only one arch, which is an exact semi-circle, the piers of which rest upon two rocks also of a prodigious height; and here the noise of the rapid torrent adds to the terrors of the scene. It is fifty feet over, and its height above the water about seventy. It can scarcely be imagined how it was possible

fible to erect a bridge there; and the inhabitants thinking it beyond the power of man to accomplish, suppose it to be performed by the devil, and therefore call it Teuffelsbruck, or the Devil's-bridge.

Immediately beyond this bridge is a road hewn out of the solid rock, for the space of near three hundred paces, and of a breadth sufficient for two horses to pass conveniently a-breast. At the end of this road the country assumes a very different aspect; for as the way below the bridge is bounded by two ridges of mountains, in this the traveller finds himself in a vale, in which is a village called Hospital, that extends through a valley, if that name may be given to the summit of a mountain eight thousand feet high, that has other mountains standing on it rising three thousand feet more, and some even higher. In this valley the road again ascends towards the south, it being paved and of a great breadth, and on each side defended by the highest mountains in Europe. In this part the road is perfectly delightful, the bare mountains, with their cataracts, having a majestic appearance; and the pastures, which are cloathed with a rich verdure, are covered with great numbers of fine horses. About half an hour farther on among the mountains lies the lake of Lozendro, out of which issues the Rufs, which is at first no more than a narrow brook; but it soon receives the greater part of its waters from an adjacent mountain of ice. On the upper part of this vale are several smaller lakes, which may be termed the sources of the river Tessino, which runs beneath them on the side of Italy. Here is also a Capuchin convent, in which two fathers constantly attend, and for a small consideration travellers are very conveniently accommodated; but the poor are obliged to put up with the fare of an adjoining almshouse.

On the Alps, in this canton, during the summer, are fattened many thousand heads of cattle; but the best pastures are on a hill called the Oberalp, the cheese of which is famed for its goodness. There is here a small lake about a hundred paces in length, which abounds in fish, and receives most of its waters from the Crispalt, a high mountain in the neighbourhood. Out of it issues two rivulets, one of which running eastward falls into the Rufs, and the other directing its course eastward into the country of the Grisons, there forms the Upper Rhine.

The vales between the high mountains are, in summer, very hot and fertile, when not exposed to the north winds. Among the mountains are also found numbers of beautiful crystals.

The inhabitants being inured to a rough and hard way of living, are vigorous, brave, and strenuous assertors of that liberty which was so deeply purchased by their heroic ancestors. They were once a free people, under the jurisdiction of the emperor; but Albert I. aiming at their entire subjection, placed a severe governor over them, who, by his tyranny, gave rise, as hath been already mentioned, to an union between Uri, Schwitz, and Underwald. They threw off the Austrian yoke in the beginning of the year 1308, and in 1315 these three cantons entered into a perpetual alliance. At that time Uri held the first place among the confederates; but at present it has only the fourth.

The arms of Uri are or, a bull's head gardent fable, having a ring gules passing through its nostrils.

The government of this canton is democratical, and divided into ten districts, the principal place in which is the following:

Altorf, or Altdorf, that is, the Old Village, in Latin Altorfium, the capital of the canton of Uri, is situated in a plain on the lake of Lucern, near the mouth of the river Rufs, at the foot of the Alps, about twenty-three miles to the south-east of Lucern. The houses are neat, and the streets broad, spacious, and well paved, while the gardens and country houses round it are delightful. It is the seat of the government, and of the courts of justice, who hold their meetings in the town-house. The provincial armoury is also kept here; besides which it has a large new granary, erected in 1733. It has three churches, the principal of which is that of St. Martin; and most of the gentry reside here. In the year 1400 the greatest part of the town was destroyed by fire, and in 1693 it again suffered by the same calamity.

S E C T. VIII.

The Canton of SCHWEITZ, or SCHWITZ.

Its Situation, Extent, Lakes, and Rivers; with a concise Description of its Capital, and of the Abbey or Hermitage of Einsidlen.

THE canton of Schweitz, Schwitz, or Switz, in Latin Sultienfis Pagus, though only the fifth in rank, has the honour of giving name to the whole country, either because the wars of the Swifs for the recovery of their liberty began here, or because here was formed the first confederacy, in defence of their natural and antient rights and privileges. This canton is bounded on the north by the cantons of Zurich and Zug; on the east by Glaris; on the south by Uri; and on the west by Lucern, Zug, and Zurich; extending from north to south about twenty-eight miles, and from east to west twenty-three.

It greatly resembles the canton of Uri, but the parts about the lakes are more fertile. The lakes here are those of Zurich, Zug, and Waldstadten. The Sill has its source in this canton, and, after receiving the united streams of the Biber and the Alps, enters the territories of Zurich.

The canton of Schwitz consists entirely of boroughs, villages, and scattered houses, without so much as one town. The whole country is also popish, and in church-affairs subject to the bishop of Constance. The inhabitants are likewise hardy, vigorous, brave, and extremely tenacious of their liberties.

Its arms are gules, a cross argent, placed on a canton, and its government is democratical.

The canton is divided into six parts, improperly called quarters, to each of which belong certain families or clans, who are not to remove their constant dwelling into any other quarter. The most remarkable places here are,

Schwitz, or Schweitz, the capital of the canton, situated in a pleasant valley, between mountains generally covered with snow, in the eighth degree forty-three minutes east longitude, and the forty-sixth degree fifty-seven minutes north latitude. It is the seat of the ordinary regency, consisting of sixty counsellors, as also the residence of several families of distinction; but it has only one parish church and three convents; with a mint, an hospital, and an arsenal. It was destroyed by fire in 1642, but rebuilt with great advantage; and is the residence of several families of distinction.

The abbey of Einsidlen, which is seated on the Sill, is on all sides surrounded by lofty mountains, on which antiently stood a thick gloomy forest. About the year 906, St. Benno repairing hither, laid the foundation of the abbey and convent, which is of the Benedictine order, and under the direction of an abbot, who is styled prince of the holy Roman empire. In 1704 the convent was rebuilt, and is now a large splendid edifice; the hall of which is finely painted. It has also a well chosen library, with a magnificent apartment and other convenient rooms for the many recluses here, and the entertainment of strangers. The minster church of Our Lady is embellished with very masterly paintings, costly gildings, and very beautiful stucco work; but the most remarkable place in it is a chapel, styled the Holy, in which is an image of the blessed Virgin, which attracts a great resort of pilgrims, who have brought great wealth to the church; and among other offerings is an ostensorium, near two ells high, in which, says our author, are three hundred and twenty pounds and a half of gold, with eleven hundred and seventy-four large pearls, three hundred and three diamonds, thirty-eight sapphires, a hundred and fifty-four emeralds, eight hundred and fifty-seven rubies, forty-four garnets, twenty-six hyacinths, and nineteen amethysts. Near the abbey is Einsidlen, a market-town.

There is a very level fruitful part of this canton along the lake of Zurich, which is called the March, that is the Frontier, it being antiently the boundary between

the Helvetians and Rhetians, or Grisons, from whom it was only separated by the river Limmat. It antiently belonged to the house of Austria; but in 1408 was taken by the troops of Appenzel, who made a present of it to this canton, as an acknowledgment for their assistance. In this district is contained,

Lachen, its capital, and the place where the court and council hold their meetings, seated on the south side of the lake of Zurich, and is the port where travellers land who go by water from Zurich to the cantons in the mountains.

Altendorf, a village about a musket-shot from the former, where, in 1704, a large fragment from the mountain, at the foot of which it stands, suddenly fell on a part of this village, and the neighbouring meadows, destroying a number of people and cattle, as well as houses.

SECT. IX.

The Canton of UNDERWALD.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Government, and principal Town.

UNDERWALD, or Unterwalden, in Latin Subsilvania, is bounded on the north by the canton of Lucern, and by the lake of the four cantons; on the east by high mountains, which separate it from the canton of Uri; on the south by the same canton, and that of Bern; and on the west by that of Lucern; extending about twenty-five miles in length, and seventeen in breadth.

It takes its name from a large forest of oaks nearly in the middle of the country, that traverses it from north to south, and is divided into two parts, that above the forest and that below it. The canton is small, but abounds in fruit and cattle. The mountains are covered with rich pastures, and fields and the vales are remarkably fertile: for in spring, when the snow is off the ground, they are full of cattle, which being afterwards driven up the Alps, the herbage shoots again in such a manner, as to be mowed twice in a summer; and in autumn the cattle, on their return from the Alps, meet again with plenty of grass, till the snow sets in again. All the lower parts of the country produce an exuberance of very fine fruit, and the canton is so well provided with wood, that, without any detriment, several spots might be cleared and improved into meadow or arable land. It has little or no wheat, and no wines are made here. In this canton are also good quarries of marble, and three sulphureous springs. Here rises the river Aa, and in this canton are the small lakes of Lungern, Ruden, and Sarner.

There are in this canton only small market-towns, villages, and scattered houses. The inhabitants in their apparel and manner of life adhere to the old fashions. They are universally popish, and form a part of the diocese of Constance.

The arms of this canton are argent, party per fesse, with a double warded key erect, in pale gules and argent.

The government is purely democratical, the regency being the depositary of the whole supreme power, in which all males above sixteen years of age have a right of admittance. As the country, however, consists of two vales, each forming a separate republic, so they have each their particular council and officers. To the general assembly of the Helvetic confederacy each vale sends a representative; but both act as for the same canton, the two representatives enjoying only one single voice.

The principal town in this canton is Stanz, or Stans, which is seated on the south side of the lake of Lucern, and has a handsome church, adorned with statues of black marble from quarries near the town. It has also a convent of Capuchins, and a nunnery. On the graves of this place are crosses of wood and iron, and on some of them hang little copper kettles of holy water, which the women sprinkle on the graves with little bunches of herbs.

SECT. X.

Of the Canton of ZUG.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Government; with a concise Description of the City of Zug.

ZUG is a very small canton, bordering towards the north on that of Zurich; to the eastward on the same canton, and that of Schwitz; to the southward also on the latter, and that of Lucern; and to the westward on the Free Provinces, and a part of the canton of Lucern: but is not above twelve miles either way.

The pastures here are excellent, and it also produces a sufficiency of grain, with plenty of fruit, and some wine. On one side of the lake of Zug the country is covered with chestnut trees, which form a very profitable branch of trade by the sale of the nuts into the neighbouring countries. The woods have plenty of game; and in general it is a fine rich canton. The above lake yields carp, that weigh from fifty to ninety pounds weight, with pike of fifty pounds, and plenty of trout and other fish. Out of this lake runs the river Loretz, which joins the Rufs.

The only city in this canton is Zug, all the other places here being only small towns and villages. The whole country is popish, and under the jurisdiction of the diocese of Constance. This canton is the seventh in rank, and among the lesser ones the fifth; besides which it is in a particular manner connected with Lucern, Uri, Schwitz, and Underwald, commonly called the five territorial confederates.

Its arms are azure, a fesse argent.

The government of this canton is entirely democratical, the supreme council being lodged in a council which annually meets in the town of Zug, and in which every male of sixteen years of age is possessed of a vote. It is composed of deputies from the five divisions of the canton. The chief person here is named the amman, who is alternately elected from the town and the territory; but the town amman continues in office three years, while that of the country enjoys his office only two. This officer must always reside in the town. Next to him is the stadtholder, who keeps the provincial seal. The daily dispatch of incidental occurrences, and the ordinary public affairs are committed to the stadtholder and amstrath, which consists of forty members, that is, thirteen from the town, and twenty-seven from the country. The penal jurisdiction is lodged in the amman, assisted by certain assessors from the town and country. Besides the town, every quarter in the canton has a distinct council and recorder of its own for the management of its affairs. For the administration of justice, the city has two courts, named the greater and less, one half of the members of which are appointed by the city, and the other half by the two quarters of Aegeri and Bar.

The principal place in this canton is the city of Zug, in Latin Tugium; it is situated on the east side of the lake of the same name, which is about seven miles long, and at the foot of an agreeable hill, which gradually rises to a great height, in the forty-seventh degree seven minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree thirty-four minutes east longitude, sixteen miles to the east of Lucern. It has spacious streets, and the houses are well built. It has a collegiate church, a parish church, a convent of Capuchins, and a nunnery. In 1435, the town suffered by a melancholy accident; when a street by the side of the lake was swallowed up by it, with a whole row of houses, and the town-wall on that side, and yet it is said, that no more than fifty persons were drowned.

SECT. XI.

The Canton of GLARIS.

Its Situation, Extent, the Face of the Country, and its Produce: its Rivers and Lakes; the Religion and Government of

of the Country; with a Description of the City of Glaris its Capital.

THE canton of Glaris, or Glarus, is bounded on the east by the county of Sargans, and the country of the Grisons; to the south by the latter, and the canton of Uri; to the west by the latter, and the canton of Schwitz; and to the northward by the March and Galter, extending, according to some authors, near twenty-five miles from north to south, and eighteen from east to west.

On the east, south, and west borders, it is environed with mountains of so great height, that they are continually covered with ice and snow, particularly by the Todiberg, which is esteemed one of the highest in all Switzerland, and is almost impassable, notwithstanding a road has with great labour been made over it from the great vale in Glaris to the country of the Grisons. From the north, where the country is open, a valley extends to the southward for the length of eight hours; but below Schwenden, the mountain named Freyberg, divides into two separate vales, the greater and the less; the former of which lies to the west, and the latter to the east of that hill: besides which, there are several other valleys among the ridges of the mountains.

Though these vales are in many parts extremely proper for agriculture, very little grain is sown in them; the inhabitants being chiefly employed in grazing horses, and sheep on the Alps; and with these cattle they also feed many thousand heads of horned cattle, carry on a profitable trade, and likewise export cheese, butter, and tallow. On these mountains are large woods of pine, with crystal pits. The high mountain named Blattenberg yields vast quantities of slate, which being polished and formed into tables, or put into wooden frames for writing, are exported to all parts. Of all the mountains in Switzerland, that named Freyberg affords the safest refuge for the chamois goats; only twelve sworn hunters being permitted to shoot them, and these at no other time but between St. James's day and Martinmas.

Among the Alps are several mineral waters and baths. The largest river here is the Linth, which issues out of two rivulets in this canton, and traversing the country from south to north, receives the Sernft, which is formed by the conflux of several small streams. The Lontsch issues from the lake of Clonthal, and the Sees is the outlet of the lake of Wallenstadt, which extends from west to east no less than four hours, though it is not one in breadth. Towards the east and west it lies quite open; but its north and south sides are terminated by very high craggy rocks and precipices. The barks and passage boats receive great advantage from the remarkable regularity of the winds in these parts, which early in the morning set in with an easterly breeze, and thus continue till about ten o'clock, when a calm takes place till noon, and then is succeeded by a westerly wind till sun-set; when if the weather be fair, the easterly breeze then returns. This regular succession of the winds is only interrupted by a north blast, and that not often. These phenomena, however, are accounted for from the situation of the lake.

The greatest part of the inhabitants are Calvinists, the rest are Papists, and in many parishes they are intermixed, yet they live peaceably enough, divine service being in many places alternately performed by both in the very same churches; so that on one Sunday the mass begins, after which a curtain being drawn before the altar, the Calvinist service follows; the next Sunday the Calvinists begin, and when they have done, mass is performed. To the Calvinists belong thirteen parishes; but there is only one that can be stiled entirely Popish, though at Glaris and Linthal, they have their ecclesiastics equally with the Calvinists, and are under the bishop of Constance.

The number of males in this canton above sixteen years of age, amount to somewhat more than four thousand. The principal business and trade of the inhabitants is grazing, though they are not without manufactures, as those of cotton, and a kind of cloth called matzen.

The arms of this canton are gules, a pilgrim bearing a staff, sable.

Its government is democratical, the supreme power being lodged in the court called landesgemeine, which is held once a year in a field without the town of Glaris, and to this council the males of both religions, who are upwards of sixteen years of age, have admittance. Besides these, each religion has its particular landesgemeine, which are likewise held annually in the open fields. The principal persons in the whole country are the landamman and the stadtholder, both of whom are alternately elected from among the Calvinists and Papists, with this distinction, that the Calvinist landamman holds his office for three years, and that of the Papists two; but with the stadtholder it is the reverse, the Calvinist stadtholder continuing in office only two years, and the Popish three. The landamman usually summons the general and particular counsellors of his sect: the like is done by the stadtholder, and each presides in the courts he thus summons. The landamman keeps the seal of the canton; but when business calls him out of his territories, delivers it to the stadtholder, who is president during his absence. Next to the chief officers is the banneret, who is alternately elected from among the two religions, and holds his office during life. The court called the landrath is composed of sixty-three members, forty-eight of whom are Calvinists, and fifteen Popish, and, when necessary, is held in the town of Glaris, the landamman sitting as president; and each sect has its particular landrath, for their separate concerns: the landrath of each religion has also the criminal jurisdiction over the votaries of such religion; but if the delinquent be a foreigner, he is tried by both landraths.

Military affairs are managed by the provincial captains, provincial ensigns, masters of artillery, and bannerets. The Calvinists have their own council of war, consisting of seven members.

The only town in this canton is,

Glaris, or Glarus, in Latin and Italian Glarona, situated between the lofty mountain of Glarnich, and the river Linth, in the forty-seventh degree north latitude, and in the ninth degree eight minutes east longitude, and is a large and handsome place. The Protestants and Papists live very peaceably together, and perform divine worship in the same church one after another, in the manner already observed; but the Calvinists are by far the most numerous. The landraths and courts of justice are usually held in the town-house, and just without the town is the place where the annual landesgemeine of the two sects are held. This town has been several times destroyed by fire.

S E C T. XII.

Of the Canton of BASIL.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers; with a particular Description of the City of Basil and its Government.

THE canton of Basil is bounded on the east by the Frickthal; on the south by the territory of Solothurn; on the west by the same country, the diocese of Basil, and the Sundgau; on the north by the lordship of Roteln in the margravate of Baden-Durlach, extending about twenty-four miles from north to south, and twenty-one from east to west.

The country from Basil to Lichstal abounds in corn and wine; but beyond it is extremely mountainous, cold, and barren, except the vallies on these mountains, where are the most beautiful pastures covered with cattle. In the city of Basil are several medicinal springs, and in the rest of the country baths of approved virtue. The Rhine waters the north-east side of the canton, and the other rivers are the Ergets, the Birs, the Birsig, or Birsac, and the Wesen.

In the whole canton are three towns, which have constantly persevered in the profession of the protestant religion, ever since its introduction in 1529. It contains twenty-seven parishes, divided into three deaneries.

The

The arms of the city of Basil are argent, a figure fable, by some supposed to be the ferril of a pilgrim's staff, and by others a fish-hook.

Its government is aristocratical. The provincial militia is divided into two regiments, each consisting of ten companies and a troop of dragoons; to each regiment is a colonel, a lieutenant-colonel, and a major.

The principal places in this canton are the following,

Basil, or Basél, in French Basle and Bâle, and in Latin Basilea, is the capital of the whole canton, and the largest city in all Switzerland. It is seated in a fertile and delightful country, on the banks of the Rhine, on the confines of Alsace and the empire, in the forty-seventh degree thirty-six minutes north latitude, and in the seventh degree thirty-six minutes east longitude.

The Rhine, which divides it into two parts, called the Greater and Less, is here joined by the little rivers Birs and Birsac; the bridge over the Rhine which unites the two towns, is six hundred feet in length. On a tower which stands on the side is a crowned Moor's head, which every minute thrusts out its long red tongue: but this droll figure does not, however, says Mr. Keysser, give such a disgust, as a filthy representation in a little cabin standing on the middle of the bridge, before which the public prostitutes, at their being banished the town, are brought to undergo some ridiculous ceremonies. The city, which lies on the German side of the Rhine, is called the Lesser Town, and has its own jurisdiction; but is subordinate to the Great Town, and has no fortifications. The Great Town has five suburbs, and besides its walls, is fortified with towers, moats, and four bastions; but is not of any great strength. Basil contains two hundred and twenty streets, six market-places, and ninety-nine wells. Its situation is uneven, most of the streets being crooked, and paved with sharp stones, which are designed for the surer footing of the horses that carry loads up hill. In this part lie the three principal churches and parishes, the minster, or antient cathedral, St. Peter's, and that of St. Leonard. To the minster belong four other parishes, the priests of which also assist in that cathedral. The French perform divine service in the church of a Dominican convent.

The Teutonic order have a commandery here, as have also the order of St. John near the church of that name; the house belonging to the order is inhabited by the bailiff, and sometimes by the commander himself. The town-house, which stands on the river Birsac, is supported by very large pillars, and its great hall is finely painted by the celebrated Holbein. Those who are admirers of pictures should not neglect to take a view of these, and particularly of the Dance of Death, on a covered wall near the French church, representing a long train of persons of all sorts, holding one another by the hand, Death leading the dance. Holbein was a native of Basil, and having learned his art without any instructor, had a peculiar turn in all his pieces. The university, which was founded in 1459, has a very curious physic-garden, which contains the choicest exotics, and adjoining to the library is a valuable museum well furnished with natural and artificial curiosities, and particularly with medals and paintings; and in the cabinets of Erasmus and Amerbach, which also belong to the university, there are no less than twenty original pieces of Holbein; for one of which, representing a dead Christ, a thousand ducats have been offered. The Helvetic society apply their attention to the improvement of science, besides which there is a philological society of Germans.

Near the minster, and close by the Rhine, is a spot of ground regularly planted with trees, commanding a most beautiful and extensive prospect. On this spot stands an academy, in which are no less than eight classes. St. Peter's square is planted with elm and lime trees, and there the celebrated doctor Feesch built his noble museum, which is greatly admired by persons of literary curiosity, ordering, that, on the failure of civilians in his family, it should fall to the university. The margrave of Baden-Durlach has a stately palace in the new suburb, which contains a most splendid chamber of curiosities in art, nature, antiquities, and paintings.

In the little town is the parish church of St. Theodore, with a Carthusian convent, that was originally a nun-

nery of Clarists, though it now serves as an orphan-house and a house of correction. In the church of this convent morning prayers are read and sermons preached, as likewise in a building that was once an Augustine nunnery.

The supreme power is lodged in the great council, which is composed of two hundred and sixteen persons, under two burgomasters and two wardens of trades. Out of each of the fifteen companies of the greater city are elected fifteen representatives, and out of each of the three companies of the little city twelve. The lesser council is composed of six members and a president, who are selected from among the great council. Thus the four principal persons, in conjunction with the greater and lesser councils, form together an assembly of two hundred and eighty persons. The other colleges here are the privy-council, in which are discussed all affairs of importance, relating either to war or the police; and the opinion of this council is laid before the lesser, and after that before the greater council: the dreyerherren, which superintend the city revenues and treasury, as also the disbursements of the government: the supreme inspectors of the churches and schools within the town and country, who are composed of three members of the lesser council and the city recorder; besides which each town has a particular court for the determination of civil causes.

All military affairs in the city are under the inspection of two principal commissaries at war, who are always the two burgomasters, an inferior commissary, a town lieutenant, and town major, assisted by the captains of the guards in the great town and the five suburbs, and likewise by those of the lesser town.

A great trade is carried on at Basil in ribbons. The police is under great regulations; most of the offices being bestowed by lot, and none but qualified persons admitted candidates: but a person can seldom hold a lucrative employment above five years. No person is to wear silver or gold lace, under the penalty of three guilders for every offence; and all unmarried women are prohibited wearing silk cloaths. The garb of the counsellors, ministers, and professors, with their stiff ruffs, long beards, and high crowned hats, give them a very solemn and singular appearance.

Here is a remarkable singularity, which is, that the clocks in the city of Basil are always an hour faster than those of the country; the reason for which is variously related. Among others, it is said, that it was in order to bring the fathers of the famous council which sat here earlier together, for the quicker dispatch of business. However, the custom still continues. Salmon comes up to this part of the Rhine to spawn, and bits of gold are sometimes found in this neighbourhood, which shew that there are mines of gold near the river; but it does not appear that they have yet been discovered.

About a quarter of a league without the city is a lazaret house, with a church on the spot where, in 1444, sixteen hundred Swiss bravely fought for ten hours a French army under the command of the Dauphin, consisting of thirty thousand; the former were all killed except sixteen, but not before they had slain six thousand of the enemy.

SECT. XIII.

The Canton of FREYBURG.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers: the Languages spoken there: the Government and military Force of the Country; with a particular Description of the City of Freyburg, and of a remarkable Hermitage.

THE canton of Freyburg, or Friburg, is encompassed on all sides by the canton of Bern, a few places only excepted, which border on the Neuenburg lake, and some districts belonging in common to Bern and Freyburg. Its length from north to south is near forty-seven miles, and its breadth from east to west about twenty-seven.

The north-west parts of the country are less mountainous than the others, and consequently produce plenty of corn and fruit, and even some wine; but though the other parts are mountainous, they have good pastures, on

on which feed large herds of cattle. The inhabitants export great quantities of cheese to France and other countries.

The principal rivers of this canton are the Sanen, the Sanfen, and the Broye, or Bruw; the first of which rises in the canton of Bern, and in the territory of Freyburg receives the second at its issue out of a lake, after which it joins the Aar in the territory of Bern. The third rises in this country, and having successively traversed the territories of Bern and Freyburg enters the Murter lake, from whence it issues again, but at length both its stream and name are lost in the lake of Neuenburg.

In this canton are seven towns, the inhabitants of which speak a kind of Patois, or a corrupt medley of German and French; but in the town of Freyburg the pure German prevails among persons of rank, that language being used in the council in all public instruments, and in the two churches; it is also commonly spoke in a small part of the town that lies towards Bern. The German likewise prevails in several parts of the canton, but the Patois is used in the greatest part.

Both the town and the country are entirely Popish, and under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Lausanne, who resides at Freyburg. The whole canton includes under it a hundred and four parishes, which are ranged under their respective deaneries. In 1481 this canton was received into the perpetual union of the Helvetic body, at which time it formed the ninth in rank; but on the accession of Basil it voluntarily degraded itself to the tenth.

The arms of the town are party per fesse, sable and argent.

The military affairs are under the direction of a commander in chief, assisted by seven other persons. The burghers of the town of Freyburg are divided into four companies; but the country militia constitute eleven regiments.

The most remarkable places in this canton are the following:

Freyburg, or Fribourg, seated on the river Sane in a deep valley among high rocks, and so irregularly that the inhabitants are forced to climb up several parts of it to a prodigious height; but this inconvenience is counterbalanced by a singular advantage; for having several reservoirs on the tops of the mountains, if a fire breaks out in any part of the town, they, by opening a sluice, convey a river to the very spot where it is immediately wanted. The town is on all sides environed with a wall and towers, though on the north, south, and eastern sides the rocks might have supplied the place of those works. The four parts into which it is divided are named the Burg, the Aue, the New Town or square, and the Spital or Square. In the first is the collegiate church of St. Nicholas, in which the service is performed in German; the states-office; the council-house, which stands on a high rock, and commands a grand prospect, particularly of the delightful course of the Sone; a nunnery; and a Capuchin convent, which contains a seminary for philosophy and divinity. Mr. Addison, speaking of this convent, says, that he here saw the Escargatoire, which is a square place boarded in and filled with a vast quantity of large snails, which, when well dressed, are esteemed excellent food. The floor is strewn about half a foot deep with several kinds of plants, among which the snails nestle all the winter. At Lent they open their magazines and, take out of them the best meagre food in the world; for there is no dish of fish which they esteem comparable to a ragout of snails.

In the second division is the church of St. John the Minor, together with the convent of Augustine Eremites, in the church of which the service is performed in German. Here is also the hospital of St. James, which likewise contains a church.

In the third division is the church of St. John the Elder, with a commandery-house of that order adjoining to it, a Franciscan nunnery, and a very large granary.

In the fourth division is the parochial church of Notre Dame, with a convent of bare-footed friars which serves as a kind of academy for philosophy, the mathematics, and divinity: in this convent the service is performed in French. There are also the fine college of Jesuits, said to be the most beautiful in Switzerland; but it stands

so high, that the ascent to it consists of some hundred steps, and here the French language is also used in the church; an Ursuline nunnery; the great hospital, which contains a church; the arsenal; the defensional office; the salt-office, and the mint; the manufacture-house, and other public edifices.

The government is aristocratical, the patritii, or certain privileged families, to the number of seventy-one, being alone qualified to sit in the lesser or greater council; but before even these can have a share in the government, they must be free of one of the thirteen companies of the city. The supreme power is lodged in the lesser and greater council of two hundred members, that is, in twenty-four lesser counsellors, and a hundred and twelve burghers. The head person in the state is named the prætor, or avoyer; and of these there are two, who act annually by turns. The senior in the lesser council is always stadtholder, and at the same time colonel of the canton, and takes place next to the prætor. Every three years a burgomaster is chosen from among the lesser council, in order to attend to the behaviour of the burghers, and he has the power of punishing some crimes by his own personal authority. The general and upper *commissarii*, of whom one or two may be elected from among the lesser or greater council, superintend the fiefs, jurisdictions, lordships, and other possessions of the state. The privy-council is composed of the four bannerets, and six members from each of the four divisions of the town. This court generally sits four times a year, and, besides electing the members of the great council, is empowered to lay before the government such schemes as are thought of advantage to the public. The town court is vested with the civil jurisdiction of the city, and by order of the lesser council, to which alone the power of life and death belongs, hears also criminal cases. The country court decides all contests and processes among the inhabitants of the antient territory. The court of appeals receives appeals from most of the provinces, and its decrees are decisive, except the party cast can make it appear to the bannerets and the recorder that his honour, fortune, and life, depend on the issue; upon which he is allowed to appeal to the greater or lesser council.

About two leagues from Freyburg is an hermitage, that is esteemed the greatest curiosity in these parts. It is situated in the most agreeable solitude imaginable, among woods and rocks, which at first sight dispose a man to be serious. In this place an hermit had lived twenty-five years, who with his own hand had formed in the rock a pretty chapel, a sacristy, a chamber, parlour, refectory, kitchen, cellar, and other conveniences. Notwithstanding the rooms lie very deep, his chimney is carried up through the whole rock, to the height of ninety feet. He had also cut the side of the rock into a flat for a garden, and by laying upon it waste earth, which he found in several of the neighbouring parts, made such a spot of it as furnished out a kind of luxury for an hermit. In short, seeing drops of water distilling from several parts of the rock, he by following the veins made two or three fountains in the bowels of the mountain that at once served his table, and watered his little garden.

The chapel is sixty-three feet long, thirty-six broad, and twenty-two in height. The sacristy, or vestry, is twenty-two feet both ways, and fourteen in height. The steeple is seventy feet high to the top of the rock, and six in breadth. The saloon, or anti-chamber, between the chapel and the refectory, is forty-four feet by thirty-four. The refectory, in which are his bed and stove, are twenty-one feet long. The hall, or parlour, is thought to be the most surprising performance, it being twenty-eight paces in length, twelve in breadth, and twenty feet high, with four openings representing large windows. At one end of it was his cabinet, with his little library. The cellar is ten feet deep, and twenty-five long.

This hermit, whose name was John de Pre, began to hollow the rock at thirty years of age, and said he was twenty-five years in compleating it, having had no sort of assistance in this work from any person but his valet. The river Sane flows by the foot of the rock, and round this wonderful hermitage is an easy descent covered by

part of a delightful forest, in which are shady woods and avenues.

It is impossible to view this structure without a mixture of concern for the fate of its first owner, a man of such contrivance and industry, who carrying back some young people that came to visit him on the consecrating of his chapel in the year 1708, was drowned in the river Sane, on which he used once a week to fetch necessaries from the town in a little boat.

SECT. XIV.

The Canton of SOLOTHURN.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. The Religion of the Inhabitants, and a Description of the City of Solothurn.

THE canton of Solothurn is bounded on the east and south by the canton of Bern, on the west by the territory of Basil and the diocese of that name, and on the north by the canton of Basil, extending on both sides the river Aar about twelve miles from north to south, and ten where broadest from east to west.

It consists partly of Mount Jura, and partly of a level country. Its soil is tolerably fertile, particularly in the level parts, which yield grain and fruit, and in some of the districts of this canton are fine woods, pastures, and vineyards. The rivers of this canton are the Aar, or Aren, which is joined by the greater Emmat.

In the whole canton are two towns and four villages. The established religion is Popery, except in one of the districts, which is named Bucheckberg, where the inhabitants are Calvinists, and the ministers are nominated by the city of Bern. The Popish churches here are distributed among the dioceses of Constance, Basil, and Lausanne.

Solothurn can raise ten thousand men. It was received into the Helvetic body in the year 1481, and is in rank the eleventh canton.

Its arms are party per fesse gules and argent, and its government aristocratical.

Solothurn, in Latin Soludurum, and in French Soleurre, the capital of the canton, is situated in the forty-seventh degree seventeen minutes north latitude, and in the seventh degree thirty-five minutes east longitude, in a fertile and pleasant country on the river Aar, by which it is divided into unequal parts, and the city is surrounded on both sides that river with new fortifications of free-stone at a vast expence. Its best fortifications are, however, the high mountains that lie within its neighbourhood. It contains a collegiate church, with an abbey dedicated to St. Ursina, a very fine Jesuits college, a convent of barefooted monks, and an arsenal. The Jesuits church is the finest modern building in Switzerland, and is famous for its paintings, stucco-work, and frontispiece, to which Lewis XIV. gave ten thousand livres. At a small distance from it stood the old cathedral, on the ascent to which are two antique pillars, which, by their proportion, seem to be of the Tuscan order, and belonged to an old heathen temple dedicated to Hermes. The streets are large and adorned with fountains, and the neighbouring country is planted with very fine walks.

This city is the usual residence of the French envoy to the cantons, and its burghers are ranged into eleven companies, out of which both the greater and lesser councils are elected and filled up; and, in short, their government is much like that of Freyburg.

The lands belonging to this city are divided into eleven districts, in which are a considerable number of populous villages.

SECT. XV.

The Canton of SCHAFFHAUSEN.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce. A Description of the City of Schaffhausen, with its Government; and of a remarkable Cataract.

SCHAFFHAUSEN is the most northern of all the cantons of Switzerland, and is for the most part sur-

rounded by Swabia, the canton of Zurich, and the Black-forest; extending about twenty miles from east to west, and twelve from north to south.

This country produces a good deal of corn, though not sufficient for the inhabitants, who are supplied with what they want from Swabia. It abounds in pasture, hay, and fruit, and exports a great deal of red wine. Instead of lofty mountains it has fertile eminences. The Rhine is the only river of any note in this canton.

In the whole country there are but two towns. The inhabitants are of the Calvinist religion, and the parishes, beside those of Schaffhausen, are nineteen in number. In 1501 this canton was received into the perpetual alliance, and thus became the twelfth canton.

The arms of Schaffhausen are argent, a ram salient and fable, with a crown or.

The town of Schaffhausen, in Latin Scaphusium and Probatopolis, is seated on the Rhine, over which it has a handsome stone bridge, in the forty-seventh degree forty-seven minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree forty-six minutes east longitude. The churches here are those of St. John, which has the reputation of being the largest in all Switzerland; All Saints church, called the minister, once belonged to a Benedictine abbey, and having been enlarged and beautified at the city's expence, is esteemed a fine structure; and on the largest bell, which is said to weigh ten tons, and to be thirty feet round, is this inscription:

Vivos voco, mortuos plango, fulgura frango.

That is,

“ I summon the living, bewail the dead, and break
“ lightning.”

For in the ages of superstition it was imagined, that bells derived a power of dispersing tempests, supposed to be raised by evil spirits, from the baptizing of them, which was performed with a deal of shew and ceremony. There are likewise two other churches. Besides these buildings it has a *schola illustris*. It was antiently called Schifhausen, or Barge-house, as here the boats coming down the Rhine from the lake of Constance were obliged to land their goods, on account of the cataracts at Lauffen, at which place they were put on board other vessels; but its name was changed to Schaffhausen, which signifies sheepfold, it having probably carried on a considerable trade in sheep.

Most of the houses are painted on the outside, and are as commodious as handsome; the streets are spacious and clean, adorned with several fountains, that have generally pillars in their basons, and statues of William Tell, the famous archer, or some other deliverers of their country.

At the upper end of the town stands a large tower, with a good number of guns mounted; but which serve more for ornament than defence. On the highest ground of all is a citadel, which commands the town, with thick walls, two wells, an arsenal, and lodgments under ground bomb-proof, capacious enough to contain two thousand men. The town itself is well fortified with walls and towers even next the Rhine. Without the walls are three suburbs, in one of which is a plentiful spring, and near it is a large deep quarry.

The burghers of Schaffhausen are computed at two thousand; the arsenal is far from being considerable, yet, on any emergency, sufficient to arm the townsmen, and other subjects, who, otherwise, are not without necessary arms, every common inhabitant, or peasant, going to church with his sword by his side: and whoever appears before the magistrate without that weapon and his cloak, incurs a severe penalty. Over great part of the district of Mount Jura, particularly in the canton of Bern, the men go to church not only with their swords, but bayonets and firelocks, which, during the service, they either keep by them, or hang up in a particular corner of the church; an usage, not improbably, derived from the frequent commotions of former times, and the wars with the Burgundians, against whom, as an adjacent and dangerous enemy, it behoved them to be continually upon their guard.

The

The supreme power in Schaffhausen is lodged in the lesser and greater councils, the former of which is composed of twenty-four, and the latter of sixty members, an equal number of whom are chosen out of the twelve companies of the town, the first of which consists of six noble families. The principal persons in the state are two burgomasters, who enter upon their office alternately every year, and next to these is the stadtholder. The privy-council consists of seven persons, and the town-court of twenty-five. The matrimonial-court is composed of the stadtholder, five counsellors, and three ministers.

The principal trade of this city consists in unlading of vessels, and the exporting of linen, copper, and other metals, by means of the Rhine.

The city entered into a league with Zurich and St. Gall in 1424, and with Zurich, Bern, Lucern, Schweitz, &c. in 1501, and in 1529 embraced the doctrines of the Reformation.

About a quarter of a league from Schaffhausen is a tremendous cataract on the Rhine, where that river precipitates from a rock said to be seventy feet high, and ninety paces in breadth. Even before the Rhine reaches this cataract, the ground is very rocky; and at the fall divides itself into three streams, of which the green beds and silver vortices make an agreeable contrast to the beholder; but at the same time his mind cannot help being filled with a mixture of dread and amazement at the roar of the waters: on the south, or the Zurich side, is the most impetuous breach, the violence of the fall altering the water, as it were, to a white dust, part of which, like a light cloud or mist, hovers in the air, and with the intercepted sun-beams forms a variety of most brilliant rainbows.

S E C T. XVI.

The Canton of APPENZEL.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers: the Religion of the Inhabitants, their Manufactures, and military Strength; with a concise Account of the Town of Appenzel.

APPENZEL is bounded on the east by the Rheinthal, on the southward by the canton of Zurich and that of Schweitz, to the westward by Tockenbourg, and to the northward by the territory of the town and abbey of St. Gall, extending thirty miles in length, and about twenty-four in breadth.

The country along the Rheinthal is very fruitful, but that bordering on the high chain of hills to the southward is rugged and mountainous; yet its natural sterility has been overcome by the persevering industry of the laborious inhabitants, in such a manner, that scarce any barren spots are to be seen; at least they afford good pasture; but their agriculture is both chargeable and toilsome. The country produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, beans, and flax in abundance and of extraordinary goodness, though they are too frequently injured by the frost in the spring. This canton also produces a sufficient quantity of wine to supply the whole country; but the white wine made here is tart, though the red is good; and there are such plenty of fruit, that vast quantities of cyder and perry are made here. Wood abounds every where, so that the inhabitants are enabled to supply the adjacent countries.

This canton abounds in mineral waters, and the rivers and brooks in most parts contain plenty of fish, particularly of fine trouts. The principal river is the Sitter, which issues out of the Alpersee, the largest lake in the whole country, and being increased by the rivulets called the White-water, the Weishach, and the Urnach, enters the territories of the abbot of St. Gall. The Aach, another river that rises in this country, after traversing the territories of the abbot of St. Gall, where it is called the Goldach, discharges itself into the lake of Constance.

There is only one town in the whole canton, and only eight villages; the other dwellings of the inhabitants being scattered about. There are, however, twenty

parishes, of which four, with two chapels of ease, are Popish, and nineteen Calvinist. From the year 1522, in which the Protestant religion was first introduced till 1588, very great animosity subsisted between the country people on account of religion, till, by the mediation of the other twelve cantons, peace was restored. Those of the Romish church are in spiritual matters under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Constance.

The Protestants annually weave many thousand pieces of linen, which are either vended at home, or at Trogen, St. Gall, and other places, and from thence exported into France, Italy, Spain, and Germany. The thread spun by the women at Appenzel, and those beyond the Sitter is so fine, as to sell for upwards of sixteen guilders the pound. Great quantities of thread are also bought up in the Rheinthal, Tockenbourg, the Thurgau, and Swabia, and manufactured here. The other considerable exports of this canton are cheese, cattle both fat and lean, horses, wood, and charcoal.

The arms of this canton are argent, a bear erect sable, with paws gules.

The common defence of the country is not only provided for by means of a war-office; but every man is to furnish himself with a musket, powder, and ball. Both the young and old are exercised at certain periods, and their arms inspected from house to house. In each parish are five draughts of their young men ranged under commission and non-commission officers, who are always ready to march on the first notice. This canton is able to bring a considerable force into the field, and next to Bern, Zurich, Lucern, and Freyburg, is the most powerful of the whole confederacy. The Calvinists are three times the number of the Papists, the soldiery of the latter not exceeding three thousand; whereas those of the former amount to ten thousand.

The principal place in this canton is Appenzel, in Latin called Abbatis Cella, which name it obtained from an abbot's cell, built here in the eighth century. It is situated in a delightful valley, on the bank of the river Sitter, in the forty-seventh degree thirty-six minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree one minute east longitude, thirty-one miles to the east of Zurich. It has one parish church, with a convent of Capuchins, a nunnery of Clarists, an armoury, and a town-house: here also the antient general record-office of the whole canton is kept, and the courts of justice are held.

We have now laid before the reader as distinct a view as we were able of the thirteen cantons, and shall proceed to those bailiwicks, or governments, which, though not within any of the above cantons, are jointly possessed by two or more of them; and shall then proceed to describe the associated countries.

S E C T. XVII.

Of the Places subject to the Thirteen Cantons, and first of Thurgau: its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers; the Manner in which it was obtained by the Swiss; with its Government, and a Description of the Cities of Frauenfeld and Arbon.

THE bailiwick of Thurgau, or Thurgaw, is bounded on the east by the lake of Constance; on the south by the countries belonging to the prince and abbot of St. Gall; on the west by the cantons of Zurich and Schaffhausen; and on the north by Swabia and the Lower lake, which by some is held to be a part of the lake of Constance.

Though this country is somewhat mountainous towards the south, yet it there affords rich pastures, and its other parts, which approach nearer to plains, produce plenty of grain, with vegetables and fruit of all kinds, as also wine. The supreme jurisdiction over that half of the lake of Constance which borders on this country, belongs to those cantons that are sovereigns of the Thurgau.

Its principal river is the Thur, which gives name to the country, and flows out of the territory of the abbot of St. Gall, after which it receives the Sitter, and being

ing at length joined by the Murk, passes on to the canton of Zurich.

The country is populous and well cultivated, containing six towns, a great number of seats, and upwards of one hundred and seventy villages. About one third of the inhabitants are Papists, and in church affairs subject to the bishop of Constance. The other two-thirds, who, ever since the year 1542, have been Calvinists, are divided into forty-nine parishes, which are ranged under three deaneries.

The Thurgau is a very antient bailiwick, which in 1460 was in the possession of the house of Austria; but in that year the Swiss being at war with arch-duke Sigismund, wrested this country from him, and by the peace concluded the following year at Constance, it was confirmed to them. The cantons to which the sovereignty of this country belong are, the eight old cantons of Zurich, Bern, Lucern, Uri, Schwitz, Unterwald, Zug, and Glaris. These eight every two years alternately appoint a bailiff, who resides at Frauenfeld; and since the year 1499, the cantons of Freyburg and Solothurn have also obtained a seat in its criminal court.

Of the places within this country, some are immediately under the eight cantons; but the greatest part belong to spiritual and temporal justiciaries, who in their respective lordships and places, are possessed of the lower jurisdiction, and every year hold a meeting at Weinfelden, in which an officer presides who is elected by the cantons from among the persons proposed by the justiciaries out of their own body.

The principal places in this bailiwick are the following:

Frauenfeld, in Latin Gynopedium, is seated on an eminence near the river Murk, over which it has a bridge, at about an hour's distance from the place where it joins the Thur. In the mansion-house here resides the bailiff of Thurgau. The greatest part of the inhabitants are Calvinists, and within the town are two churches, one for each sect; but the mother-church stands at a small distance, at a place called Oberkirch, where also the Popish priest resides, and the dead of both communions are interred. In the council-house are usually held the general meetings of the cantons for auditing the annual accounts, especially for those cantons that are possessed of the regency of the German districts of Thurgau, the Reinthal, &c. Here is also a Capuchin convent, which contains a church.

The regency consists of a lesser council, composed of twelve members, and a greater council of thirty, including the above twelve. Two parts of these councils are of the Calvinist religion, and one Popish. The principal persons in the council are the prætors, one of whom is always a Protestant, and the other a Papist, who act alternately. These two prætors with a Calvinist burgher, all chosen by the whole body of the burghers, are stiled the three counsellors.

Arbon, or Arben, a town in the prefecture of the same name, is situated on the lake of Constance, and is supposed to be the Arbor Felix of Antoninus. Most of the inhabitants are Calvinists; but the rest, a few Lutheran families excepted, are all Papists. It has but one church, which the Calvinists and Papists make use of alternately, and the Lutherans also attend the divine worship with the former. In the mansion-house resides the bailiff belonging to the bishop of Constance, who has a seat both in the council and the town court, whenever cases of trespasses, or life and death are to be tried there; on occasion of enacting any new laws, or issuing a new edict; but has no vote, the civil and criminal jurisdiction being vested solely in the town. The president both of the council and town court is stiled the amman, who is nominated by the bishop, and every year presented to the whole body of the people by that prelate's bailiff. This officer must be a Papist; but has no vote. The town council is composed of six Calvinist, and a like number of Popish members; but the town clerk is always a Protestant. This council has the direction of the affairs of the town, and takes cognizance of every thing punishable by the laws. Its members are annually elected in the presence of the town amman

and clerk, out of the counsellors and deputies of both communions, and confirmed by the bishop of Constance.

SECT. XVIII.

Of the Bailiwicks of Rheinthal and Sargans, subject to the Swiss Cantons; with a particular Description of the Baths of Pfeffers.

THE bailiwick of the Rheinthal, or Rhein Vale, lies on the Rhine, which is its eastern boundary, and in this part enters the lake of Constance; to the southward it borders on the canton of Zurich; to the westward on the canton of Appenzel, on which side also a small tract of it terminates on the territory of the abbot of St. Gall; and to the northward it is bounded by the lake of Constance. It is divided into the Upper and Under Rhein Vale.

The soil is fertile, and produces a great deal of excellent wine, the first vines being planted here so long ago as about the year 918. At the foot of the Camor or Gamor-hill, in the Upper Rhein Vale, is a famous crystal-pit, in which are found many thousand quintals of yellow, brown, and white crystal, all hard and transparent.

In this whole tract are only two towns. The greatest part of the inhabitants are Calvinists, and compose nine parishes, whose ministers are chosen from the university of Zurich.

The inhabitants of Appenzel purchased this land-gravate in 1460; but in 1490 were obliged to cede it to the cantons of Zurich, Lucern, Schwitz, and Glaris, which at the same time admitted those of Uri, Unterwald, and Zug, into a participation with them; as in 1500 they also did Appenzel; and in 1712 all the eight cantons concurred in paying the same mark of regard to Bern. Thus the territorial sovereignty belongs to nine different cantons, which alternately appoint a bailiff over it every two years, who resides at Rheinec; but the abbot of St. Gall enjoys half of the juridical power, and the greatest part of the revenues of the Upper Rhein Vale come into his coffers.

The whole country is divided into five courts, over each of which are two ammans, one appointed by the nine cantons, and the other by the abbot above-mentioned. The latter is also possessed of the lower jurisdiction in the Upper Rhein Vale, and in civil processes an appeal lies from the courts to the abbot's council at St. Gall.

The principal places in the Rheinthal are the following:

In the Upper Rheinthal is Altstetten, a small town, in which the abbey of St. Gall is possessed of the lower jurisdiction, and some particular prerogatives, which are exercised by an amman and twelve judges. The first of these officers is chosen out of three select persons among the burghers. From the courts in this town causes are removed to the aulic-council of St. Gall; and of the amercements, one third belongs to the regent cantons, one third to the abbey of St. Gall, and the other third to the town. At Altstetten is also held the criminal court for the Upper Rhein Vale, at which the twelve judges of the town assist, in conjunction with those of other courts. The inhabitants are intermixed, some being Calvinists, and others of the Romish church. In 1410 the town was sacked and laid waste by the Austrians, and it has never since recovered its former grandeur.

In the Lower Rhein Vale the only town is that of Rheinec, a small place seated on the Rhine, but the capital of the Rhein Vale, and the residence of the bailiff of the cantons. This officer dwells in the bailliage-house, the seat which stood above the town being fallen to ruin. In 1410 and 1445 this town was destroyed by fire.

The country of Sargans is seated on the Rhine near the country of the Grisons, and, though very mountainous, breeds great numbers of fat cattle, while the valleys produce grain and fruit. In the lofty mountain of

Gunz

Gunz are found three species of ore, black, red, and ash-coloured, which on fusion, after a proper mixture, without any other process, yield a genuine steel.

In this country are two towns, the inhabitants of which are partly Calvinists and partly Papists. The former have their ministers from the university of Zurich, and the latter in ecclesiastical affairs are under the bishop of Chur.

This country was antiently subject to the counts of Werdenberg, from whom it was alienated; but in 1436 reverted to them again. The people then entering into a perpetual community of rights with the city of Zurich, the count, in 1437, also formed a perpetual community of territorial rights with Schwitz and Glaris, and permitted the castles of Freudenberg and Neidberg to be garrisoned with Austrians. This alarming both the inhabitants of this country and the city of Zurich, the latter instantly marched two thousand men into the country, who laying siege to the two castles, took and demolished them. On this count Henry of Werdenberg mortgaged the whole country to the cantons of Schwitz and Glaris, for the sum of eighteen hundred florins, with a view of setting them at variance with Zurich. Accordingly they came to an open rupture, but a peace was soon concluded, and in 1485 George count of Werdenberg sold this country to the seven old confederate cantons, which in 1712 admitted Bern to a share of the regency. These eight cantons send in their respective turns a bailiff to Sargans.

The principal places in this country are,

Sargans, the capital, which is seated near the Rhine, and is the residence of the bailiff sent by the cantons, who chooses an avoyer, who is always a burgher of the town.

Pfeffers, in Latin Fabarium, and in French Faviere, is famous for its rich Benedictine abbey and its baths. The former stands on the river Caminge, about two leagues from Sargans on a high mountain, and its abbots are stiled princes of the empire; yet the cantons, being sovereigns of the country, are both inspectors and protectors of the abbey and its territories. The baths are seated in a valley at the bottom of two steep rocks or mountains, through which the river Tamin rushes down with a frightful noise. The crags of the rocks advance so as to form a kind of arch. The descent to the baths was first by ropes, as into a well; afterwards a passage was made down to them by wooden bridges fastened to one another, and suspended between the rocks, and then with infinite labour they built the bagnios and lodging-rooms; but they were so darkened by the rocks, that they were forced to light up candles in them at noon-day. In 1629 these buildings were all burnt down, and next year the abbot caused others to be erected, in a pleasanter and more lightsome place, by cutting passages in the rock, erecting wooden bridges, where the earth was wanting, and making an aqueduct to bring the water from the spring to the bathing-rooms; so that now they have commodious lodgings, and always good company. The water is perfectly clear, without either taste or smell. It generally rises about the beginning of May, and goes quite away about the middle of September, except after very dry winters, when it does not rise till the middle or end of May, and then goes off later in the year. They are informed of its approach by little bubbles of water coming up in the great basin of the bath, and soon after it suddenly flows with a great noise with a stream sufficient to turn a mill. It is impregnated with the spirits of sulphur, nitre, vitriol, and of several metals, particularly gold. It is hot in the second degree, and good against several distempers, particularly obstructions of the brain and nerves, pains in the head, epilepsies, apoplexies, deafness, weak eyes, palsy, obstructions of the viscera, fistulas, ulcers, &c.

With respect to the abbey, though it is on a high mountain, it stands in the midst of a fine plain, shaded with woods, and intermixed with meadows. It was entirely destroyed by fire in 1665; but rebuilt with greater magnificence, and lined with black marble, streaked with white, from the ground-floor to the roof.

S E C T. XIX.

Of the Bailiwies of Gaster, Utnach, Gams, and the Town and District of Rapperschweil, subject to the Swiss Cantons.

GASTER, or Gastal, in Latin Castra, borders to the eastward on the country of Sargans; to the southward on the lake of Wallenstadt, and the cantons of Glaris and Schwitz; to the westward on Utnach; and to the northward on the territory of Tockenbourg. It is in some parts mountainous; but is very fertile. This country was mortgaged by the house of Austria in 1438 to the canton of Schwitz and Glaris, which still continue in possession of it. These two cantons, as sovereigns of the district, govern it by a bailiff, who holds his office two years, and is appointed by them in turns. With every new bailiff the people renew their homage, and that officer swears to maintain the liberties of the country. With respect to the canton of Glaris, it is observable, that when that canton nominates a bailiff, he is only chosen by the Papists out of their own body. His officers are an under-bailiff, who is elected by the regent cantons, with a treasurer, a recorder, a serjeant, and a messenger chosen by the people.

The country court is composed of nine judges, who, in conjunction with a bailiff, as president, annually hold three sessions in the town-house of Schanis to decide civil causes without appeal, and impose fines for petty trespasses; but in amercements for greater crimes, one half belongs to the town, and the other half to the regent cantons.

The principal place in this country is,

Schanis, or Schennis, a town situated on the banks of the Linth, or Lint. It has a church and council-house, with an abbey for ladies, the abbess of which is reckoned a princess of the empire; and though the ladies under her inspection are permitted to marry, yet she must devote herself to a single life. The patronage and sovereignty of this abbey, which has very large possessions, is vested in the two regent cantons.

The district of Utnach lies between Gaster, Tockenbourg, the cantons of Zurich and Schwitz, and the territory of the town of Rapperschweil. It was once a county of itself, which was mortgaged by the heirs of Frederic count Tockenbourg to the cantons of Schwitz and Glaris. The inhabitants of this district, as well as the former, are of the Romish religion; and the above cantons, every two years, appoint a new bailiff over it, who is presented to the people at Utnach; and upon this occasion they renew their homage.

It contains only Utnach, a small town, which has a prætor and council of its own, with five or six villages.

The county of Gams is very small, and lies between the counties of Werdenberg and Tockenbourg, and the lordship of Saxe. In 1497 the inhabitants put themselves under the protection of the cantons of Schwitz and Glaris, with the reserve, however, of their liberties; and it is, like the former, governed by a bailiff. It contains only a village or two, and a few scattered houses.

The town of Rapperschweil, with its precinct, terminates on the lake of Zurich, the canton of the same name, and Utnach.

The town of Rapperschweil, in Latin Ruperti Villa, stands on an eminence, near the above lake, over which it has a bridge eighteen hundred and fifty paces in length, reaching to a point of land which advances a great way into the lake. The town has some fortifications, with a pretty strong castle. The inhabitants both of the town and its precinct are of the Romish church, and in ecclesiastical affairs subject to the bishop of Chur, who has a Capuchin convent here. Its magistracy consists of the little and great council, the former of whom are composed of twelve, and the latter of twenty-four members. It was subject to the house of Austria, but in 1464 the inhabitants put themselves under the protection of the cantons of Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, and Glaris, with a reserve, however, of its liberties; yet these were at last seized, but in 1712 were restored, and the country

now remains under the sovereignty of Zurich, Bern, and Glaris.

SECT. XX.

Of the County of BADEN.

Its Situation, Rivers, and Produce. The Manner in which it became subject to the Swiss. Its Government, a Description of the City of Baden, and of its Baths.

THE county of Baden is seated in the Argau, or Ergow, being bounded on the west by the river Aar; on the north by the Rhine; and on the south and east by the canton of Zurich; though several villages belonging to it lie on the other side of the Aar and Rhine. The Limmat passes almost directly through the center of the country, and mingles with the Aar, which a little before its conflux with it is joined in this district by the Reus.

The whole territory in general abounds with fruit and grain, particularly on the Limmat and Aar, where it produces good wine: it likewise yields great quantities of good iron ore.

In this tract are only three towns. The greatest part of the inhabitants are Papists, under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Constance, and the rest are Calvinists, except a few Jews, who are tolerated.

This country antiently belonged to the dukes of Austria, but in 1415 the archduke Frederic being put under the ban by the empire, and excommunicated by the council of Constance, the inhabitants of Schwitz made themselves masters of the town and county; on which the emperor Sigismund mortgaged it the same year to the city of Zurich, for four thousand five hundred guilders; and that city, out of mere social friendship, admitted the cantons of Lucern, Schwitz, Underwald, Zug, and Glaris, into a share of the mortgage; and afterwards the city of Bern and the canton of Uri received the same mark of regard. These eight old confederate cities and cantons were proprietors of this county, over which they every two years alternately appointed a bailiff, till the Tockenburgh war in 1712, when the regent Catholic cantons of Lucern, Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, and Zug, having thrown a garrison into the town of Baden, the cities of Bern and Zurich made themselves masters of it, and the five above-mentioned Catholic cantons, at the peace of Arau, gave up their share in the regency of the county, Glaris alone excepted.

Thus the cities of Zurich and Bern possess seven parts of the regency of this county, the eighth belonging to Glaris. By virtue of this right the former nominate the bailiff fourteen years successively, after which Glaris takes its turn for two years. The above two cities have, however, each their option, whether the bailiff so nominated shall continue during seven years, or another be appointed at pleasure.

The bailiff resides in the town of Baden; but judges only in such civil causes as are brought before him by appeal from the courts which are held almost in every village, and the members are elected from among the several parishes, the under-bailiff sitting as president.

Baden, the capital of this country, is situated on the Limmat, over which it has a bridge, which, though of considerable length, has neither walls nor rails to it. The town is seated in the forty-seventh degree thirty-five minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree fifteen minutes east longitude, between two very high hills on both sides the river, and has two castles; the new one lies on the other side the Limmat, opposite the town, and is the residence of the bailiff, for whose convenience, in 1734, great improvements were made. The council-house consists of two buildings; in one, are held the assemblies of the cantons in general, who meet for that purpose in a very handsome room. The deputies of Zurich have the most honourable seat at a little table at the upper end of it, having the ambassadors of the foreign powers on the right and left, and the deputies of the other cantons ranged below them on both sides. They all sit and are covered, except the bailiff of Baden, and his deputy, who stand all the while uncovered; but

when the suffrages happen to be equal, the bailiff is allowed the casting vote. In the other building the particular councils and courts of Baden meet. To the Papists belong the church of the Assumption of the blessed Virgin, which serves as a canonry; a convent of Capuchins, and a nunnery; and they have another church on the road to the baths. The Calvinists assemble in a church built by them in 1714, which stands also on the road between the town and the baths.

These baths, to which the grandeur of this city, as well as its origin, is chiefly owing, were famous so long ago as about the time of our Saviour. These baths are about a quarter of a mile below the town, on both sides the river Limmat. The largest of them are at Imrapen, a pretty little borough, which consists of handsome houses seated on an eminence, and has a church dedicated to the Three Kings. It is computed that the water is conveyed by no less than sixty canals to the several inns and private houses. They come from several springs by the side of the river, and it is said from one in the midst of the river itself. The waters are hot in the third degree, being impregnated with a great deal of sulphur, with a mixture of allum and nitre. The springs always rise the same, without increase or decrease; but are thought to have most virtue about the beginning of May and September, because they then abound most with the flowers of the sulphur.

The water is good for drinking as well as bathing, and recommended for the cure of distempers, not only of the hot kind, as fevers; but for those proceeding from cold humours, pains in the head, vertigoes, &c. disorders in the breast and bowels, asthma, obstructions, and particularly the disorders peculiar to women. In the center of the place is the poor's bath, called St. Verena's, formed by a spring that rises in the very middle of the street. Here the poor people bathe in a place quite open to the street, and its water being esteemed a cure for sterility in women, it is said that scarce any young woman of distinction marries in this county without making it an article in the marriage-contract, that her husband shall take her every year to the baths of Baden, the ladies being here permitted to wear those dresses, and allowed those diversions, that are prohibited in other parts of Switzerland. Blainville observes, that those who bathe in the public baths, who are generally such as cannot afford the expence of the private ones, have their shoulders cupped in them, and that instead of cupping-glasses, they use large horns of rams or bucks; so that in these baths are sometimes seen two or three hundred naked persons of both sexes with horns on their shoulders. The people who stay at Imrapen for the use of the baths, are obliged to buy the water they use for drinking and dressing their victuals, it being brought from Baden, or some springs on the other side of the Limmat, the water of that river being always thick and muddy, from the rapidity of its course among the rocks and sand.

The harbour on the river belongs to the town; but the customs to the cantons of Zurich and Bern. The inferior magistrates are appointed by the governor or bailiff, and these, with the judges of each district, decide causes in his name; but capital causes are determined by twenty-four judges, who are chosen out of the whole county by the bailiff; but he has power to mitigate their sentence. The great council consists of forty members; but the lesser, which is only of twelve, and included in the greater, decide all causes civil and criminal; and these two councils choose the prætor, the treasurer, and other magistrates.

SECT. XXI.

Of that Part of the Countries subject to the Swiss termed the Free Provinces; their Situation, Extent, Produce, and Government; with a Description of the free independent Towns of Bremgarten and Mellingen.

THE Free Provinces contain a tract of land and certain villages lying along the river Rufs, which traverses all the eastern border of this country,

try, which is bounded towards the north by the county of Baden; to the eastward by the cantons of Zurich and Zug; to the southward by that of Lucern; and to the westward by the cantons of Lucern and Bern.

This country produces an extraordinary plenty of grain and fruit. The inhabitants are of the Popish religion, and in spiritual affairs are subject to the bishop of Constance. The inhabitants were formerly free; but at length became subject to the house of Austria; but the emperor Sigismund having in 1415, put Frederic arch-duke of Austria under the ban, and engaged the Helvetic confederates to invade his territories, the troops of Lucern alone took possession of the greatest part of the Free Provinces, and were for retaining them; but were opposed by the cantons of Zurich, Zug, Schwitz, Underwald, and Glaris, who claimed their respective shares, as having taken the field at the time they were conquered; it having been previously agreed, that what any one or more cantons should conquer after the others were in the field, should be esteemed conquered by the whole body. This produced a contest that lasted ten years, till at length, in 1425, Bern ceded the Free Provinces to the cantons of Zurich, Lucern, Schwitz, Underwald, and Glaris. Uri also resigned all share in them; but in 1532, that canton was admitted into the co-regency. At the second peace of Arau in 1712, it was agreed that a boundary line should be drawn from Lunkhofen to Farwangen, and that all below it should be the property of Bern and Zurich alone; but that all above it should continue in the possession of the seven cantons to which it had been hitherto subject, though Bern was afterwards received into the co-regency of the same department. Thus the Free Provinces have ever since been divided into the Upper and Lower.

The Upper Free Provinces lie to the south of the boundary line, and their government is vested in the eight old cantons of the confederacy, that is, in Zurich, Bern, Lucern, Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, Zug, and Glaris, the last of which every fourteen years appoints a bailiff over them. This officer, however, instead of residing there, visits them only in spring and autumn, when the courts are held; on which occasion he lodges at the convent of Muri, and the commandery of Hitzkirch, where, without any colleague or assistant, he decides all causes brought before him, and inflicts penalties on delinquents. In the interval also, if two parties desire his attendance, he repairs thither; but it is at their expence, as he does likewise on any important affairs that will not admit of a delay.

The first hearing of all civil causes is held at the courts of the several provinces, under the presidentship of the under-bailiffs. From these courts appeals are carried first to the bailiff, who passes his verdict singly; but if after this any of the parties think themselves aggrieved, they are at liberty to carry the cause before the deputies of the regent-cantons, and afterwards from these again to the cantons themselves.

In capital cases the recorder usually sends information of the criminals to the bailiff, who generally commissions him, in conjunction with an under-bailiff, to try them, for which purpose he orders a court to be held at the inn of Bremgarten, where he takes up his quarters, and in his absence, even to pass sentence on the convicts; but this sentence must be transmitted to him, either to be confirmed or mitigated. If it be death, he goes with the judges to the usual place of execution, which is in the high road between Bremgarten and Wollen, where the sentence is openly pronounced, after which the execution immediately follows.

The Lower Free Provinces, which lie on the north side of the boundary line, have since the year 1712, been under the sovereignty of Zurich and Bern, Glaris only retaining the seventh part, which belonged to it before, and every fourteenth year putting in a bailiff for two years; whereas Zurich and Bern are possessed of that privilege every two years alternately. The proceedings here, both in civil and criminal cases, and in every thing relating to the government, are the same as in the Upper Free Provinces.

We shall now give some account of the towns of Bremgarten and Mellingen, or Meldingen.

Bremgarten is situated on the river Reus, between the Lower Free Provinces and the county of Baden, eight miles to the north of Zug. The town is divided into Upper and Lower: the former stands high; but the latter, in which is the parish church, with a Franciscan nunnery, is seated on the bank of the Reus, over which it has a bridge, and at the farther end of it a Capuchin convent. It is a place of great trade, particularly in making paper. The inhabitants are of the Romish church, and within the diocese of Constance. The town, which was formerly imperial, has undergone several revolutions, and is now subject to the cantons of Zurich, Bern, and Glaris. The regency consists of the little and great council; the former is composed of twelve members, among whom are two prætors or avoyers, who, when they enter upon their office, take a formal oath of fidelity to the deputies of Bern, Zurich, and Glaris, at the next annual meeting for auditing the public accounts. The great council consists of forty members, out of whom is elected the town court, appeals from which are first carried to the little and great council, and from thence to the deputies of the regent cantons at the annual meeting; and lastly, even to the cantons themselves. All criminal and capital cases are immediately tried before both councils, the town being possessed of the privilege of beheading and hanging.

Mellingen is a little Popish town, with one church, seated on the river Rufs, and is at present subject to Zurich, Bern, and Glaris. The ingenious Mr. Addison, who visited this town, gives a more particular and a more entertaining account of it than any author we have seen. It contains, says he, an hundred citizens, and about one thousand souls. The government is modelled after that of the other cantons, as much as it is possible for so small a community to imitate those of a large extent: for which reason, though they have but little business, they have all the variety of officers and councils that are to be found in the greater states; they have a town-house, adorned with the arms of their protectors, and three councils; the great council of fourteen, the little council of ten, and the privy-council of three. The chief persons of the state are the two avoyers; and when our author was there, the reigning avoyer of the commonwealth was son to the inn-keeper where he lodged, the father having enjoyed the same honour before him. The revenue of this high post amounts to about thirty pounds a year. Every Thursday, he adds, the several councils meet upon affairs of state, as the repairs of a trough, the mending of a pavement, or the like important business. A river which runs through their dominions puts them to the expence of a very large wooden bridge, which is covered over-head like the rest in Switzerland. All who travel over it pay a certain toll for its maintenance, and the French ambassador frequently passing this way, his master allows the town a pension of twenty pounds sterling a year; on which account they are extremely industrious in raising all the men they can for his service. The preserving this bridge, and the regulation of the dues arising from it, are the grand affairs that cut out employment for the council of state.

There are also the four districts of Schwartzenburg, Murten, Grandson, and Eschalens, which are subject to Bern and Freyburg, who alternately appoint prætors over them, whose office lasts for five years; but these are little districts that contain no place of any consequence.

S E C T. XXII.

Of the seven Italian Bailiwicks subject to the Swiss Cantons, namely, Bellinzona, Riviera, the Valle di Blegno, Lugano, Locarno, Val Maggia, and Mendris.

IN the seven Italian bailiwicks the inhabitants are universally Papists, and speak the Italian language. The three first of these belong to the cantons of Schwitz, Uri, and Underwald; and the other four to the cantons

in general, excepting only Appenzel, which at the time of their acquisition was not a member of the confederacy.

The first of these is the bailiwick of Bellinzona, which is bounded on the eastward by the Upper Grisons and the duchy of Milan, to the southward by the bailiwick of Lauis and Locarno, to the westward also by Locarno, and to the northward by the bailiwick of Riviera.

A part of it is watered by the river Ticino, into which the Mæsa discharges itself. The hills and mountains afford excellent pasturage for cattle, and likewise abound in chesnuts; and the plain near Bellinzona produces good wine. All the parishes, three excepted, which are in the diocese of Milan, are under the bishop of Como.

In the year 1500 the town of Bellinzona submitted to the cantons of Uri, Schwitz, and Underwald; and three years after it was ceded to them as their absolute property by Lewis XII. king of France; and this cession was ratified by Maximilian Sforza, duke of Milan, in acknowledgment of their having restored him to his duchy. Every two years these cantons alternately nominate a steward, or bailiff, under the title of commissary, which is always the person whom the two preceding years had discharged that office in the bailiwick of Riviera. Every year too each of the regent cantons sends a deputy to Bellinzona, to audit the commissary's accounts and hear appeals, and to transact other public affairs.

The principal place in this bailiwick is,

Bellinzona, or Bellentz, a large, trading, and well fortified town, situated in a plain near the conflux of the Ticino and the Mæsa. Almost in the center of a large square stands the mansion-house of the commissary. The collegiate and abbey church of St. Peter and St. Stephen is a handsome building, and in the suburbs without the town are two convents and one nunnery, each having its church, besides an edifice called the Residence, which has been converted into a college, in which the abbey of Einsiedlen appoints professors for the instruction of youth in humanity and moral theology. The town stands between three hills that command it every way, and have each a strong old castle fortified in the antient taste, and provided with cannon. In one of them resides the castellan of Uri, in the second the castellan of Schwitz, and in the highest that of Underwald.

The bailiwick of Riviera, or Polese, is bounded on the south by the bailiwick of Bellinzona; to the westward on that of Locarno, or Lugarus; to the northward by the Valle di Blegno and Liviner; and to the eastward by the Upper Grisons. This district is watered by the Ticino, which in these parts receives the Blegno. It came to the cantons of Uri, Schwitz, and Underwald, at the same time, and is governed by them in the same manner with the bailiwick of Bellinzona. Within its jurisdiction are only nine parishes, the town of Riviera, and a few villages.

The bailiwick of the Valle di Blegno, otherwise called di Bregno, is bounded to the southward by the district of Riviera, to the westward by the Vale of Liviner, and to the north and east joins to the country of the Upper Grisons. It is environed by lofty mountains; but the barrenness of some of them is made up by the fertility of others. The length of this territory, according to Busching, is not less than seven hours, all watered by the Blegno; but its breadth does not much exceed half that space. It feeds multitudes of cattle, and yields several kinds of grain and fruit, especially chesnuts and tolerable wine; but in summer the men remove to Italy to earn money by working in the fields, leaving all their work at home to the women. In the year 1512 this Valley suffered extremely by the fall of two mountains, which stopping up the course of the river, it swelled to that degree that the far greatest part of the vale became a lake; and this inundation lasted till the year 1514, when the waters forced themselves a passage.

About the year 1500 the inhabitants submitted to the canton of Uri, though with a reserve of their liberties, and that canton admitted Schwitz and Underwald into a co-regency. These several cantons every two years alternately appoint a bailiff over it; but the ecclesiastical

affairs of this district are only cognizable by the archbishop of Milan. It is divided into three parts, each of which contains several villages.

The bailiwick of Lugano, by the Swiss called Lauis, is on all sides surrounded by those of Locarno, Mendris, Bellinzona, and the duchy of Milan. To it belongs the greatest part of the lake of Lugano, which is about seven miles long, and three broad, exclusive of its many little bays. The country itself, in which are no less than a hundred and six populous burghs and villages, was in 1512 conferred on the confederate cantons in general, which at that time were twelve in number, by Maximilian Sforza, duke of Milan, in return for the effectual assistance they had granted him against the French; and accordingly they every two years appoint a governor over it, under the title of capitaneo. It is divided into four quarters, three of which, in ecclesiastical concerns, are under the bishop of Como, and the other under the superintendency of the archbishop of Milan.

The bailiwick of Locarno, or Lugarus, is situated between the Milanese, the Mayenthal, the Livinerthal, and the bailiwicks of Riviera, Bellinzona, and Lauis, comprehending also a part of the Lago Maggiore. It has three or four fruitful valleys, and fine rivers that run into the lake, and is divided into four communities and forty-nine parishes. It came to the twelve allied cantons in the same manner and time with Lugano, and its government is the same. Its capital is of the same name, besides which it has a town called Ascona, and a few villages.

Val Maggia, or the Mayenthal, is surrounded by the duchy of Milan, the Liviner Vale, and the Captainry of Locarno. It is thirty-three miles in length, and derives its name from the river Maggia, which traverses it. It came to the twelve confederate cantons at the same time, and in the same manner as the above-mentioned bailiwicks, and those cantons every two years appoint a bailiff over it. It contains the towns of Cevio, or Civio, and Maggia, with a few villages.

The last of these bailiwicks is that of Mendris, which is surrounded by the duchy of Milan, and a part of the bailiwick of Locarno. This also came to the twelve United Cantons at the same time, and in the same manner, with the three preceding districts, and accordingly they every two years alternately appoint a bailiff over it. In this country is a town of the same name, and several villages.

We shall now proceed to the associated countries, summoned to the legislative diets of Switzerland in quality of allies, and that have a vote in those assemblies. These are the abbey of St. Gall, the country of the Grisons, with their subjects, the principality of Neuchâtel, and the republic of Geneva. We shall begin with the former.

S E C T. XXIII.

The Territories of the Abbey of ST. GALL.

Their Situation and Extent: a concise Account of the Abbey, with the Prerogatives and Arms of the Abbot; their Government and principal Places, with a particular Description of the City of St. Gall, a small Protestant Republic independent of the Abbey.

THE abbey of St. Gall, which is of the Benedictine order, is included within the same walls as the town of that name, but has very considerable territories, and the abbot is capable of raising an army of twelve thousand armed men, he being sovereign of the whole country, and under the protection of the cantons of Zurich, Lucern, Schwitz, and Glaris.

This country is divided into the Old Territory, also called the territory of the people of God's house, and a district called the county of Tockenbourg; the former is bounded on the east by the lake of Constance and the Rhein Vale, on the south by the canton of Appenzel, on the west by Tockenbourg and the Thurgau, and on the north also by the latter; it being fourteen miles long and ten broad. The soil bears a near affinity to that of Thurgau, and its inhabitants are Popish.

Till the year 1567 this abbey was parted from the city only by a single hedge; but afterwards, by a particular agreement, it was divided by high walls, in which is a gate opening into the city, and another towards the territories of the abbey. Within the circuit of this convent is the minster abbey church, in which, among the bones of other lords, are kept those of St. Gallus, the original founder of the abbey; and adjoining to it is St. Othmar's church, in which are preserved the relics of that saint. Next to these are the palace of the abbot, with the convent itself, in which are usually upwards of sixty monks, and a library famous for its antient and curious manuscripts. The abbot is chosen by the monks of the abbey from amongst themselves, and instantly becomes a prince of the empire, immediately subject to the pope himself. On his accession to his dignity he is, by a grant from the emperor, invested with the regalia, and sief over the old territory belonging to the abbey, and the county of Tockenbourg; but does not assist at the diets of the empire. On the other hand, by virtue of the perpetual community of defence entered into with the confederate cantons of Zurich, Lucern, Schwitz, and Glaris, the abbey was admitted as an incorporated place, and enjoys both a seat and voice in the general meetings of the confederacy which are granted to its deputies, immediately after those of Appenzel.

The arms of the abbot are quarterly, in the first field dexter a bear rampant sable, for the abbey: in the first field sinister, azure, an *agnus Dei*, argent, for the abbey of St. John: in the second dexter field, the family arms of the abbot; and in the second sinister or, a dog sable, with a collar argent, for the county of Tockenbourg.

Formerly the abbey had the duke of Swabia for its steward, the counts of Hohenzollern for its grand marshal, the counts of Hochberg for its arch-cupbearer, and the baron of Regensberg for its high-chamberlain; but these offices are at present borne by other persons of distinguished rank.

In the old district, and the county of Tockenbourg, the bishop of Constance is vested with all episcopal rights and emoluments, in conformity to the privileges granted by several popes. The abbot of St. Gall enjoys, however, not only the disposal of all the convents belonging to him, but likewise of all benefices, both in the old territory, the county of Tockenbourg, and within his districts in Thurgau and the Rhein Vale. To him likewise belongs the jurisdiction in civil, criminal, and mixed cases, with the visitation, &c. but the greatest part of these prerogatives he exercises by a representative, who is always a monk of the abbey. He has also an ecclesiastical court for the decision of religious contests, which, besides the above representative, who sits as president, is composed of four conventuals, and some lay-assessors.

The members of the aulic-council at St. Gall, are the dean of the abbey, who sits as president, the stadtholder, three conventuals, and some laymen. This council hears appeals from the lower courts within the jurisdiction of the abbey; but decides without appeals, only an order may be obtained from the abbot for a revival.

The chief town in the abbot's antient territories is Rorschach, which is seated in a pleasant fruitful country by the side of the lake of Constance, opposite to Lindaw. It has many fine houses in proportion to its extent, with a good harbour, and great markets frequented by multitudes of people from all the towns and villages round the lake; and a considerable trade is carried on in linen, corn, fruit, cattle, and good wine. In 1499 this place being attacked by four thousand Imperialists, was defended by two thousand burghers, who fought with the utmost intrepidity till they were all cut to pieces, and then the town was taken and burnt; but by degrees it rose again, and the houses were rebuilt with free-stone. By the side of it is a magnificent convent on an eminence that commands the town, and above the convent is an antient fort belonging to the abbot. There is here also a college for the instruction of youth.

The county of Tockenbourg is surrounded by the antient territory of the abbey of St. Gall, the Thurgau, the canton of Zurich, the districts of Utnach, Gaster, and Bargans, the lordship of Werdenberg, and the canton of

Appenzel, and is, according to Dr. Busching, ten hours in length, and its greatest breadth three.

The soil resembles that of Appenzel and other cantons, and the country is full of fertile mountains that abound in numerous breeds of cattle. The militia here form a body of about nine thousand men, two thirds of whom are Calvinists, and one-third Papists. The Papists in the upper part of the country are under the bishop of Chur; but in the lower part within the diocese of Constance.

The abbot of St. Gall bears the title of natural sovereign and lord of the country of Tockenbourg, and the people take an oath to him and pay him suitable services, but without any violation of their rights and liberties. He appoints a bailiff over the country, and may nominate either a native or a foreigner: he likewise puts in the recorder and serjeant, who must be natives and persons of estate in the country. The council is composed of thirty Papists, and the like number of Protestants, who are chosen by the parishes and districts. This council attends to the liberties of the people, conducts the public and private affairs of the country, imposes taxes, settles the military expences and those of any public improvements, and likewise audits the accounts of the parties concerned. This council meets once a year, and oftener when necessary. All males of fourteen years of age and upwards are summoned to take the country oath. The president of the country court is always the bailiff for the time being; but its twenty-four judges are appointed by the abbot, one from each of the twenty-two old parishes, and two from Lichtensteig and Watweil. This court is held in the abbot's name as prince, and takes cognizance of all causes; and being the prince's council, the salaries attending it are paid by the prince, to whom belong all confiscated estates and effects of malefactors executed, with those of suicides, and fugitives for capital crimes. Half of the judges of the inferior courts are nominated by the prince, and the other half by the parishes. The court of appeals has for its president the bailiff for the time being, but the twelve assessors must be natives of the county and landholders. The prince here nominates three Papists and three Calvinists, and the country council chooses a like number from among their own members.

Lichtensteig is the capital of the country of Tockenbourg, and is a small town seated on the river Thur. It is the residence of the bailiff, who dwells in the new mansion-house, and the old one is used for holding the country court and court of appeals; but the council of Tockenbourg, with the Calvinist synod, the matrimonial court, and the town-council, assemble in the town-house. The government of this place is vested in a prætor and a council, the former alternately chosen out of both religions; the same equality is observed in filling up the council and other posts.

We shall now return to the city of St. Gall, which is a little Protestant republic entirely independent of the abbot, and under the protection of the cantons. It is seated between two mountains in the forty-seventh degree thirty-one minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree twenty minutes east longitude, two leagues to the south-west of the lake of Constance. It is situated near the river Steinbach, which drives several mills; but its moats receive their water from a rivulet called Iren. Here are spacious streets, good houses, and several public structures. The cathedral of St. Laurence is a parish church, and without the walls is another, with a chapel. Here was a convent dedicated to St. Catharine; but now converted into a gymnasium of nine classes, under the like number of masters assisted by two professors, and in this building is the city library. Here is also a town-house and an arsenal. Mr Addison observes, that it is surprising to find such a number of rich burghers in the city of St. Gall, and so few poor people, in a place that has scarce any lands belonging to it; but the wealth of this little state consists in its linen manufacture, in which people of all ages and conditions are employed. The adjacent country furnishes them with vast quantities of flax, of which they are said to make every year forty thousand pieces of linen cloth, reckoning two hundred ells to each piece, and some of it as fine and white as any that can

be found in Holland. This linen they send upon mules into Germany, Spain, Italy, and all the adjacent countries. In the city of St. Gall, and the houses scattered about it, there are computed near ten thousand souls, of which sixteen hundred are burghers, out of which body their councils and burgomasters, the town amman and stadtholders, are chosen, as in other governments of Swisserland, the difference consisting in little more than in the number of such as are employed in state affairs.

The military establishment is under the conduct of the council of war, and the burghers are divided into nine quarters, with a captain and proper officers to each; but the first officer is the town-major. Here are also a company of matrosses and bombardiers, with one of light infantry, two of grenadiers, and a troop of horse.

The town is generally thought to owe its original to the abbey, which it is certain has not a little contributed to its increase. The abbey and the town are said to have a great aversion to each other, and yet in the general diet of the cantons their representatives sit together and act in concert.

About four years before Mr. Addison's arrival, the city and abbey were on the point of coming to an open rupture. In one of their annual processions a Benedictine monk carried his cross erect through the town, followed by a train of three or four thousand peasants; but he had no sooner entered the abbey, than the whole town was in a tumult, occasioned by the priest's carrying the cross contrary to all precedence, in that manner. Instantly the burghers put themselves in arms, and drew down four pieces of their cannon to the gate of their abbey: upon which those who had formed the procession did not dare to return by the way they came; but after their devotions were ended, went out at the door that opened into the abbot's territories. The abbot, exasperated at this proceeding, raised an army, blocked up the town on the side that faced his dominions, and forbade his subjects furnishing it with any of their commodities. But while things were thus ripe for a war, the cantons, their protectors, wisely interposing as umpires in the quarrel, sentenced the town, for appearing too forward in the dispute, to pay a fine of two thousand crowns; and at the same time enacted, that whenever any procession entered their walls, the priest should let the cross hang about his neck without so much as touching it with either hand, till he came within the precincts of the abbey.

The town and abbey of St. Gall carry a bear in their arms. The Roman catholics have the memory of this bear in very great veneration, and represent him as the first convert made by their saint in this country. One of the most learned of the Benedictine monks, with tears of affection in his eyes, gave Mr. Addison the following history of him. It seems that St. Gall, who is here termed the great apostle of Germany, found all this country little better than a vast desert; and as he was walking out on a very cold day, happened to meet a bear, when instead of being startled at the rencounter, he gravely ordered the bear to bring him a bundle of wood, and to make him a fire; upon which the bear served him to the best of his ability, and at his departure was ordered by the Saint to retire into the very depths of the woods, and there to spend the rest of his life without ever hurting man or beast. From this time, added the monk, the bear lived irreproachably, and till his dying-day observed the order given him by the Saint.

S E C T. XXIV.

The Country of the GRISONS.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. The Language and Religion of the Inhabitants; their History, Government, Manners, and military Forces: with a Description of the three Leagues, or Confederacies, into which this Country is divided, and the principal Places in each; with a particular Description of the City of Chur.

THE country of the Grisons is bounded on the eastward by Tirol and the territories of Venice; on

the south by the Italian bailiwicks, the Valteline, and the county of Chiavenna; on the west by the cantons of Uri and Glaris; and on the north by the canton of Glaris, the county of Sargans, and a part of Tirol; extending from east to west in its greatest length about eighty-five miles, and in its breadth from south to north about seventy-six.

The greatest part of the country is mountainous, but the levels and valleys produce almost all sorts of grain, with pulse, plenty of hay, fruits of several kinds, and wine. Its hills, which are of a middling height, and enjoy a mild air, yield not only good grass and hay, but also rye and barley, and in some parts cherries: even on the highest spots are good pasture-grounds, besides many kinds of palatable and wholesome berries.

The principal business of the inhabitants is the feeding of horned cattle, sheep, goats, and swine. They likewise export a great deal of butter and cheese; but the breeding of horses is so much neglected, that the greatest part of those used in the country are purchased of foreigners; the few that are bred there are hardy and laborious, but ill shaped. They have plenty of poultry and wild fowl; but the only fish worthy of notice are the eel-pout, and a few pikes. They have mines in several parts; but the produce of them is inconsiderable.

The principal rivers of this country are the Rhine, the Inn, and the Adda, all which have their source here. Besides these, there are some small rivers, or rivulets. Here are also several lakes, most of which lie on the summits of the mountains, where they rise from fine springs.

In the whole country of the Grisons are but three towns. The German tongue is not only used in their general state assemblies, and public instruments; but is also continually growing more and more in vogue. It is spoken at Chur, and in its territory, and almost everywhere in the Ten Jurisdictions. In many places the inhabitants speak both the German and Italian. The Roman or Chur Italian is principally spoke among the Grisons. At Engadin, the Ladinum, a kind of Latin, is the prevailing language; and at Pregel is a corrupt kind of Italian.

Both the Calvinist and Popish religions are by the laws entitled to an entire freedom. The professors of the first form about two-thirds of the inhabitants, and their clergy are divided into six *colloquiums*. In every league is a dean, and each *colloquium* has its own *praeses*. The deans are annually chosen by lot in a synod of the three leagues, which have also a college at Chur for the instruction of youth, each of which has its inspector, who is always a layman. The greatest part of the Popish clergy in the three leagues are under the see of Chur, and divided into chapters.

Every community is so entirely of one religion, that if any person changes his sentiments, he must go into another. The Papists in their processions sometimes go from one community into another; but when they enter those belonging to the Protestants they lower the cross, and leave singing till they are again upon popish ground.

The country of the Grisons is a part of the antient Rhætia. The people were formerly subject to several princes, some to petty sovereigns, some to the bishop of Chur, and others to the house of Austria, to whom the Rhætians behaved with such extraordinary fidelity, that the emperor Frederic II. rewarded them with a grant of several privileges and immunities. In 1419, the bishop of Chur, who bore great sway here, in conjunction with the city of that name, concluded an alliance of fifty-one years with the city of Zurich.

The free communities in this part of Rhætia, by a mutual compact among themselves, formed three republics, which are now called Leagues or Confederates: these go by the names of the Grey or Grison League, that of the House of God, and that of the Ten Jurisdictions. The first concluded its alliance in 1424; the second claims a more antient date; the third acceded to the union in 1436; and in 1471, the three leagues entered into a perpetual alliance with each other, which has been since ratified and explained.

The three leagues, by virtue of these engagements, form one united republic; but instead of one united common

mon coat or seal, each league has its particular arms; but in instruments that relate to the whole body, a seal is used that has the arms of the three united leagues. However, a general diet is annually convoked by the heads of the three leagues, and annually meet on St. Bartholomew's-day, one year at Ilantz in the Grey league, the next at Chur in that of God's House, and the third year at Davos in the Ten Jurisdictions. At the same time notice is sent to the several communities, of the affairs on which they are to send their plenipotentiaries with full powers. This general diet usually sits a fortnight or three weeks, and two deputies are sent from every community in each league, by which means the number of votes in the general diets amounts to sixty-six; of which the Grey league has twenty-eight, that of God's House twenty-three, and that of the Ten Jurisdictions fifteen; the chief of the league where the diet is held being always president.

In the general diet are discussed and regulated affairs of state, negotiations with foreign powers, and the decisions of all appeals. This diet likewise receives the public revenue, and administers the oaths to new officers of the provinces. However, in affairs relating to the whole united body, and to negotiations with foreign powers, no final resolution is taken; but at the rising of the diet, a committee of the heads of the three leagues, assisted by two representatives from each, is appointed for digesting the proceedings, and to determine what particulars are to be communicated to their several communities, either as resolved and enacted, or on which their opinions are desired. The resolutions of each community are formed by a plurality of voices, each community sending up its opinion in writing to the new congress.

The country of the Grisons is extremely populous; and as there are no people more free, so there are none more jealous of their liberty. Hence they have a singular method of punishing those suspected of treason, or of any crime against the state, which makes the greatest men in the country tremble. When the diet is assembled, the peasants flock to it in crowds, to demand a court of justice for the trial of the offender, which the diet is bound to grant. This court consists of ten judges, and twenty advocates of each league, who have the power of applying torture, and doing every thing necessary to discover the truth of the accusations. Its proceedings are vigorous and summary, and generally end in a sentence of death, or a heavy fine. In other respects the Roman law prevails among the Grisons, though somewhat modified by their customs. Thus a man who has an estate by his wife, enjoys it after her death till he marries again, and then is bound to divide it among the children he had by her.

The married women here scarce ever appear abroad except at church; but the young women have more liberty before they are married.

Though here is plenty of every thing, yet their habits and furniture are plain. With respect to their provisions, their meat is very juicy, their fowl excellent, and the fish of their lakes, especially their trouts, inferior to none in the world; and though the wine they drink is brought on horses four or five days journey, they have it cheaper than in most parts of Italy and France. The inns upon the mountains are very good, and besides good bread and wine, there is always a great quantity of game and venison, according to the season of the year, with neat chambers and good beds. There is nothing paid in this country for importation or exportation; but every one enjoys the fruit of his labour, and the revenue of his lands.

The three leagues have contracted friendly alliances with the neighbouring cantons and their associates. In 1600 they all entered into a perpetual league with the republics of the Valais, in 1602 with Bern, and in 1707 with Zurich. In 1497 the Grey league, and the next year the league of God's House, entered into a like engagement with Zurich, Uri, Lucern, Schwitz, and Glaris; and in 1567, the Ten Jurisdictions sued to be admitted into that alliance; but at a diet held at Baden received for answer, that though their application was not then complied with, yet the confederate cities and

cantons assured them of their ready friendship and services on all occasions, and in their instruments and letters stiled them confederates and allies.

The Grisons maintain no troops, and even apply themselves very little to the use of arms. But as they furnish foreign powers with regiments, they are never without experienced officers and soldiers, and on occasion the three leagues are able to bring thirty thousand fighting men into the field. But the principal strength of the country consists in its high mountains and narrow passes, in which a handful of resolute men are able to make head against a considerable army.

The Upper, or Grey league, which contains several high mountains, is bounded on the east by the other two leagues; on the southward by the duchy of Milan, and the bailiwick of Bellinzona; on the westward by the canton of Uri; and on the northward by the canton of Glaris and the bailiwick of Sargans.

In this league are eight communities, the principal town in which is the following:

Ilantz, in Latin *Ilantium*, a small town seated at the foot of a hill, between the Farther Rhine and the Glenner. This is the chief place in the Upper or Grey league, and every third year the general diet of the Grisons is held here, as are likewise the courts of justice. The inhabitants are Calvinists.

The league of the House of God, or, as it is called, *La Caddée*, from the Italian *Caddea*, a corruption of *Casa Dei*, probably owes its appellation to the bishopric of Chur. This country is bounded by the Grey league on the west; the county of Tirol, and that of Bormio on the east; the Ten Jurisdictions on the north, and the county of Chiavenna and the Valteline on the south. It is about sixty-seven miles in its greatest length, from the north-east to the south-west, and forty from east to west.

The soil is for the most part rugged and barren; yet about Chur and the banks of the Rhine, they have most sorts of fruit except oranges and olives.

The arms of this league are argent, a goat saliant and fable.

The principal place of this league is the following:

Chur, or Coire, in Latin *Curia Rhætorum*, and in Italian and Roman *Coira*, and in the language of the country Chur, is the capital of the whole republic of the Grisons, and is situated in the forty-sixth degree fifty-two minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree thirty-two minutes east longitude; fourteen miles to the north-east of Ilantz; by the river *Pleissur*, which washes the walls of the city, and may be conveyed through all the streets, and about half a league before that river discharges itself into the Rhine. The east part of the city lies at the foot of a hill, as does the south part at the foot of another; but towards the north and west is a fine plain, beautifully diversified with corn-fields, meadows, orchards, and vineyards; and towards the north-east, an eminence, also covered with vineyards.

This city is of tolerable extent, and all the inhabitants are Calvinists. It has two churches, each containing a minister, one of whom, who officiates at the cathedral of St. Martin, is stiled *Antistes*. Besides these, it has a church set apart for funeral sermons, with a *collegium philosophicum* of two professors, founded in 1700 by the Calvinist communities of the three leagues, and over which every league nominates its own particular inspector. It has also a grammar-school of three classes. In the town-house every three years is held the general diet of the Grisons, as likewise the extraordinary diets and congresses. In the town-house are also kept the state-office and record-office of the House of God in particular, as well as of the three leagues collectively; and under it is a magazine for keeping the goods of the merchants passing to and from Italy and Germany. On the cloister square is the arsenal, in which are kept the artillery both of Chur and the whole state of the Grisons. Adjoining to this is the granary, in which a corn-market is held twice a week.

The finest private buildings here is the palace erected by Peter lord of Salis, to which belongs a most beautiful garden, and the house of the late burgomaster Otho Schwartz, which is built in the Italian taste.

The supreme power is lodged in the burghers, who are divided into five companies, and by proclamation from the council, meet on all deliberations relative to the state, in which every freeman of those companies is asked his opinion, the resolutions are taken according to the majority of the suffrages, and communicated in writing to the council. Whatever is approved by three companies, the other two must acquiesce in.

The great council consists of seventy persons annually chosen by the burghers; that is, fourteen out of each company, on the first Sunday after St. Crispin's-day. These seventy choose the lesser council, consisting of twenty persons. The principal person in the city is the burgomaster, who is annually elected by the free choice of the great council. The lesser council, with the addition of two ecclesiastics, constitutes the matrimonial court.

The origin of this city is involved in obscurity; but it gradually obtained all the immunities and privileges of an imperial city, and has from time immemorial been possessed of the right of coinage. The origin of the see of Chur is no less uncertain. The series of its bishops annually begins with Aimo, who is supposed to have lived about the year 440, and the see is generally held to be one of the most antient. The several communities of this part of the country of the Grisons, have acquired the right of protection over the see, and have shewn themselves on all occasions the courageous protectors both of the see and the bishops.

The bishop of Chur is a prince of the empire, and his title is, Bishop of Chur, of the holy Roman empire, lord of Furstensburg and Furstenau.

His arms are the same with those of the city, and the bishop enjoys a seat in the diet of the empire, and in the college of princes, sits next to the bishop of Lubec; but in church affairs he is under the jurisdiction of the archbishop of Mentz. He is elected by the chapter of Chur, which consists of twenty-four prebends. The bishop, with the chief of the prebends, that is, the provost of the cathedral, with the dean, scholasticus, cantor, custos and thesaurarius, live just without the city of Chur, on an eminence called the Hof, which is enclosed with walls and gates, and in which also stands the cathedral. The revenues of the bishop are, however, far from being so considerable as they were formerly.

The Ten Jurisdictions border to the south and east on the league of God's House; to the westward on the same league, and the county of Sargans; and to the north on Sargans and the principality of New Lichtenstein. This is the smallest of the three leagues, and consists of seven districts. It for the most part consists of rugged and desert mountains, and has no corn or other fruit, except in that part called the Vallis Rhætica, on the banks of the Rhine; but it has plenty of pasture, cattle, milk, butter and cheese, not only for their own use, but for exportation; and the lakes abound with fish, especially trouts. The air on the mountains is very cold, and the people often in danger from the snow and ice which fall from them.

The Ten Jurisdictions are Davos, Closter, Castels, Schiers, Mayenfeld, Bellfort, and Schanfig; the three last are each subdivided into two jurisdictions, which makes the whole ten.

The principal place in these Jurisdictions is,

Mayenfeld, or Meyenfeld, a pretty town in a fine country, which is the most fruitful of any belonging to the Grisons. It stands on the banks of the Rhine, with mountains rising round it like an amphitheatre, well planted with vines, which produce excellent wine. Besides its church, which is dedicated to St. Lucius, there is a castle, in which the bailiff resides, and several magnificent houses. The town has its separate council and civil government, and the bailiff is chosen for two years, alternately by the Grison leagues and the community.

SECT. XXV.

Of the Countries subject to the Grisons, viz. the Valteline, Bormio, and the County of Chiavenna. Their Situation, Extent, Produce, Government, and principal Towns.

WE now come to the subjects of the Grisons, who possess three fine countries at the foot of the Alps, near the entrance of Italy; these are the Valteline, Bormio, and the county of Chiavenna; the whole being, properly speaking, one valley, which extends to the foot of the Rhætian Alps, and is bounded on the east by Tirol, on the south by the dominions of Venice and Milan, and on the west and north by the country of the Grisons; extending about sixty Italian miles in length, but is very unequal in breadth.

We shall begin with the Valteline, in Latin Vallis Tellina, which lies between the league of God's house, the county of Bormio, the territories of Venice, the duchy of Milan, and the country of Chiavenna; extending upwards of thirty-eight miles in length, and in breadth from nine to twenty-three.

It is exceeding fruitful, and throughout its whole extent watered by the Adda, which discharges itself into the lake of Como. The sun-beams shine in every part of this valley, and it is fenced from the northern blasts by high mountains. In some parts the heat is intense, but in others more moderate; and on the hills and greatest part of the adjacent valleys the air is mostly cool. This difference in its temperature necessarily causes a variation in the products of the earth. The levels in this valley, through which the Adda pursues its meandering course, exhibit a pleasing variety of corn-fields, meadows, vineyards, and orchards of chestnuts and other fruit. The vineyards on the mountains towards the north produce the best wine in the whole country, and above them are corn-fields and pasture lands. The hills on the south side are covered with fine woods of chestnuts, and rich pastures, in which graze numerous herds of cattle. The country also abounds in an excellent red wine, of a most delicious flavour, and of so good a body, that it will keep for a whole century, improving both in taste and wholesomeness, and gradually turning paler till its redness at length entirely disappears. Great quantities of this wine are exported. In most places the apples and pears are not very good; but the peaches, apricots, figs, and melons of this country are exquisite. Here are likewise plenty of citrons, lemons, almonds, and other delicious fruit.

The soil would also produce all kinds of grain and pulse; but the level spots being interspersed with swampy ground, that has hitherto remained without culture, and the attention of the inhabitants being chiefly engrossed by their trade in wine, it does not yield sufficient corn for so populous a country, and therefore they are obliged to have recourse to importation. In some parts they raise hemp. Bees and silk-worms are here bred in vast numbers. But as to their game, it is much reduced by the avidity of the hunters. The Adda yields plenty of fish, and is famous for its trouts, which are very fat and delicious, and of so large a size as to weigh from fifty to sixty pounds.

There are here numbers of goats, Alpine mice, bears, boars, wolves, lynxes, foxes, martens, hares, and squirrels.

The men are comely, strong, good soldiers, ingenious, and apt to learn all arts and sciences. The women are civil, cunning, and amorous; and here are many people of quality, who are as polite as any in Italy.

The language of the inhabitants is a corrupt kind of Italian. At present Popery is the only religion, though before the year 1620 the Calvinists constituted a considerable body, and had their churches and schools; but in that year the Papists of the Valteline extirpated them by a general massacre, in which no regard was paid either to age, quality, or sex. Their clergy are under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Como.

The principal officers are appointed every two years by the Grisons, and every two years each league sends three persons, with two clerks and a serjeant, to hear the complaints of the people against the officers set over them, to redress their grievances, and decide in case of appeals. A farther appeal in civil affairs also lies to the general diet of the Grisons. The inhabitants are possessed of particular privileges, and have certain laws and statutes granted them by the Grisons, as the sole rule of their conduct, and they choose their council and chancellors out of their own countrymen.

The

The whole Vale is divided into the Upper, Middle, and Lower, called Tergeros. The Upper part consists of eleven communities, the Middle part of eighteen, and the Lower part of only two.

Tirano, the capital of the Upper part, is only six miles from the territory of Venice, and is seated on the river Adda. It is large, populous, and a place of some trade. Formerly it was encompassed by a wall, and defended by a citadel. On the other side of the Adda is a splendid church of white marble, adorned with many embellishments, which are continually increasing, it being much resorted to by pilgrims, who make rich offerings, and having a large income.

The country of Bormio, or of Worms, lies between the country of Tirol, the territories of Venice, and the Valteline, and is on all sides environed by steep mountains, of such a height that their summits are seldom free from snow. A considerable part of the country also consists of these stupendous heights, and the narrow passes are sometimes rendered impassable, by the snow rolling down from the tops of the mountains.

The air is rather cold than warm; but yet pure and healthy. In this country is produced no wine, and but little fruit; it has, however, more corn than is sufficient for home consumption, and the pastures are so rich, that the inhabitants keep vast herds of horned cattle, besides great numbers of sheep and goats. The honey too of this country is particularly good; and it also abounds in iron ore; but its other metals and minerals are inconsiderable.

The Adda, which has its source in these parts, issues from a water that falls down a rock into the Freel, or Frayl valley, in which is a lake, and from other currents that precipitate themselves down the mountains.

The inhabitants, who amount to about fourteen thousand, are Papists, and the whole country is under the diocese of Como.

Though Bormio or Worms is governed by an officer named a podesta, in the name of the Grisons, yet the inhabitants still enjoy all their antient rights and privileges, and all trials here are regulated by the laws of the country; but with right of appeal to the three leagues. Every four months they elect by ballot two officials or chiefs, from their own body, with sixteen counsellors and thirteen justiciaries, who try both civil and criminal causes.

The whole country is divided into five districts, the principal place in which is,

Worms, in Latin Bormium, a town seated on the rivulet of Fradolf, which at a small distance runs into the Adda. This town is the residence of a governor called the podesta, sent hither every two years from the Grisons. It is a pretty and populous place, and had formerly a good castle; but it has suffered much by fires, and that building has been consumed.

The county of Chiavenna takes up the west part of this great valley, and is environed by the Upper league, that of God's House, the Valteline, and the territory of Como; extending, according to Dr. Busching, between seven and eight hours in length, and six in breadth.

It lies among high and steep mountains, and has some vallies of considerable extent. The summer heats are frequently excessive, during which a noxious effluvia are brought from the lake of Como, when the wind is south. However, both the mountains and vallies, the St. Jacob's vale excepted, are well peopled, and the country in most parts not only abounds in pastures, but in all kinds of fruit and wine; but the inhabitants have not a sufficient quantity of corn: they, however, export some wine and cattle, and the culture of silk is an important article. They have here the lavezzi-stone, in Latin lebetes, out of which they turn kitchen utensils, which they send all over Italy.

The principal rivers of this country are the Maira, or Mera, and the Lira, which unite their streams in this country, and then fall into the lake of Como.

The inhabitants are Papists, and in spiritual affairs are subject to the bishop of Como.

This country is divided into two governments, each under a commissary, who is appointed every two years

by the three leagues. These represent the sovereignty, and judge both in civil and criminal cases; but take an oath to be regulated by the particular laws and statutes of the country. Ever since the year 1639, the court of Chiavenna, at every nomination of a new commissary, chooses two lawyers, and the commissary one, who must be natives, as his assessors in penal causes. Civil contests are first referred to a certain number of persons of sense and probity, from whom they may be carried to the college of lawyers; next to the commissary, then to the syndics whom the Grisons send hither every two years; and after all, the discontented party may bring his suit before the three leagues themselves.

The city of Chiavenna, in Latin Clavenna, the capital of the county, is seated on the Maria, in the forty-sixth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree thirty minutes east longitude, thirty-two miles to the south of Chur, and is a pretty large well built town, in a delightful situation, among fine vineyards. It was formerly walled in, and had two forts on two peaks of a broken rock; but in 1526, both these were demolished by the Grisons. It is the residence of the commissary, and contains a collegiate church, and within and near it are five other churches, with a convent, a nunnery, and a handsome custom-house for the goods which are forwarded on pack-horses to Italy or Germany, according to the consignments of the owners. The inhabitants have dug large caverns in the neighbouring mountains, where they stow their wine, which by this means is kept fresh all the summer, and drinks as cool as if it had been all the time in ice; and near these grottos they have built summer-houses, to which they go in the evening to partake of a collation, and to enjoy the fresh air. The city was formerly much larger than at present; but about five hundred and fifty years ago, all the north part of it was buried in the ruins of a mountain.

It will be proper, before we take leave of the county of Chiavenna, to mention the town of Piuri, which stood in a district of the same name, and was built on the side of the village of Bellfort, which has been destroyed by a flood, and contained one hundred and twenty-five houses, besides some handsome churches, and other public edifices, with a mansion-house for the podesta or commissary, and an arched stone-bridge over the Maira. Towards the south was a hill of a loose texture, that had many currents issuing from it; but in the evening of the fifteenth of August 1618, a prodigious part of this mountain, with a dreadful crash, suddenly fell on the town of Piuri, and also into Chitau, an adjacent village of seventy five houses, and overwhelmed both places so effectually, that not the least trace of them have since appeared. Some represent the number of persons who perished by this calamity as amounting to nine hundred and thirty; others compute them at fifteen hundred, and others maintain that they amounted to upwards of two thousand. The river Maira was for some time obstructed by the rubbish of the mass which thus fell. The people of Chiavenna, though near the town, knew nothing of this dreadful disaster till they saw the river sink, it not receiving a drop of water for three hours. By one of the palaces which was at a small distance from the town, and therefore not overwhelmed with it, a judgment may be formed of the magnificence of the rest. It was a pleasure-house of the family of Francken, which, with its gardens, could not cost less than one hundred thousand crowns, and might be compared with many palaces of Italy.

SECT. XXVI.

The VALAIS.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Fate of the Country. The Manners, Language, and History of the Inhabitants; their Arms and Government: with the principal Places in the Upper and Lower Valais; and among the rest, an Account of the Baths of Leuck, of the City of Sitten, and of the famous Monastery on the Convent of St. Bernard.

THE Valais, in Latin Valleia, the next of the countries stiled the allies or confederates of the Swiss,

is bounded on the north by the canton of Bern and the lake of Geneva; on the west by Savoy; on the south by Piedmont and Milan; and on the east by the Mayenthal, which belongs to the cantons in general, and by the canton of Uri; extending, according to Dr. Büsching, about thirty-three or thirty-four hours in length, and in some parts upwards of ten in breadth.

The whole country is one large vale that extends east and west, and on the north and south sides is bounded by very high mountains. Among the southern mountains, the most remarkable is that called Great St. Bernard's, antiently named Mons Penninus, a name given to the whole Appennine chain. The principal hill on the north side is the Gemmi, which lies towards the frontiers of the canton of Bern, and is impassable in winter, and its descent towards the valley of the Valais was of a dangerous steepness, and very narrow. To remedy this inconvenience, in 1736 several rocks were blown up, the road in most places widened to the breadth of seven feet, and walls raised in the most steep and loosest parts; so that travelling is at present much more safe and commodious than formerly. St. Anthony's hill is also of an astonishing height.

The Valais is a very hot country, remarkable for its fertility. The harvest begins in May, and lasts till the latter end of October; the corn in the bottom of the chief valley being brought in first; next that in the side vallies; and last of all, that on the mountains, which yield grain at an uncommon height. The low lands excel the upper in the produce of winter, and these again the former in summer fruits. Besides the best kinds of grain, as wheat, barley, and rye, this country abounds in good wine, particularly in a fine muscadell, with plenty of apples, pears, plums, cherries, mulberries, chesnuts, and small nuts; and about Sitten, Siders, and Grundis, also grow pomegranates, figs, almonds, and other rich fruits. These parts are also remarkable for producing good saffron. Both the hills and vallies feed great numbers of cattle, and afford plenty of deer, hares, and other game. It is supposed to have also mines of silver, copper, and lead; but the produce, it is said, will not answer the expence of working them. Here is likewise pit coal.

The Valais is from one end to the other watered by the Rhodan or Rhone, to which the country people give the name of Rotten, and which has its source on the Furke mountain. At first it precipitates itself with great noise among several rocks, and down to the very plain in the valley has the appearance of a single cataract, with several cascades. It is afterwards joined by the Meyenwang rivulet, which issues from the Grimsel mountain, and then directing its course due south, enters the Valais, where it runs from east to west, till after winding northward, it discharges itself with great impetuosity into the lake of Geneva; all the streams and lesser rivers of the Valais issuing from the mountains mingle with it.

The Valesians are a brave and courageous people; but it is uncommon to find either a man or woman without a large wen in their necks, which is supposed to be owing to the clayey sandy water, that leaves a sediment in the glands of the body. The apparel and diet of the common people are coarse; but the quality live very splendidly. Most of their houses are of wood, particularly of the larch-tree, which is very durable, and grows as black as ebony. They cover them with slate, and in some places build their houses with turrets and wings.

In the Upper Valais the prevailing language is the German; but the inhabitants of Siders and Sitten, with those in the Lower Valais, speak a corrupt French; tho' in both parts they apply themselves to the German, French, Italian, and Latin, which are indispensibly necessary in their intercourse with the cantons of Bern and Uri, Savoy, Piedmont, and the Milanese; and therefore a stranger cannot fail of being surprised at the fluency with which the meanest people here speak these four languages.

The antient inhabitants of this country were the Lepontii Viberi, with the Seduni and Veragri. In the middle ages it came to be called Valesia, and in 1032, it devolved to the German empire, as a part of the second

Burgundian kingdom; but three years after the emperor Conrad II. made over the Lower Valais to the counts of Savoy. The inhabitants, on several occasions, have resolutely maintained their liberties. In 1475, the bishop of Geneva fell on the Upper Valais with a body of eighteen thousand men, consisting of Lower Valesians and Savoyards; but the Upper Valesians being assisted by three thousand troops sent by Bern, Freyburg, and Solothurn, their allies, defeated the bishop, and even made a conquest of the Lower Valais, which has ever since been subject to them. In the same year they formed a perpetual alliance with Bern, which has been renewed with the whole Helvetic body; and in 1533, they entered into a particular union with the seven Popish cantons.

The arms of the republic of the Valais are, party per pale gules and argent, three mullets in each field, with one on the pale.

The republic of the Upper Valais consists of seven parts, called Zenten or Tythings. In six of these the government is democratical; but that of the seventh, which consists of the city of Sitten, is aristocratical. Each Tything sends a representative to the general diet, which assembles twice a year, that is in May and December, at Sitten. This diet has the management of the public concerns, both civil and military, besides appeals in processes brought before the Tythings: it likewise gives audience to envoys, &c. Over each Tything is a chief, called a meyer, or mayor, with a particular regency and jurisdiction; but the Tything court is composed of the Tything judge, assisted by twelve assessors and judges, who act both in civil and criminal cases. The military affairs of each Tything are under the direction of a banneret and captain.

The principal places in the Upper Valais are the following:

Brug or Brieg, a large open town, and the capital of a Tything of the same name, is seated on the river Saltana, at the foot of the mountain of Brug, in the pass of Simplon. Here are several fine buildings, particularly a handsome Jesuits college and nunnery of Ursulines, and here also are held the Tything courts. In the year 1755, the greatest part of the town was destroyed by an earthquake.

Leuck is a village seated on an eminence near the conflux of the Dala and the Rhone, and has two churches, a fine town-house, and an old castle, which belongs to the bishop of Sitten. As it stands near the center of the Valais, the deputies of the country often assemble here.

The famous hot baths, called the Baths of Leuck, are in a valley about two leagues distance, inclosed on all sides by high mountains, through which there is only a narrow passage to a wood on the south side. They are formed by five springs, not far from each other. The largest, which fills eight baths, flows plentifully, and the water is hot enough for boiling eggs. It is for the most part clear; but sometimes changes its colour. It is purgative, and good against colds, the gout, weak stomachs, diseases of the liver, lungs, and spleen, dimness of sight, convulsions, defluxions, the dropsy, stone, ulcers, distempers of the womb, &c. There is another of the springs good against the leprosy, and at a small distance from these are several cold springs, the largest of which flows only from May to September, that is, during the summer, when other springs are dried up; but this is ascribed to the melting of the snow on the Alps.

Sitten, or Sion in French, and in Latin Sedunem, the capital of all the whole Valais, is seated on the river Sitten, at a small distance from the Rhone, in the forty-sixth degree seven minutes north latitude, and in the seventh degree forty minutes east longitude. It stands almost in the center between the Upper and Lower Valais, in a delightful plain, overlooked by pretty high hills on the east side, on the highest of which is a fort, in which the bishop resides in very hot weather, or in sickly seasons. Here is also another fort, called the Valeria, which has a church, and several fine houses. The city is neat and well built, with four churches: the most remarkable of these is the cathedral, which has at the great gate a fragment of Roman marble, with an inscription to the honour of the emperor Augustus.

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The subjects of this republic consist of the inhabitants of the Lower Valais, which contains several districts.

In this country is the mountain of St. Bernard, which has on its summit a large convent, where the friars maintain all travellers for three days gratis, whether Papists or Protestants; but people of fashion and gratitude make some civil acknowledgement on their leaving this house of hospitality. If any one dies here, they do not inter him, but carry him to a chapel at some distance in the midst of snow, where the dead body lies without corruption from the extreme coldness of the place. A thousand travellers would be in danger of perishing on this rugged mountain, were it not for these honest friars, who send out people with brandy and other cordials to comfort them, especially in the winter, and upon great thaws, when they sometimes find the poor travellers stretched on the ground, and almost starved to death by the violence of the cold, or ready to drop down with fatigue from the difficulty of the road. This renders these friars so well beloved all over Switzerland, that when they send thither for a collection, which they do once a year, there is scarce a family, rich or poor, Protestant or Papist, but gives freely to the relief of the convent, which though it is said to be large enough to hold six hundred people, and to be so shut up in snow and ice that nothing grows near it, yet such care is taken, that this house wants for nothing.

St. Maurice is a large handsome town, seated between two hills on the Rhine, over which it has a stately stone bridge, reaching from one hill to the other. On the west side of the bridge, close to a high mountain, stands the governor's seat; on the eastern side is a tower, and below both a gate, which is shut by night. This pass is a great thoroughfare for all goods and persons going from the lake of Geneva through the country of the Valais, and over the mountains of St. Bernard. In this town is an Augustine canonry, the abbot of which is vested with the lower jurisdiction in several villages; and the abbey contains many pieces of antiquity, particularly a great number of Roman inscriptions, and near the high altar is a curious Mosaic pavement.

S E C T. XXVII.

The Principality of NEUFCHATEL.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce, the Language, Religion, History, and Government of the Country; with a Description of the City of Neufchatel, and an Antiquity on the top of a Mountain.

THE next of the allies of Switzerland which we shall now mention, is the principality of Neufchatel, bounded on the north by Basil; by the lake of the same name on the east; the county of Bern on the south; and by the Franche Comté on the west; it being about forty miles long, and twenty broad.

It is every way hilly, and along its northern and western borders runs the Jura chain. The mountainous part produces very little, except herbage for cattle; but the inhabitants, who are chiefly artificers, procure themselves a comfortable subsistence by their labour. However, the smallest eminences, with the valleys and plains, not only produce red and white wines, but fruit, corn, hemp, and flax.

The Neuenburg lake, so called from the town of Neuenburg, which stands on its bank, is nine hours in length, and two in breadth; but not of any considerable depth. It affords plenty of fish, particularly pike and trout: on the side of the town it receives the river Orbe, and into its western part run the two small rivers of Areuse, or Reuse, and Seyon. Its north side forms an outlet to the Zill, by which means it has a communication with the lake of Biel.

In the whole principality are three towns, one borough, and twenty-five parishes, with ten chapels of ease, sixty-four villages, and a great number of scattered houses. The current language is French; but with a mixture of the Burgundian, both in the accent and dialect.

The greatest part of the inhabitants are Calvinists, but in the castellany of Landeron Popery is the prevailing religion. The twenty-three head parishes, and nine of the filials, are Protestants, and divided into the three colloques of Neuenburg, Boudry, and the Val de Travers. All their several ministers meet annually at Neuenburg chapel, in the month of May; and this assembly being vested with the superintendency of all ecclesiastical affairs, confirms the church officers who are newly chosen, and collates and ejects ministers, except in the town of Neufchatel. In the castellany of Landeron are two Popish parishes, and one chapel of ease, which in ecclesiastical affairs are under the jurisdiction of Lausanne.

This country anciently belonged to the last kingdom of Burgundy, with which, in 1032, it devolved to the German empire. Since that time it has been possessed by many different families, and in 1707 the high tribunal of the state of Neufchatel, after a mature and impartial examination of the claims of several illustrious families, passed a decree in favour of Frederick I. king of Prussia, who immediately took possession of it, and the usual homage was performed to him, he on his part confirming all the liberties and privileges of the state, and its alliances with the neighbouring powers. At the peace of Utrecht, concluded between France and Prussia in 1713, the French king acknowledged the king of Prussia as sovereign-lord of Neufchatel and Vallangin; and the inhabitants are in all parts of France intitled to the same rights and privileges that are indulged to the natives of the Swiss cantons, or which they enjoyed before the king of Prussia became their sovereign.

On the other hand, by virtue of the community of rights which the lords of Neufchatel have entered into with the cantons of Bern, Lucern, Freyburg, and Solothurn, both the sovereign and the town are reckoned associates of the cantons.

The king, as head of the state, presides in its assemblies, convokes them at pleasure, collects their suffrages, and, when equal, decides the point in deliberation. He has also the management of all military affairs, with respect to which he is stiled lieutenant-general, and with him is connected the council of state. The number of the members depends also on the sovereign's pleasure. This council superintends all the affairs of the state and police, and decides in any occurrences or contests. The governor here sits as president, and in case of his absence the senior counsellor. He likewise summons them together, whenever he pleases, though their usual time of meeting is every Monday and Tuesday in the morning. Under him are many general and particular officers nominated by the sovereign, as the treasurer, to whom the receivers pay the several branches of the revenue; the first secretary to the council of state; the general procurator, who attends to the maintenance of the sovereign's rights; the general commissary; the general advocate, who carries on the processes of the sovereign; the castellans, and the mayers or mayors, who are placed over the lower courts, with a stadtholder or lieutenant under them.

The principal court of justice, which judges without appeal, is that of the three states of the sovereignty of Neufchatel. The first of these states is composed of four nobles, who are generally the four eldest noblemen in the council of state. The second is called the state of officers, and consists of the four castellans of Landeron, Boudry, the Val de Travers, and Thielle, and any deficiency in these is supplied by the mayers or mayors. The third state is composed of four burghers of Neufchatel, annually elected by the town council from among their own members. In this assembly the governor presides, and on an equality of votes has the casting voice: the general procurator takes care that nothing be transacted contrary to the prerogative of the sovereign. This assembly finally determines all suits brought before them from the lower courts in the sovereignty of Neufchatel, explains the acts of the council of state, and gives their assent to any new edicts of the sovereign, or to the repeal or alteration of the old ones.

Among the superior courts, is that for the trial of criminals, in which the decrees are executed without appeal, unless the sovereign, or his governor, are disposed

to favour the convict, either by mitigating, or annulling the sentence; but to aggravate it is not in the power of either. Those courts for the punishment of criminals are of two kinds, some invested with the high jurisdiction, and others confined to the lower; and their sentences extend no farther than imprisonment, the pillory, whipping, &c. Of this last kind are all the country courts.

Their militia, exclusive of that of the precinct of the city of Neufchatel, amounts to upwards of eight thousand men, who are ranged into several companies; and the whole military establishment is under the direction of a general inspector, four lieutenant-colonels, and the like number of majors.

Neufchatel, called by the Germans Welsch-Neuenburg, and in Latin Neoconum, or Novicastrum, the capital of the country, is seated on two eminences adjoining to the lake of the same name, which here receives into it the little river Seyon. It is a fine town, consisting of four large streets, and an old castle, in which the governor resides, to which there is an ascent by one hundred steps, some of them cut out of the rock. The houses are generally well built, and among them are several handsome structures and good fountains. Near the castle is a fine old church, and a terrace that affords a view both of the town and lake. In the plain at the bottom is another church, the town house, and likewise a gymnasium. Here are several monuments of antiquity, particularly a stately tower on the descent of one of the hills, said to have been built by Julius Cæsar. Round the town are on all sides vineyards, gardens, and country villas. The city is governed by a council of sixty burghers, who enjoy such privileges that they are almost independent. Neufchatel has several times suffered greatly by fire, and in 1750 endured as much from two inundations of the Seyon.

It ought not to be omitted that on one of the summits of the Jura chain, near a scattered village called la Cote aux Fees, is a very superb temple hewn out of the rock, in which Mercury was anciently consulted by means of certain prophetesses. It is with great difficulty that a person can descend to the entrance, before which is a stately portal, where an almost inaccessible rock forms an arcade of a stupendous magnitude.

SECT. XXVIII.

The Republic of GENEVA.

Its Situation and Produce. With a particular Description of the Lake of Geneva, and of the City of that Name.

THE republic of Geneva, by the Germans called Genff, and by the French Genève, is the last of the allies of Switzerland. This republic is but of small extent, for, exclusive of the city of Geneva, it does not contain above eleven parishes, eight of which are partly under the jurisdiction of the duke of Savoy; yet it is a considerable ally of the Swiss cantons. The country in general is very fruitful and populous: its villages are large, well built, and adorned with many fine houses belonging to the citizens of Geneva. It abounds with fruit, and produces white and red wine; the former indeed is small, but the latter excellent. The only corn sowed here is wheat, which its soil bears here in great plenty; and the republic constantly keeps a large magazine of it against a time of scarcity, when they sell it out at a reasonable rate; and in a time of plenty, they also oblige the bakers, and those who keep public houses, to buy it of them, but at a moderate price.

The lake of Geneva resembles the sea, both in the colour of its water, the storms that are raised on it, and in the ravages it makes on its banks, and is as little subject to frost as the lake of Constance. It receives different names from the coasts it washes, and has in summer something like the ebbing and flowing of the tide, occasioned by the melting of the snows, that fall more copiously into it at noon, than at other times of the day. It has five different states bordering on it; these are France, the dutchy of Savoy, the canton of Bern, the bishopric of Sitten, and the republic of Geneva. This lake is in

shape like a half moon, whose convex side looks towards Switzerland; so that it is sixteen leagues in length on this side; while towards Savoy, it does not exceed twelve. It is pretty narrow at both ends; but widens by degrees to the middle, where it is twenty-five miles over. As to its depth, it is said in some places to be unfathomable; and is therefore navigable by larger vessels than are commonly seen in rivers. Near Villeneuve, the Rhone discharges itself into it with such rapidity, that for the distance of half a league its water, which is very foul, continues unmixed with that of the lake, which is very clear; but afterwards, says Mr. Keyser, there is no visible distinction, though some of the ancient, and several of the modern writers affirm the contrary. Formerly this lake afforded trouts of fifty or sixty pounds weight; but now one of twenty or thirty is reckoned very large.

The Rhone, at its influx, forms an island, on which, together with the banks on both sides, stands the city of Geneva, which is thus divided into three unequal parts, that have a communication by four bridges, and is situated in the forty-sixth degree twelve minutes north latitude, and in the sixth degree nineteen minutes east longitude. The greatest part of the city is seated on a hill, and has its view bounded on all sides by several ranges of mountains; but these are at so great a distance, that they leave open a surprising variety of beautiful prospects, and from their situation, cover the country they inclose from all winds except the south and north, and to the last of these winds the inhabitants of this city ascribe the healthfulness of the air; for as the Alps surround the city on all sides, forming a vast basin, within which is a well watered country, there would here be a constant stagnation of vapours, did not the north wind put them in motion, and scatter them from time to time. From this situation Mr. Addison observes, the sun rises later at Geneva, and sets sooner, than in other places of the same latitude; and the tops of the neighbouring mountains are covered with light above half an hour after the sun is down at Geneva. These mountains also much increase the heats of summer, and form an horizon that has something in it very singular and agreeable. On the one hand a long range of hills, distinguished by the name of mount Jura, is covered with pasture and vineyards; and on the other huge precipices, formed of naked rocks, rise in a thousand odd figures, and being cleft in some places, discover high mountains of snow, at the distance of several leagues behind them. To the southward, the hills rising more insensibly, leave the eye a vast uninterrupted prospect; but the most beautiful view is that of the lake, and its borders, that lie north of the town.

The part on the right side of the Rhone, which from a church of that name is called St. Gervais, is very much inferior both in its dimensions and beauty to the buildings on the eminence on the left side of that river; but for these thirty years past, daily improvements have been made in every part of the city. The large and beautiful fortifications have drawn hither several sorts of workmen, and occasioned many judicious measures for procuring materials for building at a reasonable rate; so that what might at first appear to raise the price of private building, has had a very contrary effect. New-street consists of fine buildings, particularly the house facing the Treille, or walks made behind the town-house. These walks consist of lime-trees, and being on an eminence, afford a beautiful prospect of the large gardens beneath them, and of the fields and meadows towards the mountains. One of the most magnificent houses is that of Mr. Lullin, an ecclesiastic, which is said to have cost him above eighty thousand dollars. Some streets of the Lower Town have a kind of piazzas; but they are loftier than those of Bern, and project farther. Shelters of this kind are very convenient in a city without coaches.

Among the public buildings we ought not to omit St. Peter's church, which was formerly a cathedral, and is a spacious antient structure, in the form of a cross. In the front is the figure of the sun, which was worshipped in the time of the Pagans, and which the city several ages after took for its device, with this motto,

POST

POST TENEBRAS SPERO LUCEM; but after the inhabitants had embraced the Reformation, the motto was changed for POST TENEBRAS LUX; the former denoting that after darkness, it hoped for light, and the other, that light was come. In the nave of the church behind the pulpit are the statues of the twelve apostles carved in wood, as on the other side are the twelve prophets.

It is remarkable, that in the churches the kings of England and France are nominally prayed for. The Christian behaviour and peaceable temper of the clergy here, may serve for a pattern to their brethren differing from them in some doctrinal points. Both the clergy and laity are averse to any discourse on the proceedings against Servetus, and wish that the whole matter was buried in oblivion.

On the Plainpalais without the city, is the general burial-place, and in this church-yard the body of Calvin lies interred; but the inhabitants of Geneva, to shew their aversion to sectarism, will not tell or seem to know in what place it is deposited; but it is said, that a Lutheran ecclesiastic was buried close by Calvin.

Adjoining to the cathedral of St. Peter is the chapel of the Maccabees, where both the Germans and Italians perform divine worship, and where also the professors of philosophy read their lectures. Besides the two churches and this chapel, already mentioned, there are four other churches. The general hospital is a new building that has a particular chaplain of its own. The French have likewise an hospital for the relief of their brethren. The town-house is a stately edifice of free-stone, situated on an eminence not far from the cathedral, and in it is a spiral passage paved with square stones, where a person may walk or ride under cover from the bottom to the top; and at a small distance from it is the arsenal, in which are shewn the ladders, a charged petard, and other implements made use of by the Savoyards in their famous design of surprising the city by night in 1602, when they were repulsed and beaten off with all the ignominy their perfidiousness deserved. The university, which is reckoned among the most celebrated in Europe, was founded in 1558, and has twelve professors belonging to it, with a very valuable library, in which are some curious manuscripts. At the efflux of the Rhine out of the lake is a building in which are kept the public barges, yachts, and vessels built for their defence.

Without the gates are handsome seats, delightful gardens, and pleasant walks. The salubrity of the air, with the excellent provisions, the agreeable situation of the place, the politeness of the inhabitants, the great number of manufacturers and artificers, as also of persons passing through it from Germany or France to Italy, or from Italy to France, as likewise of young foreign gentlemen residing here to perfect themselves in the French tongue, polite literature, and other academical exercises, contribute to render this city extremely delightful.

Great quantities of beautiful manufactures and fabrics are made here; and among many works of ingenuity that of watch-making is carried on with great success. Its trade is, however, somewhat declined; but is still very considerable, on account of its being a thoroughfare for goods passing from France to Germany and Italy, as also from Germany to France, they being easily shipped from hence on the Rhine or the Rhone.

The revenues of the city, besides that arising from the sale of the corn, which is inconsiderable, annually amount to about a hundred and thirty thousand dollars, the greatest part of which are employed in the salaries of the civil and ecclesiastical officers, in the building and repairs of the public edifices, and in the payment of the garrison, which consists of eight hundred men well disciplined, who wear an uniform of blue faced with red.

The power has been immemorially lodged in the people, who consist of about fifteen hundred burghers; their chiefs being four syndics, who, with twenty one councilmen, constitute the supreme court of twenty-five, of which two persons of one family cannot be members at the same time.

The next is the more severe court, consisting of sixty, and the great council of two hundred. The syndics are chosen by the people out of the council of twenty-one; and they continue in office but a year: however, they retain their seat in the council, and are capable of being chosen again. For the support of credit it is enacted by an express law, that no son who does not discharge his father's debts shall be capable of any office.

This little republic has some peculiar ordinances relating to matrimony. No marriage is permitted unless both parties be Protestants; all previous promises or engagements of a Reformed with a Roman catholic, are declared void, and the agents, with those who have given their assent to it, are punishable according to the nature of the circumstances. A woman of forty years of age cannot marry a man that is ten years younger than herself; if above forty, her choice is confined to five years younger. A man about sixty is not to marry a woman who is not at least above half that age; and a widow must remain such six months before she can alter her condition. In this particular a man is not expressly limited; but is, however, enjoined to wait a reasonable time, with this singular addition, "both to obviate scandal, and to shew that he has felt the hand of God."

The maintenance of a good police, and the suppression of luxury, is the province of a particular chamber; but a very extraordinary fund here, is that arising from the dirt of the streets. In other places money is paid for having it carried away, whereas here it is farmed for eight hundred livres paid to the city, for the exclusive privilege of taking it away for manuring land.

C H A P. XXIII.

Of I T A L Y.

S E C T. I.

Of ITALY in general.

Its Names, Situation, Figure, Extent, Mountains, Rivers, and Produce. The Arts, Language, Religion, Customs, Manners, and Food of the Inhabitants, with the Divisions of the Country.

ITALY was antiently known by the names of Saturnia, Oenotria, Ausonia, and Hesperia. The first was derived from Saturn, the second and third from its primitive inhabitants, and the fourth, which signifies a western country, from the Greeks; because lying to the west of them. In succeeding times it obtained the name of Italia, according to some authors from Italus, a king, of Sicily; but in the opinion of others from the Greek word *Ιταλος*, which signifies an ox, this country, from the richness of its pastures, being remarkable for the abundance of its fine oxen. Each of these appellations, at first peculiar to distinct territories, were afterwards given to the whole country.

Italy, including Sicily, lies between the thirty-seventh and forty-sixth degree of north latitude, and between the seventh and nineteenth degree of east longitude. Nature has fixed its boundaries; for towards the east, south, and west, it is washed by the Adriatic and Mediterranean seas, and to the north by the high and lofty mountains of the Alps. Its figure is generally compared to that of a boot, and is therefore divided into three parts; the top of the boot containing antient Lombardy; in the upper part of the leg are the territories of the church and of Tuscany; and in the small of the leg and foot is the kingdom of Naples. The length from Aosta, at the foot of the Alps, to the promontory called Capo del Armi, in Lower Calabria, is computed at near eight hundred Italian miles, which make about seven hundred and twenty-six English statute miles. Its breadth at the foot of the Alps is five hundred and sixty Italian miles; and through the middle, that is, between Ancona and the mouth of the Tiber, one hundred and thirty-six; but in some places hardly twenty-five.

The principal mountains in Italy are the Alps and the Apennines. The Alps, of which we have given some account in treating of Swisserland, are a long chain of mountains, that begin at the mouth of the river Var, and, after many irregular windings, terminate near the river Arsa in Istria. They divide Italy from France, Swisserland, and Germany, and are variously denominated according to their situation. The Alps on the sea-coast reach from Vada or Vado, to the source of the Var, or even to that of the Po; the Cottian Alps, from the source of the Var to the city of Susa; the Greek Alps, from the city of Susa to mount St. Bernard; the Peninian Alps, from mount St. Bernard to mount St. Gotthard; on these border the Rhætian Alps, which extend to the source of the river Piava; and lastly, to mention no more, the Noric, or Carnician Alps, which extend from the river Piava to Istria, and the source of the Sauffrom. We have already given an account of some surprising particulars relating to these stupendous mountains, and shall give others no less extraordinary in treating of Savoy and Piedmont.

The Apennine mountains take their rise near the Alps, on the sea-coast, in the territories of Genoa, and dividing Italy into almost two equal parts, reach to the streights that separate Italy from Sicily, and give rise to an incredible variety of rivers that water this delightful country. The largest and most remarkable of the rivers of Italy are the following:

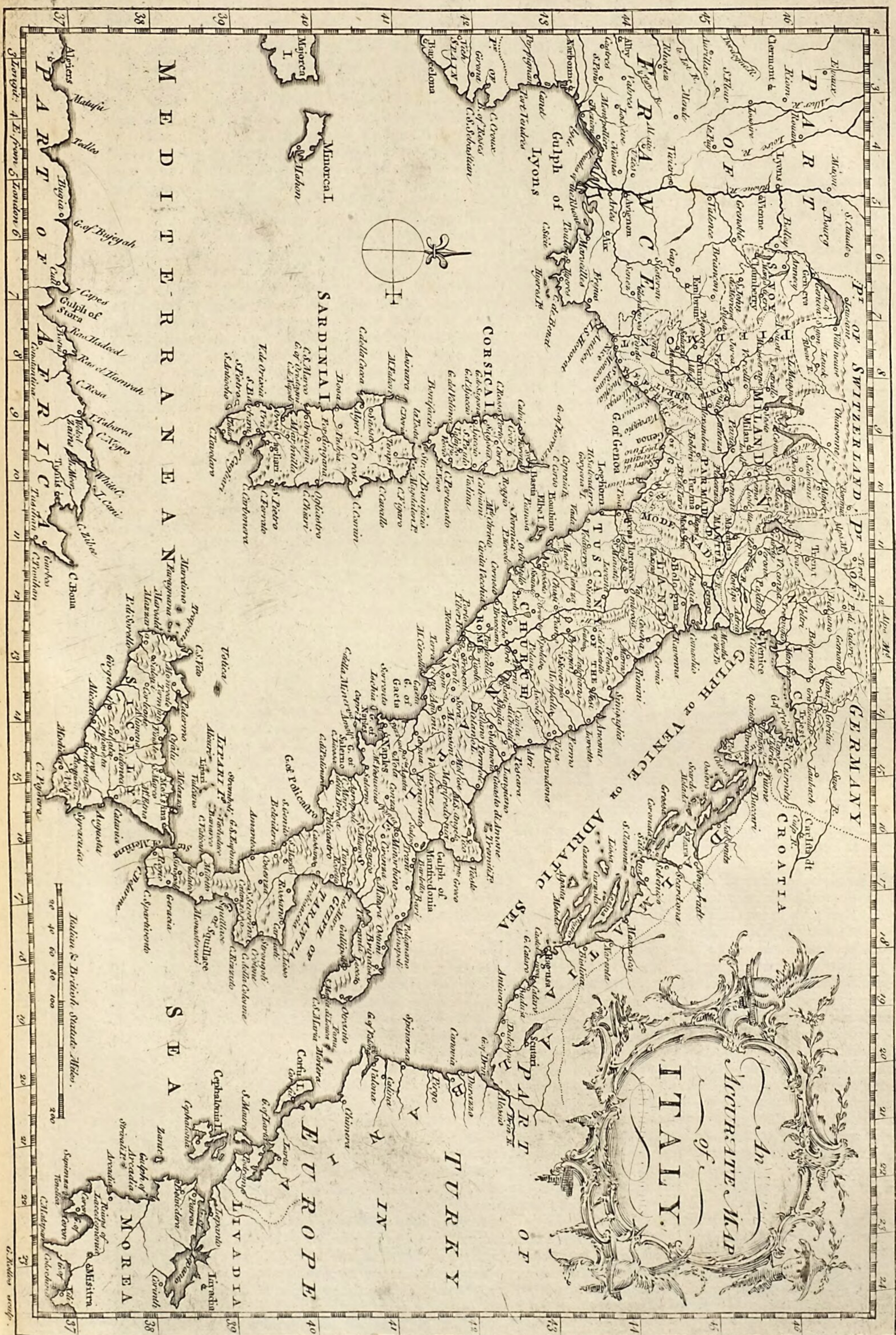
The Po, which rises in mount Veso, one of the highest of all the Alps, and after receiving upwards of thirty

small rivers, discharges itself into the Adriatic by seven different mouths. The Adige, in Latin *Athesis*, has its source in the Rhætian Alps, and waters the cities of Trent and Verona, it being the only large river in Lombardy, and instead of joining the Po, runs like that river into the Adriatic. The Arno flows from the Apennine mountains, and falls into the Tuscan sea near Pisa. The Tiber rises also out of the Apennine mountains, and at a small distance from Rome; empties itself into the Tuscan sea. Besides these there are many others.

This country produces in great plenty all the necessities and conveniences of life; for all the variety of delicacies that lie scattered, as it were, in other countries, are here almost every where met with in profusion. These consist in corn, rich wines, and the choicest fruits; as oranges, citrons, lemons, olives, pomegranates, &c. raisins, almonds, sugar, oils, mulberry-trees, beyond number, to facilitate the producing of silk; tame and wild beasts, alabaster, jasper, gold, silver, sulphur, iron, alum, &c. On this account authors have been extremely lavish in their praises of this fine country, which they have stiled the parent of plenty; the source of earthly felicity; the pride of our earth; the garden of Europe; and the beauty of the world. But it must be acknowledged that the fine plants, which, from time to time, have been introduced into the western and northern countries from Italy, as the reputed mother of them, are not all original natives, the far greater part being transplanted to the Italian soil from the east. Thus all the fruit-trees, the produce of which the Latins called *mala*, were transplanted to Italy after the conquest of the Romans in Africa, Greece, Asia Minor, and Syria. The apricots came from Epirus, and are called *mala Epirotica*; the peaches are named *mala Persica*, from their being brought from Persia; the citrons *mala Medica*, from their being transplanted from Media; the pomegranates *mala Punica*, from Carthage; and chesnuts were transplanted from the town of Castania, in the district of Magnesia, in Macedonia. The best pears were sent from Alexandria, Numidia, Greece, and Numantia, as their Latin names sufficiently indicate. The first plums were imported from Armenia and Syria, especially from Damascus. Lucius Lucullus was the first who introduced cherry-trees from Pontus, which soon after became the growth of all other countries in Europe.

But however rich and fertile Italy in general may be deemed, yet no small difference is discoverable with respect to the fruitfulness of the soil, the salubrity of the air, and the pleasantness of its provinces. It is subject to several great inconveniences, particularly in the middle and lower parts, and in most countries the number of inhabitants is far from being sufficient for the improvement and culture of this fruitful soil. On considering the multitude of people in Italy, during the reigns of the Roman emperors, its present desolateness, which is most perceptible in the papal dominions, cannot but appear surprising. The ingenious Mr. Addison was of opinion, that the Campania of ancient Rome contained more people than are at present throughout all Italy, and that there is not a town of any consequence in the whole country where the ecclesiastics do not make at least one-third of the inhabitants.

The ancient inhabitants of Italy were the triumphant conquerors and rulers of the world. The softer arts have now taken place, and seem the chief employment of the modern Italians. Painting was indeed introduced at Rome by Caius Fabius, and was brought to considerable perfection before the time of Augustus; but a corrupt taste soon after prevailing, the politer arts were obliterated, and by degrees sunk into oblivion. Since the decay of the Roman empire, Painting paid Italy a second visit,



visit, and the masters that excelled in it for a long time preserved an unrivalled reputation. Whether the first Greek painters came to Bologna, Florence, or any other city, has been warmly disputed. In the thirteenth century, most of the church painting was either in Mosaic or fresco. The first painters who distinguished themselves, were generally also statuarys and architects, and their works are still the admiration of the curious. The invention of engraving is claimed by the Italians; but that honour is only justly due to the Germans; for Andrew Mantegna, who died in 1517, in the 69th year of his age, was the first who applied himself with success to this art in Italy. The Italians still maintain their superior character for skill in statuary. Some causes of the advancement of this science among them, is their having the noblest models, which they keep before them; the many lectures and conferences in the academies; the liberal payments; the constant opportunity of displaying their skill; the incentives of praise; and the gaining of prizes. Almost every city has an academy of sculpture and painting, and some places more particularly distinguish themselves by excelling in particular branches of sculpture. The Italians have also distinguished themselves in architecture.

Italy has produced great men in all sciences, and formerly gave birth to those generals, orators, poets, and historians, whose actions and writings will be revered as long as manly fortitude, polite learning, and elegant composition, are considered as ornaments of human nature. Yet its state of literature cannot now be deemed considerable, though encouraged not only by several universities, but by a multiplicity of academies or literary societies, which are to be found almost in every city. Some of these affect very odd and whimsical names, as the *Otiosi*, *Humoristi*, *Lincei*, *Fantastici*, *Immobili*, *Imperfecti*, *Inquieti*, *Incogniti*, *Discordanti*, *Occulti*, *Ardenti*, *Catenati*, &c. and indeed most of their productions are tinged with the singularity of these appellations.

The Italian language is originally derived from the Latin, with which the many nations of Goths, Huns, Vandals, &c. that over-run Italy, so mingled their dialect as to give birth to a new language, at first very lavish; but gradually polished, and softened into its present agreeable smoothness. Its genius seems particularly adapted to poetry and music; for which the Italians are also famous: and hence the Italian singers are more in request than those of any other nation.

The Popish is the only religion generally tolerated in Italy, and here the pope has his seat in quality of head of the church of Rome. The Jews indeed enjoy a kind of toleration; but it is in most places under great restrictions. However, they enjoy an entire liberty in the city of Leghorn.

The Italians are polite, affable, and ingenious; they endeavour to recommend themselves by their wisdom and gravity; observing a just medium between the stately gravity of the Spaniards, and the airy levity of the French. They are said to act a buffoon, a mimic, or a scaramouch, better than any other nation; and to be as apish and whimsical during the carnival, when under a mask, as any other people; but are too wise to do it with a bare face. They have a warm sense of gratitude, and upon all occasions are ready and willing to return an obligation, though ever so small; but, on the other hand, are jealous and revengeful; very retentive of the sense of an injury, especially where their own honour, or that of a wife, sister, or mistress, is concerned, and in these cases scruple not to proceed to treachery and murder: but as they are very courteous to strangers, especially after they have begun an acquaintance or friendship with them they are very cautious of disobliging or quarrelling with them. They are extremely nice in all the punctilios of civility, and no people are more profuse of strained compliments, and pompous titles. Whispering in company, speaking in another language, and interrupting a man before he has done speaking, are esteemed the height of ill breeding, and are scrupulously avoided by all polite people; and reflecting upon persons, either absent or present, is no less detested.

The nobility and gentry lavish their money on fine houses, paintings, statues, beautiful gardens, grottos,

fountains, and cascades, more than in keeping a splendid table, and indulging in the luxuries common in other parts of Europe; and though the great are fond of rich equipages, coaches, and a large retinue of servants, they do not suffer the latter to interfere with the oeconomy of their table; but commonly keep their servants at board-wages.

They commonly sleep about two hours after dinner, which is but a slight meal in comparison with their suppers. These last they begin with roast meats, and end with soups, and the like. Boiled snails, served up with oil and pepper, or fried in oil, and the hinder part of frogs, are esteemed delicacies; and several sorts of fowl are eaten here by the great, which the poorest amongst us would hardly touch, as kites, hawks, jackdaws, and magpies. They both eat and drink very sparingly, and have their wine cooled by ice or snow.

The inns in the little towns, says Mr. Misson, are ill furnished with provisions, especially on some roads. The first course, called the *antipasto*, is a dish of giblets boiled with salt and pepper, and mixed with whites of eggs; after which come two or three small dishes, one after another, of different ragouts. Between Rome and Naples, the traveller is sometimes regaled with the flesh of buffaloes and crows; but that of the buffaloes is black and hard, and that beast must be hunted, otherwise it is impossible to chew its flesh. In all our travels through Italy, says the above author, we never saw either a hare or a partridge in the fields: and I might also add, that we saw none in the inns, which is the more extraordinary; as there are large spots of ground in Italy that are almost uninhabited, and consequently might be expected to abound with game, like other places of the same kind, in other parts of the world: besides, the lords of these grounds seldom reside upon them, and yet are as jealous of their rights as those of other countries. Quails, however, are not such rarities; for on the approach of spring, they come in such flocks from Africa, as to cover the whole country; at which time they are so tired with their long passage, that they throw themselves into the ships, and wherever they can find a place to repose themselves, and may be caught in heaps without the least struggling; but as they are extremely lean, those who take them usually feed them some time before they eat them.

Among the various sorts of wine in this country, is one called *Lacryma Christi*, or the tears of Christ. About Loretto their wine casks are made short and broad, like a dutch cheese; but towards Pavia, their length is about seven times their diameter.

Towards Parma and Placentia, where there are excellent pastures, they make cheese of all their milk. As butter is scarce in Italy, they use oil in all their ragouts and fricasees; but though they draw it from their own olive-trees, it is frequently worse than in those countries where none of those trees grow; for what will yield a price, and keep longest, is always exported for the sake of gain.

It is remarkable that the Italians begin the day immediately after sun-set, and their clocks always strike twenty-four hours from one sun-setting to another. According to this manner of computation, the hour of noon varies daily; for when the sun sets at four o'clock according to our calculation, they reckon one when we count five, and consequently it is noon at twenty hours; and in like manner, when the sun sets at eight on our dials, it is one o'clock with them when we reckon nine, and just noon at sixteen hours; and yet with respect to the artificial day between sun-rising and sun-setting, they, like us, use the words yesterday and to-morrow.

The Italian manufactures and trade are in a flourishing condition. Italy has a great variety of excellent wines, fruits, and commodities, which it exports, and its silks alone make a very considerable article. The most famous annual fairs in Lombardy are held at Alessandria, Cremona, Bergamo, Brescia, Verona, Reggio, and Placentia.

Each state has its own coin both great and small, the knowledge of which, though requiring a particular application, may be gathered from the following account, which contains only what is necessary.

In SAVOY and PIEDMONT.

Twenty foldi make one lira, or pound, which is equal to one shilling English. The louis d'ors and Spanish pistoles are worth sixteen liras; the Savoyard pistoles, fifteen liras three-fourths. Other Italian pistoles, fifteen and a half. The Italian silver crown is valued at five liras and five foldi; a ducat or ongaro at eight liras thirteen foldi; a Milanese filippo at four liras thirteen and a half foldi.

In the MILANESE.

Three Milanese liras are equal to two Piedmontese. One filippo is worth seven liras and ten foldi, about five shillings sterling, two shillings being equal to three liras. A Spanish pistole, twenty-four liras and between three and four foldi. An Italian pistole, twenty-four liras. A ducat in gold is worth thirteen liras sixteen foldi. A ducatoon of Milan, Venice, and Florence, or a silver crown, is equal to eight liras: and a zechine in gold is worth fourteen liras ten foldi.

At VENICE.

Two foldi make one cassetti, ten cassetti one lira, equal to about six-pence two-fifths sterling. One ducato corrente is worth six liras and a half, sixty-two cassetti, or one hundred and twenty-four foldi. A ducato di banco, or four shillings and four-pence sterling, is an imaginary coin, and worth five liras one-sixth. A doppia, or a Venetian, Spanish, Genoese, Florentine, and French pistole, is equal to twenty-nine liras current, or thirty-six of the base liras. A zecchino is eighteen liras and a quarter. A ducat of gold, or ongaro, is equal to sixteen liras. A large silver crown, eleven liras current, in common currency thirteen base liras eighteen foldi. A justinian and filippo, eight liras ten foldi; but common currency, ten liras two foldi.

At GENOA.

Twelve denari make one foldi, and twenty foldi are equal to one lira; which is about eight-pence three-fifths sterling. A piece of eight goes here for five liras. A scudo d'oro, or half doppia di Spagna, is nine liras eight foldi. A scudi d'argento is worth seven liras twelve foldi. A scudo di Cambio, four liras. A filippo di Milano, five liras eight foldi. A scudo d'argento, ninety foldi moneta carta, in which coin the customs are paid. A doppia d'España, French weight, is nineteen liras two foldi current. A doppia di Genoua, eighteen liras sixteen foldi. A doppia d'Italia, full weight, is eighteen liras eighteen foldi.

At FLORENCE.

Twelve denari make a soldo; twenty foldi a scudo. A scudo d'oro is an imaginary coin, which is reckoned at seven and a half liras, or one hundred and fifty foldi. A testoon is worth two liras, or three giuli. A Spanish pistole is valued at twenty liras and about four foldi, or between thirty and thirty-one giuli. An Italian pistole, twenty liras, or thirty giuli. A ducat, or silver crown, seven liras, or ten giuli and a half. A piece of eight, six liras; but in paying of custom one hundred and fifteen foldi, or five liras three-fourths.

At LEGHORN.

One gratia is equal to one soldo and one-third or five quatrini. One giuli di Roma is eight gratie. One testoon is two liras, or three giuli. One lira, which is an imaginary coin, is one giuli and a half, twenty foldi, or two hundred and forty denari; and one soldo, twelve denari. One pezzo is twenty foldi; one pezzo d'ollo reali, or piece of eight, is six liras nine giuli, or a hundred and twenty foldi, about four shillings sterling. Seven liras make one ducat, which is the piastra or scudo of Florence. One Spanish pistole is valued at twenty liras, and between four and five foldi or thirty-two giuli. One Italian pistole is twenty liras, or thirty giuli.

At BOLOGNA.

Twelve denari make six quadrini, which are equal to one soldo; twenty foldi, or bajochi, or Bolognini, make one lira, and two giuli are equivalent to one lira. A scudo, or pezzo d'otto, is four liras five foldi, or eighty-five Bolognini, about four shillings and three-pence English. One Spanish pistole is sixteen liras, and between ten and twelve foldi. One zechino is nineteen giuli. One ducat, or ongaro, is eighteen giuli, or nine liras ten foldi, or about five shillings and three-pence English; a ducatoon, or silver crown, ten giuli and a half.

At ROME.

One bajocho, a copper coin, is equal to five quatrini. Ten bajochi are worth one giulo, as also one paolo. Seven gazetta, and one quatrini, are likewise equivalent to one paolo; and one gazetta is seven quatrini. Ten giuli make one scudo monita, or current, which is about four shillings and four-pence sterling. A Spanish pistole is thirty-two giuli, or paoli, more or less. One Italian pistole is thirty-one giuli, or paoli.

At NAPLES.

Three quatrini make one grana; ten grana, one carlini; two carlini, one taro; five tari, one ducato; forty-five carlini, one Spanish pistole; twenty-six carlini, one zechino; twenty carlini, one ongaro.

With respect to the divisions of this country, antient and modern, it was originally formed into a multitude of small states, and afterwards the Gauls settling in the western, and many Greek colonies in the eastern provinces, it was, from its different inhabitants, divided into three large parts, called Gallia Cisalpina, Italy properly so called, and Magna Grecia; and this division is generally met with among antient geographers and historians. But the Romans at length subdued all Italy, after which it was divided by Augustus into eleven provinces; but his authority dying with him, the old division was again received, and continued under the Roman emperors till the invasion of the Goths and Herulians in the fifth century. The Grecian or eastern emperors at length drove out the Ostrogoths, and made themselves masters of Italy. But the Longobardi possessing themselves of the upper parts, at last reduced what belonged to the eastern emperors under the name of the exarchate; which was also on the other side abolished by the Saracens, who had seized upon Sicily and Naples. The pope thus on the point of losing all, had recourse to the Franks, and Charlemagne their king, after his conquering the kingdom of Lombardy, was proclaimed Roman emperor at Rome on the twenty-fifth of December, 800. But the authority of the Roman emperor was of short continuance in Italy, it being insensibly curtailed by the ambition and avarice of the popes, and at last brought to the lowest ebb on the extinction of the Swabian line. Hence Italy was again parcelled out into a great number of small territories.

Mr. Addison's observations on this subject are extremely just: "If a man considers, says he, the face of Italy in general, one would think that nature had laid it out into such a variety of states and governments as one finds in it. For as the Alps at one end, and the long range of Apennines, that passes through the body of it, branch out on all sides into several different divisions, they serve as so many natural boundaries and fortifications to the little territories that lie among them. Accordingly we find the whole country cut into a multitude of particular kingdoms and commonwealths in the oldest accounts we have of it, till the power of the Romans, like a torrent that overflows its banks, bore down all before it, and spread itself into the remotest corners of the nation. But as this exorbitant power became unable to support itself, we find the government of Italy again broken into such a variety of sub-divisions as naturally suits with its situation."

Italy includes both the main land and the islands. The main land is commonly divided into three large parts, the

the Upper, Middle, and Lower. This division is very proper, and coincides with that of the antient geographers. Upper Italy at present contains the greatest part of the antient Gallia Cisalpina and Lombardy; which consists of seven large duchies, ten small principalities, and three republics. Middle Italy forms a part of Gallia Cisalpina and of the antient Italy, or, in other words, of the grand duchy of Tuscany, the ecclesiastical state, and some other small countries. Lower Italy contains a part of the antient Italy Proper, and Magna Grecia, at present the kingdom of Naples. We shall begin with Upper Italy, and, in giving an account of the several states, shall comprehend under one head the description of the countries belonging to the same prince, whether on the continent, or in the islands.

In describing the several countries of Upper Italy, we shall first treat of the king of Sardinia's dominions, and having given an account of those on the continent of Italy, shall from thence proceed to the kingdom and island of Sardinia; previously observing, that this kingdom and the principality of Piedmont are independent countries, but that the duchies of Savoy and Monferrat are fiefs of the empire.

S E C T. II.

Of the Duchy of SAVOY.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce; a particular Description of the Montagnes Maudites, or Cursed Mountains; and of the Alavanches, or monstrous Snow-Balls. Of the Rivers and Lakes of Savoy, particularly of the astonishing Course of the Arvo, and the Road near it. The Manners and Way of Life of the Savoyards, with a particular Account of their Method of carrying Travellers over Mount Cenis, and of their sliding down from that Mountain. The Oppression of the Nobility, with the Titles and Arms of the King of Sardinia; an Account of the principal Order of Knighthood, with the Prerogatives and Revenues of the Sovereign. A concise Account of the principal Places in Savoy.

THE duchy of Savoy, called in Latin Sabaudia, is bounded on the west by France; on the south by France and Piedmont; on the east by Piedmont, the Milanese, and Swisserland; and on the north by the lake of Geneva, by which it is separated from Swisserland. Its greatest length from east to west is eighty-eight English miles, and its breadth from north to south seventy-six.

Savoy seems sequestered from all incentives to luxury and softness, by their lofty barren mountains and enormous rocks, by which the greater part of it is overrun, and are known to produce only some moss and shrubs, with box-trees, which grow in such plenty, that brooms are made of them. The valleys between the mountains yield some grain; but abound more in pasture; for the industry of the inhabitants has made the best improvements in the mountains themselves which the soil would admit of. The wine about the lake of Geneva, Momelian, and St. John Maurienne, is not contemptible; and some parts have such a good breed of cattle, that most of the oxen in Piedmont and the Milanese are sent from Savoy. Mules are also bred for exportation; but all this is inconsiderable in proportion to the greatest part of the country, which is taken up by huge mountains.

Some of the highest of these mountains are called the Glacieres, or Ice Valleys, and the Montagnes Maudites, or Cursed Mountains in Faucigny, the perpendicular height of the latter, from the surface of the lake of Geneva, is computed to be at least two thousand fathoms, which are equal to twelve thousand eight hundred and sixteen feet, or above two English miles; and the surface of the lake of Geneva is four hundred and twenty-six fathoms higher than the level of the Mediterranean. The ascent to these mountains is very steep, craggy, and slippery, but not continued; a new ridge of mountains frequently appearing on the other side, higher and more steep than that which is left behind; till at length, from the last eminence to be surmounted, the prospect of the frozen valley appears in full view, and on the opposite

side a chain of craggy inaccessible rocks, covered with ice and snow, and so scarped and split, that at some distance they appear like prodigious piles of Gothic buildings and ruins, while the surface of the frozen valley below seems speckled, if we may thus express ourselves with rocks of a monstrous size, that are broken off, and fallen from the higher grounds. Here the air is so extremely cold and piercing, that though the months of July and August are alone fit for this journey, men are then forced to go cloathed as in the depth of winter. Mr. Addison observes, with respect to the sharp rocks on the tops of the mountains, that they were probably once much higher than they are at present, the rains having washed away abundance of the soil, and left the veins of stone shooting out of them; as in a decayed body, the flesh continues shrinking from the bones.

It is proper here to take notice of the Alavanches, or monstrous snow-balls, which are the more dreadful as they always come suddenly down with such incredible rapidity, that they carry all before them; so that whenever they happen to fall along these steep declivities, it is next to impossible for travellers to avoid being swept away with them. They are commonly occasioned only by the dropping of some small quantity of snow blown by the wind from some prominent rock, or shook off by the stumbling of a horse, the firing of a gun or pistol, or by any thing else that shakes the air. This piece of snow, though at first very small, rolling down the steep descents, gathers up such fresh quantities as it rolls, and increases so astonishingly in bulk, that it tears up trees and sometimes part of a wood by the roots, with houses, churches, men, and horses, nothing being able to resist the force of these balls, till they have got quite down to the bottom, where they generally break in pieces by the violence of the shock, and sometimes cover a whole village, which lies buried under it. These balls are more particularly dangerous for travellers in those roads which are along the sides of the high mountains, where, to prevent their being overtaken by them, they commonly fire a pistol or gun at every quarter or half a mile, to shake off all the loose snow that is apt to occasion them; after which they travel through that space with all the silence and speed they can.

These amazing kind of snow balls are not peculiar to this country; but are common in Swisserland, several parts of Germany, and Italy; but they are more frequently found in these parts of Savoy, where they are also larger and more dreadful. Some of them by the tract they leave behind are found to be above a hundred yards in diameter. In the year 1695 one of them fell upon a village called Valmedia, which destroyed eleven houses, and as many barns and stables so entirely, that there scarce remained one stone upon another; and a number of men, women, children, and cattle were lost. The noise they make resembles a long and loud clap of thunder, and is heard among the echoing rocks and mountains at several leagues distance; and yet so rapid is their motion, that passengers have not time to avoid them.

The chief rivers in this country are, the Rhine, which flows out of the lake of Geneva, and on that side separates it from France; into it run the following rivers: the Arvo, which rises in Faucigny, and, near Geneva, discharges itself into the Rhone: the Susses and Siers, the sources of which are in the Genevois, and fall into the Rhone near the Seisel: the Isere, which rises at the foot of Mount Iseran, and, among other rivers, receives the Arc, which, having a great many water-falls, is very rapid, and full of foam.

The river Arvo, just mentioned, runs for many miles between high craggy and inaccessible rocks, which seem as if split on purpose to give its rapid waters a free passage. The surprising echoes and continual sounds occasioned by its streams, the trampling of the horses and mules, the hallowing of passengers, &c. in these places are reverberated three, four, and even in some parts six or seven times, with such frightful loudness, as strikes the traveller unaccustomed to them with terror; and the firing of a gun, or pistol, is here more terrible than the loudest claps of thunder. The roads which are cut along the sides of the steep rocks, and in many places are not above five or six feet wide, afford both above and below

the dreadful prospect of a steep precipice, with impending monstrous rocks that seem just ready to fall, which, joined to the roaring noise of the river, strikes the amazed beholder with horror. The great cataracts of that river in several places are more or less loud and terrible, according as the waters are more or less swelled by the melting snows, with which the tops of the mountains are covered. One in particular, called by the inhabitants the Nun of Arpena, falls from a prodigious high rock with great noise and violence. The fall of this cataract is here said to be above eleven hundred feet. We shall only add, that the Arvo, which travellers are obliged to cross over seven or eight times, has all along that way bridges, some very strong and beautiful, and others so old and crazy, that it is almost impossible to pass over them without fear.

Besides the four rivers above-mentioned there are many smaller ones, with innumerable springs and rivulets which flow down from the adjacent hills; and what appears surprising, many of these, which are several yards in breadth, run a long way by the sides and declivities of the hills two or three miles above the valleys, watering a number of large villages situated along the hills before they fall down into the plains. The beds of these rivulets seem indeed to have been made by art, and are deep enough to receive the waters that come from the higher parts of the mountains, which increase with their course, till meeting with some impediments, they fall with great violence into the flat grounds, and there either form themselves into lakes, or discharge themselves into some of the greater rivers.

The principal lakes are those of Annecy in the Genevois, and Bourget in Savoy. The last has a fish unknown in other countries, called lavaretta, which frequently weighs four or five pounds, and is so palatable, that it never fails of bringing a good price at Chamberry. Here are also some remarkable springs, particularly near the lake of Bourget is one that rises and falls with some noise; but not at stated and regular times. After Easter this alteration is frequently perceived six times in an hour; but in dry seasons not above once or twice: it issues from a rock, and is called la Fontaine de Merveille. Of a different kind are the springs of this country, that sometimes throw up more or less water, according to the alterations in the Rhone; but not by such a short and frequent flux and reflux as in the spring just mentioned.

The Savoyards, from the nature of their country, are generally so poor, that a traveller meets few people on the public road, who do not recommend themselves to his benevolence; and a farmer with a yoke of oxen, two horses, four cows, a few goats and sheep, and a small parcel of land, is esteemed a man of considerable fortune. Their bread is of oats; but the more wealthy use some wheat. Their other food consists of butter, cheese, walnuts, garden-stuff, and sometimes, though seldom, flesh meat; and their drink is milk and good water. However, those who live in the valleys fare somewhat better. They are all, however, chearful, have healthful florid complexions, and are remarkable for their fecundity. Among both sexes a great many are seen deformed and lame; and the women in particular have wens that reach from ear to ear. One-third at least of the males seek a subsistence in France and other countries in quality of chimney-sweepers, shoe-blacks, raryshew men, &c. yet they are so honest, that they may be trusted to change gold; and if they are once able to set up a little shop, they are such masters of the thriving talents, that it is often the foundation of a very considerable fortune; yet so prevalent is the love of their country, that when they have acquired a little stock abroad, they generally return home.

The inhabitants of Mount Cennis, and the neighbouring mountains are called Marrons, or Marroniers. "One would imagine, says Mr. Keyser, that from the heavy burthens they daily carry up these steep mountains, they would soon or late fall into consumptions. In our cities in Germany, what a noise do our chairmen make, if they are to carry a person of any bulk two or three hundred paces; while here the chairmen, without the least panting or resting, run directly up a mountain, whose height is a good hour's journey,

"and then on the plain above outstrip us; and as soon as they have refitted the chairs, which is dispatched in a few minutes, they carry the company over the worst part of the way, for two hours together, making only four pauses, and those very short; such is the effect of custom, and of the simple diet to which they owe their uncommon longevity, many of them attaining to above a hundred years of age. Their usual drink is milk, and they seldom taste any wine. The better to secure their footing, their shoes are without heels, and the soles rubbed with wax and rosin. The machines in which travellers are carried are a kind of straw chairs, with low backs, two arms, and instead of feet a little board hanging down by cords for resting the travellers legs. The seat, which is made of bark and ropes twisted together, is fastened to two poles, and carried like a sedan, with broad leathern straps."

In winter the plain on the top of Mount Cennis, being covered with snow, is crossed in sledges drawn by a horse or a mule. The descent is in some places always performed in chairs; but from Mount Cennis to Lanenburg, it is conducted in a very extraordinary manner. On the spot where the declivity begins is a house called la Ramasse, where the travellers getting into a sledge, with his guide, slides down with such swiftness, that he is carried about three miles in seven or eight minutes, the rapidity of the motion almost taking away his breath. The guide sits forward steering with a stick, and has on each side an iron chain, which he drops like an anchor, either to slacken the course of the sledge, or to stop it. Travellers having been sometimes much imposed upon, the king has lately laid a tax on all kind of carriages over the mountain; and on both sides is an officer, to whom travellers, in case of any imposition, may apply for redress.

In Savoy every one speaks French, and most of the names of the towns and villages are of that language; but the inhabitants in their customs and dispositions resemble the Germans. They are all of the Romish religion; but do not acknowledge the decrees of the council of Trent.

The nobility both in Savoy and Piedmont are greatly oppressed; the king's ordinances are, however, in some respects of advantage to them, by having established in all fiefs the perpetual right of primogeniture. In 1724 the king resumed all the alienated domains, by which means the dignity of the antient nobility gradually declines, as it also does by the continual increase of the new; for whoever purchases an estate that has the title of a marquise or barony, is thereby enobled and stiled marquis or baron, and such estates may be purchased of the king for six or eight thousand livres. Every nobleman must prove from whence he derives his arms, or else is deprived of the right of using them, and must be at the expence of purchasing a new coat; and an escutcheon intirely new costs from ten to sixteen thousand livres. In order to bear the title of duke, prince, marquis, count, or baron, it is necessary to have a patent signed by the king or his ancestors, and the same also registered.

The liberty of hunting is under severe restrictions, and of all mines discovered and worked a certain share belongs to the king. No person is to fell trees even in his own wood, without leave obtained from the intendant; nor is any timber to be exported. No money is to be placed at interest or lent on mortgage out of the country: nor is any pension or order of knighthood except that of Malta to be accepted of, from any foreign prince. The nobility are prohibited from entering into any foreign service, or travelling abroad without a written licence from the king. None are to be seen with fire-arms out of their fief; and a person not possessed of a fief, and even the officers in the army, are not to keep any.

A foreigner who intends to settle in the country must be naturalized and take the oath of allegiance; but if he afterwards happens to be above three years out of the country, he forfeits all his privileges. No foreigner, who is not naturalized, is capable of being heir to a Savoyard or Piedmontese.

The present royal family of Savoy has long been dignified with the title of royal highness on account of their claim

claim to the kingdom of Cyprus, though till the year 1713 that house was only in possession of the ducal dignity. In that year Victor Amadeus II. duke of Savoy, obtaining the kingdom of Sicily on the peace with France, assumed the royal title, and was actually crowned king of Sicily at Palermo. Such he continued till 1718, when, agreeably to the quadruple alliance, he resigned the kingdom of Sicily to the emperor Charles VI. and in the room of it had Sardinia ceded to him as a kingdom, which he took possession of in 1720.

The titles of the king of Sardinia run thus: Charles Emanuel III. by the grace of God king of Sardinia, Cyprus, and Jerusalem; duke of Savoy, Montferrat, Chablais, Aosta, and the country of Geneva; prince of Piedmont and Oneglia; marquis of Italy, Saluzzo, Susa, Ivrea, Ceva, le Maro, Oristan, and Sezana; count of Maurienne, Geneva, Nice, Asti, Alessandria, Tende, Gocean, and Romont; baron of le Vaud and Faucigny; lord of Vercelli, Pignerol, Tarentaise, of la Lomeline, and Val de Sesia; prince and perpetual vicar of the holy Roman empire in Italy.

The king's arms are quarterly with a point central, shield and heart-shield. The dexter field is again quartered. In the first argent is a cross potence or, with four smaller for the kingdom of Jerusalem: the second chequered argent and azure, with a crowned lion, gules, for the kingdom of Cyprus: the third or, with a crowned lion gules, for the kingdom of Armenia; and the fourth argent, a crowned lion gules, by some thought to indicate the dutchy of Luxemburg, or, according to the others, the kingdom of Cyprus. The second field consists of three parts; the dexter gules a horse rampant argent, for the dutchy of Lower Saxony: the sinister is sable and or chequered with a wreath of green, for the dutchy of Upper Saxony; and the lower point superadded argent three chapes of a cimier gules, for the dukedom of Engern. The third field is party per pale, the dexter is argent variegated with small shields sable, and a lion sable, for the dutchy of Chablais: the sinister for the dutchy of Aosta, a lion argent in a field sable. The fourth field is also party per pale, and for the dutchy of Genevois, contains chequered or and azure: the sinister for the dutchy of Montferrat, a target gules. The point or is a black eagle, for the county of Maurienne. The central shields argent, with a cross gules, and four Moors heads with ribbands argent at the cantons, for the kingdom of Sardinia. The heart-shield gules, a cross argent, denoting the dutchy of Savoy.

The principal order of knighthood is that of the Annonciada, or Annunciation, which was instituted by Amadeus VI. in 1562. The badge is always worn appendant on the breast from a gold chain round the neck. The collar is about an inch broad, and each link contains these four letters F. E. R. T. wrought in the manner of love knots. The ancient motto of the house of Savoy, alluding to these initial letters, is *Fortitudo Rhodum Ejus Tenuit*, that is, His courage preserved Rhodes. From this collar fastened to a small chain, hangs a medal representing the angel appearing to the virgin Mary, set round with gold on a silver ground, in the innermost circle of the Star with the abovementioned four letters. The circle is also environed by a silver wreath, and the wreath with fiery tongues formed in gold. All the knights of this order have the title of excellency; but none can be installed, without being first of the inferior order of St. Maurice, instituted by Amadeus VIII.

The order of St. Maurice, by maintaining in its commanderies three galleys against the Turks, bears some affinity to the order of Malta. The knights indeed are allowed to marry, but not to widows: second marriages are also prohibited; but in both cases a little money laid out at Rome procures a dispensation.

The king's prerogative is unlimited, and though superstition is carried to as great a height in this country as any where in Europe, yet, in church affairs, the authority of the pope has been reduced as low as possible. No bull can be made public without a licence from the privy council; nor can the inquisition of Turin molest or lay any one under an arrest, without previously acquainting that council. All ecclesiastical preferments are at the

king's disposal, and he is invested with the power of assigning pensions on them to the amount of one third of their income. He can also nominate a person for the dignity of cardinal, who must be created at the next promotion. His palace chapel, with the ecclesiastics that serve in it, and the foundation of Superga, instead of being under the archbishops of Turin, are subordinate to the lord almoner, who has a distinct jurisdiction. What the convents possessed before the year 1600 has been left to them as endowments out of the royal domain; but every thing else, whether moveables or immoveables, are subject to taxes equally with the laity. All civil contracts, though relating to ecclesiastics, must be transacted in the presence of the temporal judge; before whom are also tried causes wherein ecclesiastics are concerned, either as plaintiffs or defendants.

The principal boards, or colleges, are the privy council, which consists of a prime minister, two secretaries of state, and other persons of rank and great employments; the council of Sardinia is composed of the sovereign, the first president, and some other members; and the council of state, which has also its peculiar members.

The royal revenue, by the reassumption of the ancient crown lands, has received an addition of upwards of a million of Piedmontese livres. All future alienations of the domains are prohibited; the fiefs, as they escheat, are also to be added to them, and all survivorships to be annulled. The total of the revenue cannot, however, be precisely determined. The taxes are raised without farming, except that of tobacco, but are screwed up to the highest pitch, and levied with an inflexible severity, to the extreme vexation of the distressed Savoyards; while the Piedmontese landholders are considerably eased, or do not feel the burthen so sensibly.

The king's subjects in Savoy, Piedmont, and other parts of the continent, are said to amount to above two millions.

The king's military forces in 1729 consisted of between twenty and twenty-two thousand regular troops, besides the horse-guards, the maitresses, and fifteen regiments of militia, which make about six thousand men, and are trained up in the military exercises like the regular troops. In the year 1741, the army, including the militia, amounted to about forty thousand; but in time of peace the king commonly keeps no more than fifteen thousand.

The high court of justice, which is here called the Parliament, sits at Chamberry. As the king is, on account of Savoy, a member of the ancient kingdom of Arles, and a vassal of the empire, he has a seat and voice in the diet of the Germanic body.

The duchy of Savoy is divided into six provinces; these are, Chablais, Faucigny, the Genevois, Proper Savoy, the Tarantaise, and the county of Maurienne: the principal places in which are the following:

Chamberry, the capital of all Savoy, is called in ancient records Camberiacum, and Chamarium. It is situated in a pleasant valley, on the river Leise, in the forty-fifth degree forty minutes north latitude, and in the fifth degree forty-five minutes east longitude. The streets are mostly straight and clean, the town being washed by several branches of the Alban, and many springs that flow down from St. Martin's Hill. It is well built, and has several squares, and many stately edifices, though not in the modern stile; and is of a middling size, its chief strength consisting in its walls. It is the seat of the highest court, or parliament of Savoy, and the residence of many of the nobility. It belongs to the diocese of Grenoble. The collegiate church of the Holy Chapel was founded by duke Amadeus, and the head of the chapter is stiled dean of Savoy. It has often been taken and retaken; and in the year 1731, was almost entirely destroyed by fire.

Aix, in Latin Aquæ Gratiaræ, or Sabaudicæ, is, as well as the former, situated in Savoy Proper, near the lake of Bourget, eight miles to the north of Chamberry, and is celebrated for its hot baths, the use of which is free to every one, on giving a trifle to the rubbers. The lower flows from a very strong spring, and has a sulphureous taste; but the other is quite insipid. The water is clear,

clear, and of a green colour; but no fish or any other creature will live in it. Here are the ruins of a Roman triumphal arch.

Laneſbourg is a large village, in the county of Maurienne, ſeated at the foot of Mount Cenis, which lies ſo near it on the ſouth and eaſt, that, from the end of November to the 17th of January, the inhabitants never ſee the ſun, which on that day makes its firſt appearance on the tops of the mountains.

SECT. III.

The Principality of PIEDMONT.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce, particularly of its large Truffles, and its Silk. Of the Mountains and Vallies of Piedmont, and the Animals on thoſe Mountains, particularly white Hares, the Chamois, the Bouquetin, and the Tumar; with a concise Account of the Waldenſes. Of the Rivers of Piedmont. The Perſons, Manners, Religion, and Trade of the Piedmonteſe. A particular Deſcription of the City of Turin, and other remarkable Places.

PIEDMONT, a part of the antient Lombardy, is bounded on the north by Savoy and Italy; on the weſt by France; on the ſouth by the Mediterranean and the republic of Genoa; and on the eaſt by the duchies of Montferrat and Milan; extending about one hundred and fifty miles from north to ſouth, but much leſs from eaſt to weſt. It is called Piedmont, and in Latin Piedmontium, from its ſituation at the foot of the mountains, or Alps, which ſeparate France from Italy. This country is in ſome parts mountainous, but is every where very fruitful. The plains produce fine corn, and Montferrat and the Milanefe yield great quantities of Turkey wheat, which commonly ſerves for bread, and with which people of the middle rank mix rye: the pods are uſed for fuel, and the ſtalks, being thick, ſerve to mend the roads. The hills produce plenty of wine, which, like the Italian wines, is very luſcious when new; eſpecially the white. There is alſo a tartiſh red wine, called vino bruſco, ſaid to be very wholeſome for fat people, and, on the other hand, the ſweet wine is recommended as a ſtomachic. The neighbourhood of Turin is famous for its fine fruits, and many long walks of cheſnut and mulberry trees, which produce both pleaſure and profit. Marons, or large cheſnuts, are a favourite dainty among the common people: theſe are put into an oven, and when thoroughly hot, and cooled in red wine, are dried a ſecond time in the oven, and afterwards eaten cold. Truffles grow here in ſuch abundance, that Piedmont has obtained the name of the Truffle Country. Some are black, others white marbled with red, and the larger they are the dearer. Sometimes they are found of twelve or fourteen pounds weight; and many country people earn from fixty to ſeventy dollars a year only by digging for them.

The trade in cattle is ſaid to bring into Piedmont no leſs than three millions of livres per annum. The cultivation of ſilk is alſo a profitable article, the Piedmonteſe ſilk being, on account of its fineneſs and ſtrength, eſteemed the beſt in Italy. Many peaſants annually ſell four or five rubbs of ſilk, each weighing twenty-five pounds before it is wound off from the cocons, at twenty-five ſols the pound. The fine ſilk ſells for about a Louis d'Or per pound. The Piedmonteſe gentry breed vaſt numbers of ſilk-worms under the care of their tenants, who have the eggs and mulberry-leaves delivered to them, and in return they give half the ſilk to their maſters.

The mountains contain minerals. Rochemelon, which lies eaſtward, between Ferliere and Novareſe, is eſteemed the higheſt of all the Italian Alps, and it is a day's journey to aſcend to the top, where, in clear weather, it affords a moſt beautiful proſpect over all the Milanefe, Trevigo, Venice, &c. The exploſion of a muſket is here only heard as the craſhing of a ſtick when broken. On this mountain is ſaid to have formerly ſtood a ſtatue of Jupiter, but it was made to give way to an image of the Virgin Mary, before which an annual maſs is read on the 5th of Auguſt, to a vaſt concourſe of people. Even at that time of the year, they are obliged, in ſome places, to clam-

ber over heaps of ice; and as, on this occaſion, they are to paſs one night at leaſt upon the mountain, if they are not well provided with good covering, they ſuffer extremely from the froſt. Mount Piſo, which ſtands to the ſouth of the valley of Lucern, is ſaid to be one of the moſt lofty in Europe, and is ſuppoſed to be that over which Hannibal made his memorable paſſage into Italy. The road hewn through the rock requires near two hours travelling, and is quite dark.

The vallies of Piedmont lie to the weſtward, contiguous to Dauphiné in France: theſe are the valley of Lucern, that of Perouſe, and that of St. Martin. The laſt is ſixteen Piedmonteſe miles in length, but very narrow. The lower parts abound in wine and other fruit, the middle in cheſnuts, and the upper in fine paſtures. This valley is the ſtrongeſt fortified of any; for beſides the prodigious mountains, covered at leaſt eight or ten months in the year with ſnow, and conſequently impaſſable, it is acceſſible only by a very narrow cavity called the Tower Bridge, and no broader than the rapid river, or rather brook, of Germaneſque, running through it, over which is a lofty bridge, which, on being broke down, it is impoſſible to enter the valley. On the Alps which ſurround it are ſeven fine lakes, on the ſide of the valley of Lucerne.

In the above valleys, eſpecially that of St. Martin, among the higheſt of the mountains and impaſſable rocks, are large woods and thickets, abounding in white hares, which retain that colour all the year round; beſides foxes, large pheafants, and brown and white partridges. Theſe thickets are alſo remarkable for being the haunts of bears and wolves. On the higheſt part of the Alps, and in open places, where only a little herbage grows, are found the marmotte, a kind of rock-rat, a creature ſomewhat larger than a rabbit, and in colour of a mixed brown and red. The fleſh, which is eaten, has much the taſte of pork. This animal has a very ſhrill cry, and paſſes eight or nine months of the year, that is, while the mountains are covered with ſnow, in a profound ſleep.

The chamois is a kind of wild goat, but much ſtronger; they generally keep on the mountains; but are very difficult to be caught, becauſe they place centres on the hills about them, and on the adjacent eminences, which, upon any appearance of danger, give the reſt the alarm by a certain noiſe; upon which the whole herd run down the next ſteep declivities, which they ſeem made by nature to climb up and down with ſurpriſing dexterity and ſwiftness. Their horns are ſhort, crooked, and ſmooth; their fleſh is very good, and of their ſkins is made the true chamoy leather.

The bouquetin is another kind of wild goat, but much larger and leſs ſhaggy: its conſtant abode is on the mountains, which, on account of their height, are continually covered with ſnow. It generally ſleeps on the ice, is much fleetier than the chamois, and the common people reckon the fleſh very ſtrengthening. When a perſon is deprived of the uſe of his limbs by cold, ſome drops of this creature's blood are adminiſtered in warm wine or broth, which, upon the patient being put to bed, throws him into a great ſweat, after which he recovers. It is alſo uſed in pleuritic diſorders, and in ſudden frights: and as the freſh blood cannot always be had, they dry it, and reduce it to powder. It is ſaid that theſe creatures defend themſelves with their horns, which are two or three feet long, and thick in proportion; and that when cloſely purſued they will throw themſelves down high precipices, and break their fall by the help of their horns, ſo as to receive no hurt.

Among the tame beaſts are the tumar, which, Dr. Buſching ſays, is of two ſorts, one engendered by a bull and a mare, and the other by a bull and a ſheaf: the latter ſpecies, ſays he, is conſiderably ſmaller than the firſt, and is called the biſ; the former, called baſ, has the upper mandible ſhorter than the lower, and both almoſt reſemble thoſe of ſwine; yet the inciſory teeth in the upper jaw are an inch or two more backward than in the lower, and are alſo much longer, like thoſe of hares and rabbits. The head and tail of both reſemble thoſe of an ox; but the former, inſtead of horns, has only knobs; in all other reſpects they are ſhaped either

either like a horse or an ass. Though not so large as a mule, they are of surprising strength, eat little, are very swift of foot, and are excellent beasts for travelling.

These valleys have always belonged to Piedmont. The Waldenses, or Vaudois, their inhabitants, have rendered themselves famous in history for their dissenting from the errors of the Romish church a long time before the birth of Luther and Calvin, and for the persecutions they have suffered on that account: but since the year 1730, they have not been openly molested for their religion; but, in order to suppress them by degrees, a Popish church has been built in every parish. The number of people in these valleys scarce at present exceeds seven thousand, of which one thousand are catholics.

The chief river of Piedmont is the Po, which flows out of Mount Viso. The river Sesia, the Doria, Baltea, the antient Druria, the Tenaro, and several others, run into it. The Var, antiently called the Varus, rises in the county of Nice, and, after watering it, empties itself into the Mediterranean.

The Piedmontese are esteemed lively, artful, and witty, the inhabitants of the mountain of Aosta excepted, who are farther distinguished by large wens, as are even their horses, dogs, and other animals. If the Piedmontese were allowed to give full scope to their genius, which is shackled by the Romish religion and their manner of government, great literary advancements might be seen among them; but the introducing of any books that differ in the least from the Romish tenets, is severely prohibited. Turin has an university, which is well founded and regulated after the Romish manner; but neither the Jesuits nor any other regulars are allowed openly to keep schools. This was ordered by king Victor Amadeus II. who not only new-modelled the university, but published a rule for the uniform education of youth throughout the country.

The language of the Piedmontese is a mixture of French and Italian. In this country are about fifty earldoms, fifteen marquisesates, a multitude of lordships, and twenty abbeys. Though the country be entirely popish, except some valleys inhabited by the Waldenses, the king reserves to himself the greatest part of that power in church affairs, which in many other places is given up to the pope, and the *constitution unigenitus* is here universally opposed. In the valleys of Lucerne, Peyrouse, and St. Martin bordering on Dauphine, as hath been already intimated, live the celebrated Waldenses, a name which they derive from their living in the valleys, the Italians calling them Waldeſi, that is, people of the valleys.

The chief trade of this duchy consists in hemp and silk; and though most kinds of silk commodities are made at Turin, and as good as in other places, yet they are dear, the Piedmontese workmen being less quick and expert than those of other places; and indeed this trade is of no great consequence, both on account of the high duty and the land carriage on mules.

The principal city of Piedmont is Turin, or Turino, antiently Augusta Taurinorum, the capital of all the king of Sardinia's dominions. It is seated in the forty-fourth degree fifty-six minutes north latitude, and in the seventh degree sixteen minutes east longitude, at the confluence of the Po and Doria, in a very pleasant country, that affords a most delightful prospect, the neighbouring hills being covered with villas, convents, and other buildings. The city is pretty large, the circle of the ramparts being about four miles and a half. The fortifications are remarkable for their strength, and particularly the subterraneous works, which cannot be seen without permission from the governor. The citadel is a regular pentagon, with a vaulted deep well in every bastion, so that the garrison cannot be deprived of water; and, considering the number and extent of the subterraneous works, the whole city may be almost said to stand in the air. The ground on which it is erected being a little raised above the adjacent country, no water can be conveyed into the ditches, which is here of advantage, as the mines would in a great measure be rendered unserviceable, could they be overflowed. Both the city and the citadel mutually add to each other's strength.

From the city side you pass over several bridges and ditches through an entrance, which leads to a kind of dungeon, or a large round tower, with a flat roof. This is a magazine for provisions and part of the military stores. It is bomb-proof; the French, in the siege of 1706, having thrown several hundred bombs upon it, but to no effect. This tower has also its subterraneous passages, or galleries, towards the other bastions; so that if the enemy should become masters of the latter, the dungeon alone would easily hold out fourteen days before it would be obliged to capitulate. Here is kept the main guard. On the left hand towards the area of the citadel is the commandant's house, and on the right that of the governor; both these form an elegant amphitheatre facing the area, on the left hand of which are the barracks, from which one is led by torch-light into the souterraines, which indeed are surprising. At the entrance are vaulted stables for fifty horses: a hundred and thirty paces behind these, and forty or fifty more under the main ditch, you come under the counter-guard, where are other stables for fifty horses more. Here the subterraneous passages extend in two branches, the one to the Po, the other to the distance of two or three Piedmontese miles, not so much for the sake of an outlet, as to lead to the vast number of mines, which take up every part of the ground.

In one of these galleries is shewn the place where Micha, the brave pioneer, devoted his life for the good of his country. The French were, however, greatly mistaken in thinking themselves sure of being masters of the citadel by means of this large gallery, which is broad enough for a carriage to turn about in; for the small gallery is over the larger, and has several trenches from whence they may fire upon the enemy; and, in case of necessity, iron portcullices may be let down, and granadoes, bombs, and other instruments of destruction thrown into it, through loop-holes provided for such extremities. Besides, this large gallery is fortified at the end of every thirty paces, and there are many mines underneath it.

Indeed there are properly four galleries over one another, the lowermost of which is at the depth of a hundred and seventeen feet under ground. Into these none but Germans are admitted, as being constant friends to the house of Savoy, and therefore the officer who attends foreigners here always enquires their country. The mines, counter-mines, and other subterraneous works, are very surprising. In the lowest gallery there are spiracles to let in the air and keep it dry. From the subterraneous works of the one bastion an idea may be formed of the other four. Besides all these conveniences, every one is provided with an oven, a well, and a magazine for provisions.

The walls and bastions are all lined with free-stone, and take up an hour and a half in walking round the fortifications. The walks shaded with oaks on the ramparts appear very delightful at a distance, and those who walk there have a most agreeable prospect of beautiful villas and gardens, and on one side of the mountains, which, during the greatest part of the year, are covered with snow. If Turin continues to increase in size and magnificence, as it has lately done, it will have the noblest streets of any city in Europe, they being at present exceeded by none in Germany, Holland, France, or Italy. But this is true only with respect to the New City, in which are the royal palace, New-street, and Post-street, which are all remarkably fine. From the door of the king's palace is a view which extends seventeen hundred paces over the palace court, and St. Charles's-square, along the New-street to the New Gate. The houses in St. Charles's-square are very magnificent, and have all arched piazzas, so that in the heaviest rains one may walk dry under shelter. New-street is eighteen paces broad, the houses four stories high, and every house exactly resembles that opposite to it on the other side of the street, and is at least a hundred paces in front. There are but three buildings on each side from the area before the palace, to the entrance into St. Charles's-square, where the New-street begins, which extends a hundred and twenty-three paces in front. The inner court of the

palace is a hundred and forty-four paces long: the palace du Chateau is a hundred and ninety-seven: the street between this square and that of St. Charles four hundred and twenty-three: the square of St. Charles two hundred and eighty-four: the Farther-street four hundred and fifty-seven; and the open square before the gate a hundred paces. Bernini, the celebrated architect, is said to have preferred this street to any in Italy; yet the street of the Po seems superior to it; that street is eleven hundred common paces in length, and the houses only three stories high. The spacious and lofty piazzas of the Castle-square are continued in a direct line on both sides of the street, and the houses within the gate form a fine amphitheatre.

The houses are mostly of brick, overlaid with plaister of Paris, which while new has a good effect; and, what is not commonly seen, they have a range of balconies to every story: but the houses are disfigured by the great number of paper windows.

The streets are kept clean by a very ingenious contrivance. Between the citadel and the Port de Susa the water is brought in by a canal out of the Doria, and thence conveyed through an aqueduct over the town-ditch into the city, where it is distributed at pleasure through all the streets, and carries off all the filth and soil. This contrivance also serves to clear the streets of the snow in the winter, unless it be ordered to leave it on the ground for the diversion of the prince, who often rides upon the snow in a sledge. The city is also lighted by lanthorns hung up in the streets and cross lanes.

The most splendid structure is the front of the palace where the king resides, which is built of free-stone, and superbly decorated with columns and statues, and has a magnificent stair-case, where stands a brazen statue of Victor Amadeus on a horse of white marble. The hall before the king's apartment, and the other chambers, are hung with tapestry representing the life of Cyrus. These hangings were a present from the emperor Charles V. to the house of Savoy; and both for their beauty, antiquity, and the number of pieces of which the whole set consists, are extremely valuable. The king's apartment is very well furnished, and in his bed-chamber is an admirable piece of tapestry, representing a battle in which the Lorrainers were entirely defeated.

On the left hand of the late queen's apartments, in which are some good pictures of the royal family, is a gallery in which are three hundred marble statues, most of them antiques, placed on each side of the gallery. It was on this floor, but fronting the court, that the late king resided. The closet where he conferred with his ministers is near the audience-chamber. This apartment opens into a fine gallery of paintings, in which the largest and finest pieces are by Paul Veronese. The fresco painting on the wall, and particularly that on the ceiling, is admirable, and done by the chevalier Daniel, a German.

Upon the left hand, on the second floor of the wing of the palace which looks into the garden, is the chapel of the Holy Sudary, which, that it might be adapted to the tragical relic preserved there, is built entirely of a dark grey marble. The sheet, as the clergy here pretend, in which Christ was wrapped after his crucifixion, has imprinted on both sides the bloody figure of a man, and is kept in the middle of the chapel in a tabernacle, within an inclosure of iron work. It is publicly shewn on great solemnities, as the marriage of the hereditary prince, &c. It ought not, however, to be omitted, that the pretended sudary is also shewn at Lisbon, Mentz, and in above twelve Romish churches besides.

The rest of this palace is old and of brick, as is also another palace. The royal library is worth notice. Among other spacious buildings contiguous to the palace is the king's theatre, which is reckoned a master-piece in its kind; it having five galleries, one above another, finely decorated with sculpture and gilding. Clapping, hissing, or other noisy indications of applause or dislike, are forbidden, when any of the royal family are present: a decorum that must be very agreeable to a curious spectator. The other buildings contiguous to the palace are the record-office; the new royal printing-house, which

has twelve presses; and the arsenal, which is quite new, and a well contrived structure.

In the old city the streets are crooked and narrow, though here and there are some good houses. The university, which was founded in 1405, is a large quadrangle, and is esteemed a fine building. In the inner court is a double row of piazzas over each other; and the university library, besides twenty thousand printed volumes, has a very valuable collection of antient manuscripts, which consist of a hundred and sixty-nine Hebrew, three hundred and sixty-nine Greek, a thousand and eighty-four Latin, two hundred and ten Italian, and a hundred and seventy-two French.

With regard to the ecclesiastical buildings in this city, they are very antient, and in the Gothic taste. There are forty-eight churches and convents, and seventeen more may be seen in the neighbourhood from the ramparts. The chapel of St. Laurence near the palace is the finest in the city, and is celebrated for its several marble statues and its lofty roof. The tabernacle on the great altar consists of beautiful small pillars of Oriental marble, and the pix in which the host is kept is made of lapis lazuli.

The chapel of the Holy Trinity is smaller, but has many magnificent decorations: it has a lofty cupola, superb altars, and curious works in marble of all colours. Here is also a rich foundation for pilgrims.

The Corpus Christi chapel in the green-market is remarkable for a miracle said to have been wrought there. It is pretended that in 1453 the Savoyards having pillaged Exilles, a consecrated host was brought along with the booty to Turin, packed up with some other things upon an ass; but when the beast came to this spot, he devoutly kneeled, and could not be made to stir a step farther. Mean while the box with which it was loaded flew open, and the wafer shot up into the air, where it continued hovering in the sight of the people till the bishop arrived, into whose sacred hand it gently descended, and was by him carried into this chapel.

One of the finest churches in Turin, named la Consolazione, has a miraculous image of the Virgin Mary, which brings many pecuniary offerings; and the Franciscan church in St. Charles's square is beautified on the outside with fine statues and pyramids.

The Jesuits church, though somewhat dark, is equalled by few churches in the city for fine paintings in fresco, and marble decorations. Adjacent to it is a college, which is so large as conveniently to lodge the fifty fathers of which that society consists.

Among the laudable foundations at Turin, the five hospitals for the poor, sick, and disabled, may be reckoned the most useful. The largest and finest of these hospitals is that of St. John, for lying-in women and their children, foundlings, and the sick. Such single women as are with child are admitted here, as are also those who are married. This hospital contains about twenty such patients, besides four hundred foundlings and orphans, one hundred incurables, and two hundred patients who are judged curable. The children are employed in spinning of silk, and in other works, till they are fit to be taught some mechanic trade. The ground-floor is for the male patients, and the upper story for the females; both are so lofty as to be equal in height to three ordinary stories. The beds are placed at a distance from each other, and in the center is an altar which may be seen by all the patients, who may hear mass without getting out of their beds. The front is a hundred and eighty common paces in length, and appears so magnificent that it resembles a royal palace. The annual revenue generally amounts to about thirty thousand crowns.

Another laudable foundation in this city is styled la Charité, or the hospital for the poor, which takes up a great part of the street of the Po, and has a considerable revenue arising from rents and the annual subscriptions of the citizens. The king gives every year to this hospital three hundred sacks of corn, three of which are computed to make a sufficient quantity of bread to serve one person a whole year. This house generally contains two thousand, and often three thousand poor people, picked out of the streets, and employed in several sorts of manufactures. Here the young and old of both sexes are

preserved from idleness, and provided with meat, drink, cloaths, and attendance, when sick, or grown decrepit with age. Forty soldiers in blue, with red bandoliers, are daily dispersed about the city to take up all beggars and vagrants. Those who are foreigners are banished the city, and the natives brought to the hospital. The main building consists of two quadrangles, with galleries round them, one for the men, and the other for the women. The church is worth seeing on account of its roof, on which the Ascension of the Virgin Mary is admirably painted by the chevalier Daniel; and in the passages of the ground-floor are the busts of the benefactors, with elegant Latin inscriptions.

With respect to the government of the city, the king takes care to be exactly informed in what manner the laws are executed, and has been formerly known to go by himself muffled up in a cloak, that he might with his own eyes observe the state and management of the city. In order to prevent the exactions of the peasants in raising the price of wood during winter, there are four large store-houses of wood and coals; and when the peasants endeavour to take advantage of the weather, fuel is sold at this magazine at a reasonable rate.

Turin, however, labours under several inconveniences. The thick fogs, which in autumn and winter continually rise from the Po and other waters, render the air thick and moist, and consequently unhealthy. These exhalations are of great disadvantage to the city, which is often involved in fogs and rain, while Rivoli, a town at no more than three leagues distance, enjoys the serene sky and brightest sun-shine.

Another of the most considerable disadvantages that attend this city is the foul muddy water in most of the wells, which is chiefly owing to the negligence of the people in not keeping them sweet and clean, dead dogs, cats, and other filth, being frequently thrown into them.

Besides, the inns require great regulations, to prevent travellers being imposed upon; for there is not a place in all Italy where the entertainment is so bad, considering the price. The country produces plenty of good wine, yet none of it can be obtained without paying extravagantly for it, that usually sold at the inns being the most execrable stuff imaginable. On meagre days the Papists fare extremely ill; for though the Po affords variety of fine fish, as pike, carp, perch, trout, and sturgeon, from eighty to an hundred pounds weight; the avaritious landlords will not put themselves to the expence of fresh fish, but their guests must take up either with salt-fish, or an amulette.

The manner of burying the dead is one of the most disagreeable circumstances that attends this city. The corpse is carried in procession to the grave, where it is put in the ground without any coffin. This is not only extremely shocking when the deceased happens to die of the small-pox, measles, and such contagious distempers; but may have a very unhappy effect on pregnant women, and other persons liable to catch the infection. The masked fraternities who frequently attend at funerals, and of whom nothing can be seen but the eyes, make indeed not only a dreadful but a shabby procession. It is also extremely disagreeable, that even when there is a contagious distemper in the city, three or four dead bodies are suffered to lie a whole day in the churches uncovered. Persons of rank have family vaults in the churches and chapels; but people in inferior circumstances are thrust into a vault belonging to their parish-church, fifty or a hundred together, without any coffin. Indeed these receptacles are very deep, and have several doors, the passage leading to them being vaulted. But this cannot prevent the cadaverous smell and noxious effluvia from penetrating into the churches.

In the neighbourhood of Turin are the following palaces: the most frequented by the royal family is that called la Venerie, where the court generally continues from Spring to December. It stands about a league from Turin, the road leading to it is well paved, and the greatest part of it planted on each side with trees, it running a little winding between fine meadows, fields, and vineyards.

Before the palace is a street of houses built of stone two stories high, and in a direct line, belonging to private persons. In two chambers contiguous to the king's apartment are the pictures of thirty of his majesty's ancestors, with Latin inscriptions expressing their most famous achievements. Beyond these is a chamber of pictures of the emperors of Germany, another with those of the kings of France, and a third of the kings of England, all as big as the life. The gallery is a hundred and twenty-five paces in length, twenty-two broad, and very lofty. At each door stands two large twisted pillars of red and white marble, and the pavement consists of square pieces of green and white marble. This edifice, which is extremely admired, was designed by Filippo. The royal chapel was also designed by the same architect. The cupola is of a graceful height: within it are the statues of St. Ambrose, St. Chrysostom, St. Augustine, and St. Jerom, standing on pedestals of red, green, and yellow marble. The statues, which are of a gigantic size, are of white marble, and were brought hither from Rome. The high altar is extremely beautiful, and there is scarce any kind of marble which is not to be seen, either in the pillars or altars of this chapel. The stables are two hundred and thirty paces in length, and within them are above two hundred and twenty horses. On entering them it is an established custom that a stranger must deliver up one of his gloves, which must be redeemed with a piece of money.

The road to the palace of Rivoli runs in a direct line through fields, meadows, and vineyards, and perhaps has not its equal. It was planted since the siege of Turin in 1712, the French, among other devastations, having rooted up every tree in the country. This walk affords a very beautiful prospect; at one end of the vista stands the palace of Rivoli upon an eminence, and at the other the city of Turin; and about two leagues beyond that in a straight line the magnificent church of Superga. Rivoli, besides having the best apartments, has the finest paintings, and the royal family are much better lodged there than at la Venerie or in Turin.

Near the city stands a villa of the princess of Piedmont, very agreeably situated upon an eminence. The building is not large, but regular, and the garden is in the form of an amphitheatre.

Montcallier is a spacious castle situated upon a hill on the other side of the Po, at about the distance of a league from Turin. This is a quadrangular building, with a large square tower. The hill, as well as the neighbouring country towards Alessandria, is very delightfully variegated with vineyards, corn-fields, villas, and gardens; but is at present never honoured with the presence of the royal family.

It will be proper here to take notice of the church of Superga, which was built by the late king in pursuance of a vow he made at the last siege of Turin. It stands upon the highest mountains in the neighbourhood of the city, at an hour and a half's ride on horseback. At each end of the church stand two elegant towers; and the cupola is supported by eight large Corinthian columns of dark green marble. The bases of these columns are between five and six feet high, streaked with white, and their fronts so curiously inlaid with large pieces of white and red marble, that they resemble agate. Within the dome is a gallery that has eight windows in the circumference, and is a hundred paces round. Within the dome are three galleries, one above another; the two lowest have stone balustrades, and the upper iron work. The prospect from this gallery is more beautiful than can be imagined: from thence may be seen Rivoli, with its long terrace planted with trees; the valley towards Susa; its mountains covered with snow; the meanders of the Po, the Doria, and the Stura; with the fine plains along those rivers, which extend as far as the eye can reach; the valleys and plains beyond Montcallier; as likewise the delightful eminences in the neighbourhood, covered with vineyards, gardens, and fine seats; and lastly Turin itself. Contiguous to the church is a large square building, for the occasional devout retirement of any of the royal family, where his late majesty has several times spent some weeks in Lent.

The

The other places worthy of notice in Piedmont are Fort Brunette, which has not its equal in the world, and is a very strong fortress formed to guard against the French frontier fort of Briançon, a few miles distant. It consists of eight bastions, which, together with all the out-works, are hewn out of a rock. The bastions and other works have a communication by subterraneous passages under the rocks, so large that carriages and heavy cannon, with several horses, may conveniently go from one place to another. In the whole fortress not a single building is to be seen, and of the garrison only some centinels. Batteries and mines would here be of no effect, and two thousand men, with sufficient provisions and ammunition, might easily hold out against a numerous army. This fortress commands two valleys.

Susa, formerly Segusium, a city on the Doria, and the capital of a marquisate of the same name, is seated at a small distance from the above fort, and is an inconsiderable place; but though it is only defended by a wall, it has always a strong garrison. Here is a marble triumphal arch erected by king Cottius, in honour of Augustus.

Nice, the capital of a county of the same name, which anciently belonged to Provence, is situated in the forty-third degree, forty minutes latitude, and in the seventh degree twenty-five minutes east longitude, and is a seaport at the mouth of the river Paulon; but its harbour is only convenient for small vessels, though considerable sums have been lately expended in improving it, and great encouragement given to traders by declaring it a free port. It has several remains of Roman antiquities. In 1691 it was taken by the French, and in 1696 restored to Savoy. In 1706 it was again taken by the French, who demolished part of its fortifications, and in 1708 totally destroyed them. In this principality are several other divisions besides those already mentioned, as the duchy of Aosta, the lordship of Vercelli, the marquisates of Saluzza, Ivrea, Soligno and Cleva, and the county of Asti.

S E C T. IV.

Of the other Territories subject to the King of Sardinia, as the Duchy of Montferrat, some other Districts that formerly belonged to Milan, and the Island of Sardinia. The Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, and Produce of that Island: Its History, the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants, with a Description of Cagliari, its principal City.

THE duchy of Montferrat, stiled in Latin Mons Ferratus and Mons Ferranus, probably from the fertility of its soil, is bounded on the east by Milan, on the south by the republic of Genoa, and on the west and north by Piedmont; it is computed to be sixty-two miles in length, and forty-eight in breadth.

This country, though very hilly, is pleasant and fertile, and abounds in corn, a variety of fruit, and excellent muscadine wine; it also affords a great quantity and variety of game, especially of pheasants and partridges: it contains about two hundred cities, towns, and castles.

In 967, the emperor Otho I. is said to have raised this country to a marquisate, in favour of Aldran prince of Saxony, and upon the death of the last male heir of this house in 1305, the marquisate came to his sister Violenda, the wife of the Greek emperor Andronicus Palæologus, whose family enjoyed it till the year 1532, when the sovereignty was extinguished. In 1536, the emperor Charles V. adjudged it to the duke of Modena, whose wife was of the Palæologan family; and in 1572, Maximilian II. raised it to a duchy. In 1631, seventy-five places in the duchy of Montferrat were transferred to the duke of Savoy, in lieu of a yearly income of fifteen thousand crowns, due to him from the duke of Mantua; and in 1703, the emperor also gave to the duke of Savoy that part of Montferrat which the dukes of Mantua had held as a fief from the empire and emperor, to be held by him by the same tenure.

Cassal, the capital of the duchy, is pleasantly situated on the Po, in a delightful plain, in the forty-fifth degree

six minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree thirty minutes east longitude, forty-two miles to the east of Turin. The town was once so well fortified, and its citadel so strong, that it was reckoned one of the most defensible places in all Italy. It was surrounded with very strong ramparts, a large ditch, with bastions, ravelins, and other works, to which the duke of Modena added a very noble citadel which had six bastions. This city has a bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Milan, and is famous for its many sieges.

Here are also Crescentino, a fortified town and marquisate, and also the marquisate of Pomaro; with the towns of Trino, Verua, St. Salvitore, and some others.

The king of Sardinia possesses several districts which formerly belonged to the duchy of Milan; these are the territories of Alessandrino, Lomelina, Vigevenaces, the Novarese, the Tortonese, Anghiera, St. Fedele, and Bobio.

One of the most considerable cities in these districts, is Alessandria, in the territory of Alessandrino, which took its name from pope Alexander III. who built it in 1160, and is surnamed Della Paglia, from the inhabitants for want of wood using stubble to heat their ovens for baking bread. It is seated in a marshy country on the river Tenaro, which divides it into two parts, that are joined by a wooden bridge 400 feet in length, covered over on the top. It is a strong town with an excellent citadel; the houses are of stone; but it is neither large nor handsome, though it is said to have 12,000 inhabitants. It is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Milan, and is endowed with some considerable privileges: the Jews, in particular, are permitted to live here, and carry on a small trade. They have a separate quarter allotted them, where they live among themselves, and when they go abroad, both men and women are obliged to appear with some mark of distinction: the former wear grey hats and long beards; the married, a grotesque kind of head-dress, and the maids go bare-headed.

When the city and its territories were ceded to the duke of Savoy, in the late wars that prince ordered a fort to be built on the other side of the Tenaro, and another in the suburbs of the city; but the emperor taking offence at these innovations, it was alledged, by the court of Turin, that such fortifications had been built in those places many years before, and that no more was meant than to repair them. If Alessandria is not covered by them, the rest of the ceded country is at least, in some measure, secured. Indeed, the king of Sardinia's dominions are greatly exposed on the Milanese side. In the cathedral of this city are some good sculptures in marble, and paintings in fresco. Upon the pavement of a chapel is an humble epitaph, which informs us that "Philip Maria Resta, the least of bishops, and the greatest of sinners, recommends himself to the prayers of the reader." In another chapel, a square stone over the entrance of a vault has the following extraordinary inscription:—"For the benefit of the pious worshippers of the virgin mother of God, who expired while her son hung on the cross, the governors of this chapel caused this vault to be dug in virgin ground, that the dead, as well as the living, may feel the influences of the mother of mercy."

We now come to that part of the king of Sardinia's dominions, from whence he obtains the titles of royalty.

Sardinia is situated in the Mediterranean; and, on the northward, is divided from the island of Corsica by the straits of Bonifacio, it being situated between the thirty-eighth degree forty-five minutes and, the forty-first degree twenty minutes north latitude, and between the eighth degree thirty minutes, and the tenth degree twenty-five minutes east longitude. This island, next to Sicily, is the largest and most fertile island in the Mediterranean; it extending a hundred and seventy miles in length from north to south, a hundred in breadth from east to west, and about seven hundred in circuit, comprehending the turnings and windings of the coast.

The morasses, and the high mountains on the north side of this island, obstructing the wind, render the air very wholesome, upon which account the ancient Romans made it a place of banishment. The country is, however, extremely fertile, it producing all sorts of corn

and fruit. In some parts of it are woods of five or six miles in length of orange and citron trees; and as for olives, plums, pears, cherries, and chesnuts, they grow in such plenty, that they hardly yield any price. There are here also bred vast herds of large and small cattle, so that this island furnishes Italy with wool, hides, and a fine sort of cheese. Few countries afford a greater quantity of game of all sorts; the most profitable of which to the inhabitants is that of their buffaloes, wild-boars, and various kinds of deer, some of which are so finely marked, that their skins might be taken for those of tigers. The ridges of the mountains on the northern side are no less rich within than barren without, they yielding great quantities of metals and minerals. Round the coast are many sea-ports, spacious and deep enough to receive a considerable number of the largest ships, besides many inferior ones for smaller vessels.

This island has undergone many changes with respect to its government: it was once subject to the Carthaginians; the Romans held it next, and kept possession of it till the decline of their empire; when, in the ninth century, it fell into the hands of the Saracens, who were afterwards expelled by the Genoese and Pisans; from which time the inhabitants were governed by petty princes of their own. It suffered greatly during the wars between the Pisans and Genoese, as well as afterwards during those between the emperors of Germany and the popes. Boniface VIII. at last granted it, in the year 1298, to king James of Arragon, whose son, Alphonso IV. after much opposition, made himself master of it in 1324. From this time it continued under the dominion of Spain, and was governed by a viceroy, till the year 1708, when the English making a conquest of it for king Charles III. afterwards emperor, by the title of Charles VI. it was confirmed to him by the treaty of Utrecht. In 1717 it was recovered by the Spaniards, and the next year the emperor exchanged it for Sicily with the duke of Savoy, who was put in possession of it in the year 1720.

This kingdom is of more importance to the house of Savoy as a monarchy than on account of its revenues; for the charges of the army and civil officers being deducted, the remainder does not much exceed a hundred thousand livres. It is governed by a viceroy.

The whole island is divided into two parts; Capo di Lugatori forms the north part of the island, and Capo Cagliari the south. It has three archbishoprics, and four bishoprics, which, as well as the several collegiate churches in the island, are immensely rich; and both the clergy and monks have such vast privileges and immunities, that every family strives to have one or more of their children of that number: hence they swarm every where, to the no small detriment and oppression of the mercantile and working part of the inhabitants, who are forced to starve themselves to maintain the others in pride and luxury.

The inhabitants have been generally represented as brutish, ignorant, poor, proud, and lazy; so that, notwithstanding the fertility of the country, and the many advantages the inhabitants enjoy from their situation and ports, their lands are in a great measure neglected, and the people indigent: but their ignorance, poverty, and indolence, are probably owing to the tyranny and oppression of their governors and of their overgrown clergy and nobility, both which enjoy such exorbitant privileges as must necessarily cramp the industry of the middling sort of people. As for the nobility and gentry, they have always taken care to extort such privileges from their new masters, that they are not only exempt from the payment of taxes, but from being tried for any crime, even that of treason, by any but a council of seven of their peers, who uphold each other in all these cases; so that the viceroys can seldom punish the most guilty of them, by having the majority of votes on his side, and even then it only ends in some fine, or at most in banishment. This makes every one that can afford the price purchase nobility from those governors at any rate; by which means they are grown so numerous and arrogant, that the whole burthen of the public taxes, as hath already been intimated, fall on the people of the lower rank. Indeed it does not seem to have been the

design either of the crown of Spain formerly, or of Savoy since, to remedy any of these evils, and put the island in such a flourishing condition as it might soon be raised to, by the encouragement of agriculture and commerce.

Cagliari, the capital of the island, and the seat of the viceroy, of an archbishopric, and an university, is seated on a large bay of the same name, on the south part of the island, in latitude thirty-nine degrees twenty-five minutes, and in nine degrees fifty-three minutes east longitude. It has a secure harbour, capable of receiving a great number of ships of burthen, and, besides other works, is defended by a castle. The city being situated on the declivity of a hill, is divided into high and low. On the higher appears the stately cathedral covered all over with marble, and adorned both without and within with the finest architecture, sculpture, paintings, and every thing that is rich and beautiful. The whole upper town is surrounded with a good wall, and is handsome and well built; but the lower, which stands near the sea-shore, being seated just under the other, and receiving all the filth which falls down upon it, is generally dirty and unwholesome, especially in winter, and is but poorly inhabited. There are in the whole but four parishes, including the cathedrals, twenty-two monasteries, and three suburbs.

There are many small islands round Sardinia, the largest of which are Asinaria, Tavolara, Antioca, and Pietro. The most considerable of these islands is that of Asinaria, which is about twenty-five miles distant from Cape Doria, and was stiled by the ancients the great island of Hercules. It is about twenty-eight miles in compass, and is seated in the forty-first degree north latitude, and in the eighth degree forty-five minutes east longitude.

Having now concluded our account of the dominions of the house of Sardinia, we shall proceed to those of Austria in Upper Italy.

SECT. V.

Of the Dutchy of MILAN.

The Situation, Extent, and Produce of the Milanese; with the Trade, Revenues, Forces, Manners, and Customs of the Inhabitants. A particular Description of the Lake called Lago Maggiore, with its two beautiful Islands Isola Madre and Isola Bella, and of the City of Milan.

THE Austrian dominions in Upper Italy at present consist of the most considerable part of the dutchy of Milan, including Pavia, Cremona, &c. and the entire dutchy of Mantua.

The dutchy of Milan is bounded to the westward by Savoy, Piedmont, and Montferrat; on the north by Swisserland; on the east by the territories of Venice, and the dutchies of Mantua, Parma, and Placentia; and on the south by the dependencies of the republic of Genoa; extending from south to north upwards of a hundred English miles, and in its greatest length from east to west above a hundred and eight.

There is scarce a country in Europe more fertile in a variety of excellent productions. It is every where watered either by rivulets or canals, and, after the harvest of the usual kinds of grain, the people sow Turkey wheat, chiefly on account of their poultry, which they have in great plenty, and exceeding good. The pastures are very rich, especially in the district of Lodi, which is famous for the breeding of cattle. The cheese made in the country, and improperly called Parmesan, is used all over Italy in the best soups. Here are also excellent wines, and all manner of vegetables and fruits in perfection; together with a considerable number of mulberry-trees for breeding the silk-worms. The charms of this country are also heightened by three large and beautiful lakes: these are the Lago Maggiore, the Lago di Lugano, which is twenty English miles in length, and the Lago di Como, which extends from north to south thirty-six Italian miles.

The trade of the Milanese is considerable; but the greatest part of the commodities the country affords is consumed

consumed by the inhabitants, their exports generally coming far short of their imports. They, however, manufacture great quantities of woollen and linen cloths; silk is also here in great plenty, but it is not so fine as the Piedmontese, and the stuffs made of it are chiefly for home consumption; but the fine silk stockings, gloves, and handkerchiefs made here are usually exported. Milan is also famous for its curious works in steel, crystal, agates, hyacinths, and other gems; and the country every where abounds with ingenious artificers.

From the extraordinary fertility and richness of this country, it may be supposed to produce a considerable revenue for its sovereign. It is said to have brought in to the kings of Spain above two millions of dollars per annum; and Keysser says, that the Austrian general-governor has an annual income of two hundred thousand florins.

The regular forces in the dutchy amount to eighteen thousand men, the greatest part of whose cloathing, arms, and other necessaries, come from Germany, to the no small discontent of the Milanese, who think it hard that as the money for the payment of these troops is raised among them, it should not be laid out and circulated in their country.

The political vicissitudes of the state, from this country devolving from the French to the Spaniards, and from these to the Germans, have occasioned the resort of troops into this dutchy composed of these different nations; and these have introduced a much more social and free way of living than is found in the south parts of Italy. To these the fertility of the country and the wealth of the nobility do not a little contribute. The ladies can hardly be under less restraint even in France than they are here; for, during the carnival, they give balls and masquerades by turns at the public taverns, in order to avoid the inconveniencies with which such entertainments would be attended at their own houses; while their husbands seem perfectly easy with regard to these festivals, either from pusillanimity or a confidence in the virtue and discretion of their ladies, and some are so passionately fond of them as to grudge them nothing that can contribute to their pleasure. The women of the lower class imitate their superiors as much as possible, and indulge themselves in liberties which in other parts of Italy are denied them. Here, as in Paris, trade is mostly managed by women, who amuse themselves with sewing and embroidery, and the shops, though they are quite open while the season permits, are places of rendezvous for a great deal of company. Even in convents the austerities of the monastic life are so far relaxed, that a traveller may not only talk, rally, and laugh with the nuns at the grate, but join in a concert with them, and spend whole afternoons in these familiarities.

We have already mentioned the beautiful lakes in this dutchy, and it will be proper before we proceed to describe the principal cities, to give a description of the Lago Maggiore, or Lago di Locarno, which is the most extraordinary. It is sixty-five Italian miles in length, in most places it is six broad, and its depth about the middle is eight fathoms. Towards Swisserland it terminates in a canal that is of vast advantage to commerce. The lake is every way environed with hills, covered with vineyards and summer-houses, and above the vineyards are plantations of chesnut trees, the fruit of which is consumed in such quantities, that when chesnuts are in great plenty, the price of corn falls, especially at Genoa. Along the banks of the lake are fine rows of trees, and walks arched with vine branches, especially near the town of Alesco. This beautiful prospect is farther heightened by large natural cascades falling from the mountains.

Two leagues from Sesti the lake begins to widen, and on entering the bay appears the two celebrated islands Isola Madre and Isola Bella; the former belonging to count Boromeo, and the latter to the emperor. These two islands have been compared to two pyramids of sweetmeats, adorned with green festoons and flowers. At one end of the garden of the Isola Bella are ten terraces, the perpendicular height of which, taken together, says Mr. Keysser, is sixty ells above the height of the water, each ell consisting of three spans. These terraces decrease

proportionably in their circuit as they rise towards the top of the hill, where an oblong area, paved with fine stone, and surrounded with a balustrade, affords a most delightful prospect. It is in length from forty-five to fifty common paces, and on every side stands a range of marble statues of a gigantic size. The rain-water runs into cisterns underneath, to which also other water is conveyed in order to supply the water-works. Round every terrace is a pleasant walk, and at the four angles are large statues and pyramids placed alternately. The walls from the bottom to the top are covered with laurel hedges, and espaliers of orange, lemon, peach-trees, &c. The laurels stand in the open air during the whole winter; but the lemon and orange-trees are sheltered over with a covering of boards, and in sharp weather cherished with heat, from fires provided for that purpose at a great expence. The annual charges of these Boromean paradises amount to forty thousand Piedmontese livres. But to raise so noble a superstructure upon such a foundation, and to bring these islands to their present incomparable beauty and magnificence, seems an undertaking beyond even the revenue of a prince to accomplish. The Isola Bella was no longer ago than the middle of the last century only a barren rock, to which every basket of earth, and whatever is found there, must have been brought by water at a prodigious expence.

The garden of Isola Bella has a south aspect, and at the two angles of its front are two round towers, in which are very lofty apartments, adorned with red and black marble. Here is also a covered gallery, supported by stone columns, and shaded with lemon-trees. On the other side, that is towards the east, is a delightful walk of large orange-trees disposed in four or five rows.

At a small distance is a fine grove of olives, with narrow walks, and a cascade that falls down above twenty steps. Here is also a plantation of large pomegranate-trees. The lake comes up so close both to the palace and gardens, as scarcely to leave so much dry ground as to set one's foot upon, except a small space before the north front of the palace, which has a fine prospect towards Isella. On the east and west sides are large vaults, upon which the earth has been raised to the height above-mentioned; and the whole may be compared to the hanging gardens of antiquity. These vaults are not only a foundation for the soil, but an ornament to the gardens, all of them resembling so many grottos. Near the palace are kept in a shed built on purpose three fine gondolas for parties of pleasure upon the water.

In the palace are a great number of fine paintings, vases, busts, and other curiosities. Among the pictures, the flower-pieces, some of which are done upon marble, cannot be sufficiently enough admired; several of the chambers are hung with portraits of the cardinals who were of the Boromean family. The vaults on which the palace stands are contiguous to the lake, and like grottos are adorned with marble and shell-work. The floor is a sort of Mosaic formed of small stones, placed so as to represent a variety of figures. Besides this assemblage of the beauties of art and nature, the lake, with its undulating waves, continually washes the entrance into these grottos; so that a more delightful summer retreat can hardly be imagined.

On going from the house towards the garden, the smell is immediately refreshed with the mingled odours of fruits and flowers. The first contre-espallier, after ascending a few steps, consists of bergamot, lemon, and citron-trees; next to this appears a high range of orange-trees, beyond which you come to a lofty grotto adorned with water-works and statues. Over its center is an unicorn of enormous size, in a springing attitude, with a Cupid on his back, and on both sides is an ascent by steps to the oblong area which terminates the ten terraces.

From Isola Bella to Isola Madre is about half an hour's sailing, though their great height makes them appear much nearer. The latter has seven terraces, which are high but sloping, and a considerable distance from each other, by which means it appears to be lower than Isola Bella, though according to the original plan they are of an equal height. The greatest part of the external foundation of Isola Madre is a high perpendicular rock, projecting considerably over the water, so that it did not require

require so much masonry as *Ifola Bella*. That part of the front of the palace is only completed which looks towards *Sesti* and the above island, and is adorned with fine paintings of flowers, portraits, and landscapes.

The garden of this island also abounds with beauties, particularly a fine espalier of citron-trees, with a low contre-espalier of orange-trees, an arched walk of cedars, a smaller espalier of jessamine, an espalier of acacia, and another of rosemary not less than eight feet in height. Here are also several small groves of laurel, with walks cut through them. Some of these trees are of an uncommon thickness; and one of these espaliers of laurels is above eighteen feet high: such a hedge, by means of the mildness of the air, and its being fenced from the north wind by the neighbouring mountains, shoots up to this height in six or seven years.

The *Ifola Madre* is a secure place for keeping of pheasants, which are easily confined here on account of the great breadth of the lake: for when any of them attempt to fly over it, they soon flag and drop into the water, from which they are immediately taken up by a waterman who puts off for that purpose, and brought back. This, however, seldom happens; for as this island is larger than *Ifola Bella*, and abounds with every thing proper for them, as well as places for shelter, they seldom attempt to make their escape. There is a little house built for the young pheasants, and near it a beautiful grove of lofty cypress trees. This appears to be the finest part of the island, and recalls to one's mind the fabulous descriptions that have been given of enchanted groves and islands. The walks through this cedar plantation lead by a descent to the summer-house near the lake. The shores of both islands are set round with painted flower-pots, and when any foreign prince comes in the night, or makes some stay here, both islands are illuminated with lights of all colours, which exhibit a very glorious spectacle.

But to return, the duchy in general is divided into the Milanese, properly so called, the earldom of *Angliera*, the districts of *Como* and *Lodigiano*, with a part of the *Pavese* and the *Cremonese*; the two last of which, with their capitals, will be described in a separate article.

Milan, in Latin *Medilanum*, the capital of the duchy, is situated in the forty-fifth degree twenty-three minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree twenty minutes east longitude, and is ten Italian miles round; but would not, perhaps, take up half the space, were its many gardens excluded. Its chief defence is a lined rampart. The citadel stands at some distance from the city, yet, being in the form of a crescent, environs a considerable part of it. This consists of six bastions, which, with the morafs on the land side, secures it pretty well from being approached with trenches or mines. Towards the city are two turrets, the walls of which are twelve ells in thickness, and faced with square blocks of marble. The city is provided with a foundery for guns, and an arsenal with arms for twenty thousand men, and over the gate is an inscription in honour of Philip II. king of Spain, which gives him the title of defender of the faith.

The city of Milan is not to be compared for beauty and convenience with *Turin*, most of the streets being narrow and crooked. Paper windows are here also more common than either at *Turin* or *Florence*, and have a worse appearance; as even in the houses of noblemen, glass and paper are often seen in the same window, the latter being stuck on to supply the place of a broken pane. All the houses are covered with pantiles, and in many of the cross streets, and at the stations where the public processions stop, figures are erected, some of marble; but most of them of brass. The inhabitants are computed at three hundred thousand.

Here are twenty-two gates, two hundred and thirty churches, of which ninety-six are parochial, ninety convents, a hundred religious fraternities, and a hundred and twenty schools. The archbishop's cathedral, dedicated to *St. Maria and Thecla*, is four hundred and eighty feet in length, and is built in the Gothic taste. It excels in the number of its ornaments and sculptures, with which it is entirely covered both within and without; and, to form a true idea of this edifice, it is ne-

cessary to conceive a vast collection of roses, trees animals, pyramids, grotesques, statues, and a thousand other varieties, mingled without taste or regularity. The statues are done by good hands, and some of them deserve admiration, particularly one of *St. Bartholomew* just flayed, and his skin hanging over his shoulders; though some give the preference to those of *Adam* and *Eve* over the main portal. The great number of pillars that support the roof, many of which can scarce be fathomed by three men, are all of marble, of which every where, both without and within the church, there is a vast profusion. Between the pillars are placed large paintings representing the life of *St. Charles Boromeo*, and among other passages his selling the principality of *Doria*, and in one day distributing eighty thousand dollars among the poor. Near these are silver votive offerings to the weight of some thousands of ounces, representing heads, ears, and other parts of the body, which had been hurt or diseased, but supposed to have been restored to perfect soundness by the intercession of *St. Boromeo*. The silversmiths expose to sale such votive pieces of different sizes ready made, that a recovered patient may immediately pay his vow, lest his gratitude should be cooled by delay.

The church is paved with Mosaic work, formed of pieces of red, black, and white marble, inlaid so as to represent circles, foliage, festoons, flowers, &c. so that when it is viewed from the cupola, it resembles a beautiful carpet.

The tabernacle in the choir, where the host is kept, is supported by four angels of brass of the size of a man, and at some distance on each side stands another angel. The stalls of the prebends are made of walnut-tree, on which all the remarkable actions of the emperor *Theodosius* and *St. Ambrose* are admirably executed in sculpture, and every action represented on a distinct compartment. The canons are divided into three classes, thirty of which are nobles, and, like cardinals, wear a red vestment. The second class consists of wealthy citizens, who are clothed in green; and the rest wear the common habit of the clergy.

The two chancels facing the entrance of the choir are encompassed with fine brass statues, and its outside contains the history of the New Testament, admirably expressed in basso rilievo upon white marble, by *Andrea Bissi*; but the best of them is that of the birth of *Christ*, which is accounted a master-piece.

The body of *St. Charles Boromeo* is placed on the altar of a subterraneous chapel, directly under the principal cupola; it is dressed in episcopal robes, and deposited in a crystal shrine within a coffin made of wood. There is but one key to it, which is kept by the archbishop, without whose order this relic is not to be seen. The walls of the chapel are almost every where lined with silver; but the epitaph is on marble. Every fourth of November this body is exposed with great solemnity and devotion. The treasury is extremely rich, and contains a prodigious number of gold and silver vessels, bustos, statues, ostensoria, rings, chalices, crucifixes, &c. of which the metal is the least valuable part. Among these is a silver image of *St. Boromeo*, bigger than the life, with a diamond crucifix of immense value, hanging at his breast. The front of the mitre, which is always put upon the deceased archbishop's head when his body is carried in procession, is entirely covered with pearls.

On the roof of the choir hangs one of the nails with which it is pretended *Christ* was fastened to the cross; it is cased in crystal, and near it is a machine by which six persons at once may be drawn up to it. On the third of May, the festival of the invention of the cross, this relic is carried about in a grand procession, the archbishop holding it under a magnificent canopy, the whole body of the clergy, the governor-general, and the principal persons of the city assisting at the ceremony. Among other curiosities shewn here, is a piece of *Aaron's rod*, which, however, the church of *St. John de Lateran* at *Rome* pretends to have quite entire; some pieces of it are also shewn in the palace church at *Hanover* among the relics which *Henry*, surnamed the *Lion*, brought from the Holy Land.

A marble

A marble stair-case carried round one of the main pillars, leads up to the first outward gallery. Here is a marble statue of duke John Galeazzo Visconti, on the top of a pyramid, with a flag in his hand. This duke in 1386 laid the foundation of this edifice. Many statues of saints, dukes, and other eminent personages, stand round this gallery. The roof of this church will be entirely covered with marble, part of it being so already. The large square blocks of marble used for this purpose are so closely cemented together with stucco, that no rain can penetrate through the joints. Hence it may be easily conceived that the pillars and arches must sustain an immense weight. Upon one side of this gallery are marble statues of all the architects who have conducted the building of this church.

On mounting ninety-one steps higher, you come to a gallery which leads round the inside, and at the height of thirty or forty steps above this gallery, hang three large bells, one of which was consecrated by St. Charles Boromeo; and here, through an aperture, is a view of the inside of the principal cupola, which is divided into a great number of square compartments, and adorned with seventy-six statues. Four flights of steps, and other curious works enriched with statues, bring you to the top of the cupola.

With respect to the outside of this church, the eastern part, or that belonging to the choir, is completed; but the part most exposed to view, particularly the front towards the great square, is in a bad condition; probably that persons of fortune and a liberal disposition may be incited to contribute largely towards it. It is already four hundred and fifty years since the church was begun, and the whole square behind it is filled with workmen employed in sawing, cutting, and polishing the marble; and there is reason to believe that something or other will always remain to be done, a yearly income of eighteen thousand crowns being levied till the church shall be entirely completed. It is pretended that two thousand statues are still wanting for the front, and that the other parts of the edifice require at least five thousand. The number of statues about the church so long ago as the year 1714, amounted to four thousand four hundred; and some affirm, that above six hundred of those already set up, are worth a thousand dollars each: but it is not improbable, that in these computations, the word statue is a little overstrained beyond its usual import.

Opposite to the cathedral stands the archbishop's palace, a very spacious building that has two courts, in one of which are the statues of St. Charles Boromeo, and St. Ambrose; the latter with an iron rod in his hand, as an emblem of his heroic opposition to the emperor Theodosius. This palace has a communication with the cathedral by a subterraneous passage.

With respect to marble sculptures, paintings, gilding, and stucco-work, St. Alexander's church surpasses any in Milan, except the cathedral. The high altar of this church, the chancel, and two confessionals, are enriched with lapis lazuli, agate, jasper, and other gems. The life of this saint is painted on canvas in several compartments.

The church of St. Ambrose is divided between the Bernardines and the canons regular. The choir is common between them, and is, as well as the cupola, adorned with mosaic-work. The tabernacle for the host stands between four pillars of porphyry. Near the chancel is shewn upon a marble pillar, a brazen serpent, which the vulgar believe to be the same which Moses set up in the wilderness, though others, more modest, judge it to be made only of some fragments of the former; while others again imagine it to be a symbolical image of the god Æsculapius. However, on Easter Tuesday, a great number of sickly children are placed before it, from a superstitious expectation of their being restored to health.

The body of St. Ambrose is deposited near the high altar. The gates of the portal are by tradition said to be the same which St. Ambrose shut against the emperor Theodosius, till he had done penance for his cruelly massacring the inhabitants of Thessalonica on account of a sedition. Pilgrims generally pick little splinters out of these gates, and carry them away as sacred relics.

The Ambrosian college, which stands near the center of the city, is a foundation for teaching the several branches of literature, where youth are instructed gratis by sixteen professors. What is here principally worth a traveller's notice is the library, which, except in vacation time, is open every morning from ten to twelve, and also two hours in the afternoon. It contains forty-five thousand printed volumes; but these, however, are far less valuable than its treasure of manuscripts, which are said to amount to fifteen thousand; but though this number is probably much exaggerated, it must be acknowledged to contain some good pieces. The most curious manuscripts in the whole library are, a translation of Josephus's history of the Jews by Rufinus, it being reputed to be above one thousand three hundred, or according to others, one thousand one hundred years old, and written on the bark of a tree; and the works of Leonardo da Vinci. Mr. Addison observes, that in the Ambrosian library is shewn the Italian genius; for they have spent more money on pictures than on books; but among the heads of several learned men, there is no Englishman to be met with except bishop Fisher, whom Henry VIII. caused to be beheaded for not owning his supremacy. Books are indeed the least part of the furniture which people usually go to see in an Italian library; for these are generally set off, after the example of the old Greeks and Romans, with pictures, statues, and other ornaments, where they can afford them.

In an apartment behind the library are several rarities often mentioned by travellers, as a head of Titian by his own hand, with the pictures of persons eminent for their learning, among which are those of Lucretia Cornara, and Isabella de Rosales; the former of whom was mistress of seven languages, and by her skill in philosophy, gained the applause of the university of Padua.

In the Ambrosian college is also an academy of painting, where, in the summer months, the artists both in painting and sculpture frequently draw and make models from the life.

Some adjacent rooms serve for a museum, where, among other curiosities, is the skeleton of a woman of great beauty, who directed that her bones should be disposed of in this manner, that the living, by viewing the dead, might be better able to restore health to the sick. There is here also an image which walks about the room, and performs many gestures by clock-work.

The church of St. Angelo, besides the statues in the front, has abundance of fine paintings and marble sculptures; as has also the church of St. Antonio del Fuoco, which, among other paintings, has a fine piece by Annibal Carracci, and is adorned with inlaid work in the Florentine taste, consisting of pieces of oriental marble, mother of pearl, and gems, in the form of birds and flowers, and altar-pieces of the finest Florentine marble.

Before the main entrance of St. Celso's church are two large statues of Adam and Eve; the latter is particularly esteemed a master-piece. In the front are four fine statues of the Evangelists, also of white marble, with many other statues, whose pedestals are of brass. In the church are several fine pictures, as also the tomb of Annibal Fontana, the famous sculptor, with a pompous inscription, in which it is said that nature stood amazed while he transformed marble into men.

The church of St. Francis is remarkable for the massacre of the innocents, painted in fresco over the great altar, and the picture of our Saviour's feeding five thousand people.

The church of St. Giovanni da Casarotti is small, but adorned with decorations in marble: it has a vault for the interment of executed criminals, and belongs to the fraternity of Cavalieri, who wear a small cross upon one shoulder on their upper garment, and are of the best families in Milan. It is an indispensable duty incumbent on this order, that when a malefactor is to be executed, some of the members visit him the night before, in order to prepare him for the other world. At the place of execution, one of the most eminent among them ascends a ladder up to the gallows, holding the crucifix before the criminal, who goes up backwards, and at parting pronounces the benediction; while the capuchins

chins, whose usual office is here to attend criminals in their last hours, remain below. On this occasion two ladders are placed against the gallows, one for the executioner and the criminal, and the other for the cavalier, who attends masked, and when the criminal is dead, cuts him down. Others of the fraternity assist in taking up the dead body, and carrying it to the chapel in order to be interred. The fraternity have, however, few opportunities of performing these humble offices at Milan; for the soldiers are exempt from the civil jurisdiction, they being tried by martial law; and such is the fertility of the soil, and the opulence of the people, that even the poor by begging find no difficulty in obtaining subsistence, without taking to dangerous courses. Besides, the privilege of sanctuary granted to churches and monasteries, shelters many criminals from the hands of justice.

The church of St. Paolo, belonging to the Bernardine nuns, is remarkable for its fine frontispiece, upon which is a statue of the Madonna di Loretto, and the conversion of St. Paul, in basso relievo, on a single piece of white marble, in which the efforts of the horse to recover from his astonishment are most admirably expressed. Within the church the whole life of that apostle is represented in several beautiful pictures, by four brothers of the name of Campi, who are natives of Verona. The most remarkable of the other paintings are the decollation of John the Baptist, the Lord's supper, and Christ committing to St. Peter the power of the keys.

The church De la Passione is one of the finest ecclesiastical buildings in the city, particularly its front, which is crowded with excellent statues, and scripture histories in basso relievos. It belongs to the canons regular, who reside in a very stately building adjacent to it. In their refectory the Lord's supper is excellently painted, according to some, by Christopher Cibo; but others attribute it to Gaudenzio. Their garden is very large, with pleasure-walks arched over by vines, and a very fine gallery adorned on both sides with statues of black and white marble.

What appears very singular is, that both here and in other churches of the Milanese, the entrances are crowded with old women spinning, or busy about some other employment. As they do not beg, they probably conceive it to be a work of merit to spend the whole day, as it were, in the house of God.

In most churches of Milan the Ambrosian ritual is used, which differs from the Romish only in some forms of prayer, and a few ceremonies; but the convents of regulars adhere to the Romish.

Among the charitable foundations, the principal is the great hospital, a noble building, founded by duke Francisco Sforza. The middle court of this structure is surrounded by a piazza, each side consisting of twenty arches, supported by marble pillars, and is two hundred and fifty feet square, with three galleries running round the building. Besides this large court, there are eight smaller, and twenty-four wards for the sick and wounded, who are distributed according to their different diseases. The consumptive patients have their particular ward, another is appointed for fevers, a third for the small pox, a fourth for the venereal disease, &c. There are sometimes four hundred patients in the fever ward, which is very long, and in the form of a cross, with an altar in the center; so that all the patients may see it from their beds. In the admission of exposed foundlings, or of the sick and wounded, no difference is made with regard to country or religion. The protestants lie in the same wards with the other patients, but at the farther end; and while the host is elevated or carried about, a curtain is drawn between them and the rest. Thus, by a very commendable and humane indulgence, the adoration of the host is dispensed with, and the conscience freed from all compulsion; nor are strangers obliged to kneel on meeting the host, either in the churches or streets.

The number of patients exceeds one thousand five hundred, the females being distributed into nine particular wards, and the officers and servants of all ranks are said to amount to five hundred.

At the expence of the hospital, but at another place, are maintained about three hundred idiots and lunatics,

and also above five thousand foundlings, some of whom are kept in the country. The boys are brought up to handicraft trades, and the girls are taught the use of the needle and household business. It has been sometimes known, that persons in good circumstances, having no legitimate children, or near relations, have taken a child out of this hospital, and adopted it as their own. Its annual income amounts to ninety or one hundred thousand dollars. The inquisition in this city chiefly exercises its severities on the Jews, for none of that persuasion must come within the city, without first making his appearance before this tribunal, and at the Dominican convent in the suburbs of the Porta Vercellina. This court, besides ecclesiastics, consists of sixty noblemen, and one hundred and fifty reputable merchants.

It is surprizing what a number of misshapen dwarfs, and people afflicted with wens of a monstrous size, are to be found in the streets of Milan.

In most of the Milanese inns, a young traveller is generally asked whether he would have a letto fornito, which means a female bedfellow, who never unmask till she enters the bed-chamber. How dangerous is this to the morals of young travellers! and to what an extreme risque is their health exposed, while it depends on the choice of a mercenary landlord!

In the neighbourhood of the city are many beautiful seats, among which, that of the marquis Simonetti's villa, a few miles from Milan, is particularly remarkable for its surprizing echo, which towards the garden, from two wings of the building, parallel to each other, and standing at the distance of fifty-eight common paces, without windows or doors, distinctly repeats the sound of a man's voice, but chiefly the last syllable forty times, and the report of a pistol above sixty.

S E C T. VI.

A Description of the City of Pavia, and of a celebrated Carthusian Convent near that City; with an Account of the City of Cremona.

THE greatest part of the Pavese, as hath been already intimated, belongs to the king of Sardinia; and both this district and that of Cremona are included in the dutchy of Milan.

Pavia, or Ticinum, the capital of the Pavese, is situated in the forty-fifth degree eighteen minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree forty-four minutes east longitude. It is a large, but old and desolate city on the river Tessino, with very indifferent fortifications, and a castle and citadel in the old taste. The streets are indeed broad and straight; but the houses are mean, and the city has no remains of its ancient splendor, when capital of the kingdom of Lombardy. It has nine churches, a like number of convents, and is a bishop's see; but the cathedral is old and of brick, as are most of the public edifices. In the area before it stands a brass equestrian statue called Regisola, by some thought to be Antoninus Pius, and by others Marcus Aurelius. The Augustine convent is only remarkable for the noble marble monument in which are said to be deposited the bones of St. Augustine. Its university, founded by Charlemagne and re-established by Charles IV. has seven colleges. Here is also another college founded by pope Pius V. whose statue is erected before it; but a much finer of the same pope may be seen in the college.

Five miles from Pavia is a Carthusian monument, celebrated for its magnificence. The church is remarkably superb, the front being entirely of white marble, ornamented with sculptures, and is covered with wires to secure it from being sullied or damaged. Within the church is curious iron-work, a great part of which is gilt: it is said to have cost 60,000 dollars. Here are also twelve incomparable statues of Carrara marble, four of which on the out-side represent the cardinal virtues; the other eight, which stand in the middle aisle of the church, are the four evangelists, with St. Gregory, St. Austin, St. Ambrose, and St. Jerom. Here are likewise two large basons for holy water, of curious workmanship. Besides the high altar, there are sixteen others,

in as many chapels that stand opposite to each other, exactly alike, with regard to the marble columns and the architecture, and only differing in the paintings and ornaments before the altars. The colours and disposition of the alabaster, granates, and different kinds of marble, cannot be sufficiently admired. Most of the altars are adorned in the new Florentine taste, with exquisite imitations of flowers, &c. formed of precious stones inlaid in marble. The great altar is richly adorned in this beautiful manner, and before it stand several bronze pyramids, and it is ornamented with a chandelier of the same taste. Indeed this altar glitters with a profusion of gems, and the tabernacle upon it is so curiously inlaid with onyx, lapis lazuli, agate, &c. that it is valued at eighty thousand dollars. The roof of the church is blue, with stars of gold, in imitation of the sky spangled with stars in a clear evening. In short, the splendor of this superb church is daily increasing, some distinguished artists being constantly retained for improving, and adding new ornaments.

The library of the convent is far from being answerable to its outward magnificence. The building on the right hand of the entrance into the great court has very fine apartments in the second story, in which the present empress was once entertained. In a little square garden adjoining to the convent are water-works, with which the grave fathers take a great delight in putting tricks upon other monks of their order; and whenever the conductor intends a person the favour of a deluge of water, or a shower, there is no escaping it.

There is, besides, in the area of the building a large garden of a quadrangular form, with a very beautiful walk covered over with an intertexture of vines, five hundred common paces in length, and adorned with marble statues on each side. Opposite the wall of this spacious square are the cells of the monks, built separately, with a little private garden behind every cell. The number of monks in this convent amount to between fifty and sixty.

We now come to the Cremonese, the last district we shall describe in the duchy of Milan, which is exceeding fruitful, and, besides delicious wine, produces great quantities of honey and flax.

Cremona is a walled city in the Cremonese, situated in the forty-fifth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree thirty-six minutes east longitude. It stands on the Po, which has a bridge over it guarded by a fort: it is also defended by a castle, and is five Italian miles in compass. Its squares are spacious, and its houses handsome, with straight and broad streets. The cathedral is a magnificent structure, besides which there are sixty-two churches, chapels, and convents.

The Dominican church is adorned with some good paintings, and a superb altar of lapis lazuli, agate, and beautiful marble. On the ceiling is seen the picture of the virgin Mary, who, in token of her peculiar protection, lays her mantle over three monks and as many nuns of the Dominican order. In the area before the church is a statue of St. Dominic, holding a cross in his right hand, and in his left a dog with a lighted torch in his mouth. St. Peter's church, which belongs to the canons regular, is a beautiful structure, adorned with elegant paintings. The Augustines have a good library, and their church also exhibits several good pieces of painting. The university in this city is now in little repute.

Cremona owes a part of its reputation to the attempt made on that city by prince Eugene in 1702. By means of a correspondence carried on between the Imperialists and some of the citizens, and particularly with Casoli, the curate of St. Maria Nuova, a church that stood near the ramparts, he got possession of the Porta Santa and town-house, where marshal Villeroy resided, and on the first of February entered the city by a canal or aqueduct, through which the French had formerly surprized the place. But the troops which were to support this bold enterprize, having lost their way by the darkness of the night and a fog, came up too late, and gave the French time to recover from their panic, and put themselves in a posture of defence; so that the Imperialists were obliged to retreat, contenting themselves with the honour of carrying off Villeroy prisoner from a

garrison of six thousand men. The French, in the first transport of their rage against Casoli, pulled down the church of St. Maria Nuova to the ground; so that nothing of it is now to be seen. But near the place where the church stood, is shewn the subterraneous passage through which the Germans entered the city, which is now secured with a strong iron grate.

S E C T. VII.

The Dutchy of MANTUA.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and beautiful Face of the Country: Its History, and a Description of the City of Mantua.

THE dutchy of Mantua, also called the Mantuan, is bounded on the east by the dutchy of Ferrara and the Padovan, on the north by Bresciano and the Veronese, on the west by the Milanese, and on the south by Modena and Mirandola, extending about fifty-six English miles in length, and forty in breadth.

Its principal river is the Po, besides which it is also watered by the rivers Oglio, Menso, Secchia, and some others, all which discharge themselves into the Po.

The country abounds in corn, fruit, vegetables for the kitchen, with some wine, great quantities of flax, and a considerable number of good horses. In winter, after great rains, the road between Cremona and Mantua, which are forty Italian miles distant, is almost impassable, from the softness and depth of the soil: but this inconvenience is fully compensated by the exuberant fertility of the whole country; and one cannot sufficiently admire the verdure of the fields and meadows, which are divided by beautiful rows of trees, with abundance of vines twining round their trunks and spreading among their branches. The great number of nightingales that frequent this tract of land, by their plaintive warblings, render the charming scene still more delightful. Indeed a person who makes any stay in Italy, is so accustomed to fine prospects and enchanting landscapes, that they in time grow familiar to his eye, and are less regarded than when they first presented themselves to his view.

With respect to the history of this country, Lewis Gonzaga, having extirpated the Bonacolsi family, made himself master of Mantua in their room: he was of German descent, and took upon him the title of imperial vicar of Mantua, for which he appears to have obtained permission from the emperor Lewis of Bavaria, though the pope refused to acknowledge him as such. He was succeeded by his issue both in the government of Mantua and the imperial vicarship. In 1432 John Francis obtained from the emperor Sigismund the title of marquis, and Frederic II. who was created a duke by the emperor Charles V. by marriage obtained Montferrat, which was afterwards also raised to a dukedom. At length, on the accession of Philip duke of Anjou to the crown of Spain, the duke of Mantua, in consideration of receiving sixty thousand pistoles, and a monthly subsidy of thirty-six thousand dollars for maintaining a French garrison of four thousand men, admitted the French troops into his capital. France also engaged to procure him the restitution of the possessions that formerly belonged to the house of Gonzaga in Italy, and to make good the damages he suffered by the approaching war. But this league with France proved his ruin; he was on that account put under the ban of the empire, and in 1703 the emperor transferred to the duke of Savoy that part of the dutchy of Montferrat which the dukes of Mantua enjoyed as a fief. Two years after the Imperialists over-ran the whole dutchy of Mantua, and in 1708 duke Charles IV. dying under the ban of the empire, the house of Austria has continued in possession of this dutchy, which is now annexed to the government of the Milanese.

Mantua, the capital of the dutchy, is situated in the forty-fifth degree twelve minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree thirty-four minutes east longitude, and stands on a lake, or morass, formed by the inundations of the Mincio, twenty Italian miles in circumference, and two broad. The several parts of this lake have different names, and the two chief bridges extending over it to the city are Ponte di Molini, defended by

two citadels, and Ponte di St. Giorgio, with fortifications at both ends. The city is divided by the water into two almost equal parts, that have a communication with each other by means of six bridges. In the heat of summer, when the lake is low and stagnates, the air becomes so noxious, that the wealthy part of the inhabitants leave the city. The greatest part of the streets are long, broad, and straight; and the city abounds with handsome stone houses, fine squares, and magnificent churches.

On the other side of the lake are three suburbs, namely, to the north Porto Fortezza, to the north-east Il Borgo di St. Giorgio, and to the south Il Thé. The walls, which in some places are fortified with bastions, and in others plain, are computed to be about four miles in circuit. Here are in all four collegiate churches, twenty-one parochial, fourteen other churches and alms-houses, eleven oratories, forty convents, and without the city three parish churches, two other churches, and seven convents. The Jews, of whom there are about four or five thousand, live in a distinct quarter. The number of inhabitants, exclusive of the garrison, was formerly computed at fifty thousand: but in this century, since no court has been kept there, the number has so decreased, that the inhabitants scarce exceed sixteen thousand.

In the cathedral, which is the work of Julio Romano, and is a magnificent structure, are seen paintings of the most celebrated masters, as the calling of Peter and Andrew to the apostleship; the martyrdom of a female saint, whose breasts are torn off with pincers: but the finest of all is a night-piece of St. Antonio del Fuoco, by Paul Veronese, and cannot be viewed without admiration. The cathedral is very spacious, and divided by rows of pillars into five aisles. The church of St. Anthony is more famous for relics than any other in Mantua, a considerable quantity, as it is pretended, of the blood of Christ being kept in a subterraneous chapel with sixteen altars, and once every year shewn to the people. They also here pretend to have the blood of St. Longinus. The Franciscan church has an elegant inside, and such as few of the Mendicant order can shew in Italy: it has also a good library.

The building that was antiently the ducal palace, is far from being a modern structure, but is very large. The ducal gallery and museum, which was once famous, was in the year 1630 pillaged by the Imperialists under general Colalto, who took the city by storm; and all the curiosities, which were worth some millions, fell into the hands of the soldiers, by whom they were partly destroyed and partly dissipated, or sold to persons who knew little of their value. At that time a common soldier was so lucky as to get a booty of eighty ducats; but was so bad an economist as to game it all away in one night, for which Colalto caused him to be hanged the next day. However, some apartments in the palace are worth seeing, the ceiling being painted by Julio Romano, and they contain several tables of Florentine work inlaid with very beautiful pieces of lapis-lazuli and agate; some marble statues and busts; a Moor's head on a pedestal of white marble, with a turban so curiously inlaid, as to imitate very exactly a kind of Indian stuff; two large pieces of painting by Palma, two others by Costa, and a female saint in a chapel painted by Annibal Caracci. Here are also two galleries of portraits, and three saloons, which are somewhat dark, but well painted in fresco; however, but little care is taken to preserve them. The best thing here is the academy, which indeed for the grotto-work, pillars, sculpture, galleries, and height, has not its equal of the kind. However, a most valuable treasure of gold and silver crowns, statues, relics, and other altar-furniture, still remain in the palace church, where are likewise seen two capital pictures of inestimable value, one of the baptism of Constantine the Great, and the other of the martyrdom of St. Andrew, both by Costa.

The silk and other manufactures, and the general commerce of the city, were formerly extremely flourishing, but are now very inconsiderable.

At the distance of half a league from Mantua is the palace of Thé, so called from its being built in the form

of a T. The Imperial soldiers are now quartered on the ground-floor, but more care is taken of the upper apartments, on account of the fine paintings in fresco. Julio Romano drew the plan and elevation of this palace; most of the pictures were painted from his designs, and not a few of them received the finishing strokes from his pencil: the most admired are the fall of Phaeton, and Jupiter's victory over the giants.

At the distance of two Italian miles from Mantua is the duke's menagerie, called Virgiliana, from the grotto where Virgil is said to have passed the studious hours of youth; and near it is Pietola, antiently called Andes, which was the birth-place of Virgil.

S E C T. VIII.

Of the Dutchies of PARMA, PLACENTIA, and GUASTALLA.

Their Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. Their History; with a Description of the Cities of Parma and Placentia.

THE following countries, including Guastalla and Modena, were, by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, ceded by the house of Austria and king of Sardinia to the infant Don Philip, and from him were to descend to his male heirs; but in case of his dying without male issue, or that any of his descendants should be seated on the throne of the Two Sicilies, or Spain, these dominions were to revert to the former possessors; that is, to the house of Austria and the king of Sardinia.

The dutchies of Parma and Placentia have always been united. To the northward and westward they terminate on the Milanese; to the southward on the territories of Genoa; and to the eastward on the dutchy of Milan; extending fifty-six miles from east to west, and forty-four from north to south.

The soil is extremely fertile, especially in the production of olive-trees, large truffes, and chefnuts. The pastures and cattle are likewise very fine, particularly about Placentia, where the meadows may be laid under water from a small river, which, from its slimy water, fertilizes the ground. However, the celebrated Parmesan cheese is no longer made in this country, but at Lodi in the Milanese, at Trino, Bologna, and some other places. Petroleum, or rock-oil, is gathered in many places, and some without any mixture of water, as at Miano and Vizzole; but in other parts it is found floating on the surface of the water. There are here also found sexangular-crystals, and in the Apennine mountains, which run along the south frontiers of this country, are copper and iron mines.

The principal rivers are the Lenza, which partly divides the dutchy of Parma from Modena; the Taro, which rises in the dominions of Genoa, and is larger than the Lenza; both these, with the Nura and Trebia, discharge themselves into the Po.

The cities of Parma and Placentia were for a considerable time subject to the Roman empire; yet, like other Italian states, struggled for liberty, but have several times changed their masters. They have been governed by France, and by the popes; and at length pope Paul III. in the year 1545, conferred them on his natural son Peter Alvisius Farnese. Many disputes have since arisen in relation to these dutchies; but in the quadruple alliance of 1717 it was agreed, that on the demise of the duke of Tuscany and Parma, Don Carlos, the infant of Spain, should succeed to these countries; but Anthony, the last duke of the Farnese line, dying in 1731, without male issue, the infant Don Carlos was invested with the possession of those dutchies; but in 1735, it was stipulated in the preliminary articles of peace, that Don Carlos should be king of the Two Sicilies, and that the emperor should possess the dutchies of Parma and Placentia. Thus they continued in the house of Austria till the peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1748, when they were ceded to the infant Don Philip.

The prince's annual revenue is computed at between five and six hundred thousand scudi.

Parma

Parma is the capital of the duchy of the same name, and is a large and populous city, seated on the river Parma, which divides it into two parts, in the forty-fourth degree forty-five minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree east longitude. The streets are long and broad, and the houses are in general tolerably elegant. It is of a circular form, and about three miles round. The fortifications are far from being considerable; but on the east side stands a strong citadel. The ducal palace is on the south side of the river, and has a communication with the citadel by means of a bridge. It consists of three parts, two of which are newly built; but the gallery, which was formerly remarkable for its inestimable collection of paintings, medals, antiquities, and other curiosities, together with the library, was stripped by Don Carlos, who carried away with him every thing of value to Naples: so that the chief thing remarkable in this city is, the large theatre built by duke Renatus I. in the year 1618, in the form of a Roman amphitheatre: the pit is sixty-five common paces in length, and the stage sixty-two. In the former are twelve rows of seats, rising behind each other, and above them two galleries. There is also a smaller theatre in an adjoining hall.

Parma has several pompous churches, and its bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Bologna. The cathedral is a noble edifice, that has several rows of Corinthian columns on the outside, and the cupola is beautifully painted by Correggio, and represents the assumption of the Virgin Mary. Near this structure is the church called Il Battisterio, the outside of which is covered with marble. In this edifice, which is of great antiquity, all children born in the city, and within two miles round, must be baptized; and here, on Easter eve, the provision of holy water is prepared for the whole city.

Here is an university, which was founded in 1599 by duke Renatus I. and also an academy instituted for the nobility in 1601, by the same patron of the sciences. It is under the direction of the Jesuits, and two hundred and fifty noblemen are admitted at once.

There are here manufactured great quantities of silk stockings, and indeed silk is the only commodity foreigners take from hence. This city and Placentia warmly dispute the precedence. In 1734 the French and Sardinian forces fortified themselves so well in the neighbourhood of this city, that being attacked by the imperial general count Merci, he lost his life, and the troops he had commanded were obliged to retire.

There are only a few inconsiderable towns in this duchy, besides the above capital.

The city of Placentia, called by the natives Piacenza, is pretty large, and deservedly obtained its name, which signifies pleasantness, from its situation in a most rich and delightful country, at a small distance from the Po. It is seated in the forty-fifth degree north latitude, and in the tenth degree twenty-four minutes east longitude. Its fortifications are inconsiderable, but the citadel is pretty strong. The streets are straight, and the principal street, called Stradone, the place of resort for taking the air, is twenty-five common paces broad, and three thousand feet long, in a direct line, with six hundred stone posts for separating the foot from the carriage way, and on both sides are eleven spacious convents. The other buildings of the city are not very remarkable, though it contains forty-five churches, twenty-eight convents, and two alms houses.

The cathedral is pretty much in the Gothic taste; but the church of the Augustines is reckoned the most beautiful, and esteemed worthy of its architect, the celebrated Vignoli. In its vestry is a singular curiosity representing the crucifixion, cut on a piece of wood by an unknown artist, who has taken pains to illustrate that great event with a multiplicity of figures, some on horseback, others on foot, and all inimitably executed. St. Maria in Compagna is also a very fine church, and St. Sixtus's church has a most beautiful monument of black and white marble, with the statue of Margaret of Austria, consort of duke Octavius. The ducal palace, though large, makes no great appearance on the outside; but within are some good apartments. In the area before the town-house, stand two admirable brass statues of

Alexander and Renatus IV. both of the house of Farnese, and dukes of Parma and Placentia.

The bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Milan. Here is also an university. At this city begins the Via Emilia, which extends as far as Rimini on the Adriatic.

This duchy has also no other town besides its capital worthy of notice.

The duchy of Guastalla is about twelve miles in length, and five in breadth, and with the principalities of Sabionetta and Bozzolo, was formerly subject to the house of Mantua; but on the death of Joseph Maria in 1746, Maria Theresa, queen of Hungary and Bohemia, took possession of the duchy; but in 1748, resigned it by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle to the infant Don Philip.

The principal town of this duchy is Guastalla, which is a strong place seated near the river Po, on the confines of the duchy of Modena, fifteen miles to the north of Reggio, and is remarkable for a battle fought near it between the French and Imperialists, in 1734, to the disadvantage of the latter.

SECT. IX.

The Duchy of MODENA.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a Description of the City of Modena, and the other Places most worthy of Notice.

THE duchy of Modena is surrounded by the duchies of Parma and Mantua, the ecclesiastical state, the duchy of Florence, and the republic of Lucca; extending fifty-six miles from north to south, and between twenty-four and thirty-six from east to west.

This country abounds in corn, garden-fruits, excellent wine, and other productions. Near St. Paolo is found an excellent alkaline earth, sometimes as a powder, but more frequently as a moist oleaginous topus, which being pulverized is bright, smooth, white, and quite insipid: it is used as an excellent remedy against poison, fevers, dysenteries, and hypochondriac disorders. In the mountain Castello di Monte Baronzone, and at Fiunetto, are wells from forty to sixty feet deep, and on the water floats a reddish petroleum, which abounds most in spring and autumn. These wells are inclosed, and every fortnight the oil is skimmed off the surface. Castello di Monte Gibbio has wells of the same nature, which are not only perpetual, but yield a yellowish oil, esteemed the best in the country, and is used for embalming, varnishing, painting, and as an ingredient in some medicinal preparations. At Sassò and Quercola amber is dug out of a soil impregnated with petroleum.

Two Italian miles from Sassuolo is an aperture in the earth, which frequently, but most commonly in spring and autumn, emits smoke, flames, ashes, and stones of a strong sulphureous smell, which it sometimes throws sixty or eighty feet high. These eruptions are often attended with a very loud noise; the hill upon which is this aperture is quite barren, and during the time that the ashes and stones are briskly thrown out, the petroleous wells of Sassò and Monte Gibbio are very turbid. This hill also affords several kinds of petrifications.

The chief rivers of Modena are the Crostolo, the Secchia, and the Panaro.

The duchy of Modena, properly so called, has its name from its capital, and, besides that, and the places dependent on it, contains the province of Frignano, the valley of Cartagnana, the district of Soraggio, the duchy of Reggio, the principalities of Correggio, Carpi Novellara, the earldom of Rivolo, and the duchy of Mirandola; the principal places in which are the following:

Modena, in Latin Mutina, the capital of the whole country, and the usual residence of the duke, is a pretty large and populous city; but the streets are narrow, and the houses without either beauty or symmetry. It is seated in a spacious plain between the rivers Panaro and Secchia, in the forty-fourth degree thirty minutes latitude, and in the eleventh degree twenty-seven minutes longitude, and is almost of a circular form. It appears most beautiful at a distance, from the great number of its

its steeples and towers, especially that of the cathedral, which is very high and large; but neither the streets nor houses are handsome, nor the fortifications in good repair. The citadel is, however, a good regular fortress, but is on a level with the town; and though the houses in all parts have piazzas, they are both low and dark, and the churches in general are very little worthy of notice, though there are some fine ones. In a chamber under the tower of the cathedral is hung up by an iron chain the bucket of a well, with iron hoops; it was taken in a petty war from the inhabitants of Bologna, and is here preserved as a monument of courage and victory. The handsomest churches are those of the Jesuits, of the Theatines, and of St. Dominic. The Jesuits church, in particular, is extremely beautiful, and the roof painted from a design of father Bossi. The altars are very elegant, and behind the high altar is the history of St. Bartholomew, painted in several capital pictures by Procaccini. The bishop is a suffragan to the archbishop of Bologna. In the college founded by St. Boromeo seventy or eighty young noblemen are maintained and instructed. The ducal palace is indeed a noble and splendid structure, and the gallery of pictures, including the lobby, consists of six rooms, all filled with select pieces of the most famous masters: the most admired is Corregio's night-piece, representing the birth of Christ, with the Virgin Mary and the shepherds: the resplendence from the child, who lies in his mother's lap, in a most beautiful manner shines on the faces of the virgin and the shepherds, and illuminates the whole piece. The house of Este has been in possession of this duchy ever since the year 1288.

The city of Reggio, the capital of a duchy of the same name, was anciently called Regium Lepidi, and is situated in a very fertile plain, in the thirty-eighth degree twenty-eight minutes north latitude, and in the fifteenth degree fifty minutes east longitude. It is a small but very handsome and strong city. The citadel is said to have been built by Charles the Great, who is also supposed to have rebuilt the city, and to have surrounded it with a strong wall, which is still so firm that a cannon ball can make but little impression upon it. In the heart of the city is a square, adorned with the statue of the famous Brennus, a Gaulish chief, which is highly esteemed by the connoisseurs, and the inscriptions round the pedestal are no less curious.

Reggio is the see of a bishop suffragan to the archbishop of Bologna, and its cathedral is a large building of the Gothic order, adorned on the inside with a great variety of statues and paintings by the best masters.

The city of Mirandola is very large, strong, and beautiful, and is said to have been built by Constantine the son of Constantine the Great. It is situated in the forty-fourth degree fifty minutes latitude, and in the eleventh degree forty-five minutes east longitude, twenty-six miles to the south-east of Mantua. It is surrounded with strong and high ramparts, with seven bastions and other works, and is defended by a good citadel. It is the see of a bishop, and, besides its cathedral, has fifteen churches and convents. In 1702 it was strongly fortified by the Imperialists, and in 1705 taken by the French; but in 1707 surrendered again. In 1734 and the following year the Imperialists bravely defended it, and repulsed the enemy.

We shall next describe the four independent republics, Venice, Genoa, Lucca, and St. Marino, and shall begin with the former, with the dominions belonging to each.

S E C T. X.

Of the Republic of VENICE.

The Situation and Extent of its Territories on the Continent of Italy. A concise History of that Republic. The Persons, Dress, Manners, Customs, and Diversions of the Venetians. The different Ranks of the Nobility; with the Manner of choosing the Doge, his little Power, the Ceremony of marrying the Sea, and the different Offices of State. The Arms

of the Republic; its Orders of Knighthood, Religion, Revenues, and Forces; with a particular Description of the City of Venice.

THE dominions of the republic of Venice on the continent of Italy extend east and west from the river Adda, which flows from the lake of Como, and reach in one continued line to the duchy of Carniola, where the curve they form along the Adriatic sea is somewhat interrupted by the Austrian dominions, after which they extend from north to south along the coast of the same sea, and terminate at the province of Istria. Thus the Venetian territories are bounded on the north by Trent, Tirol, and the country of the Grisons; on the east by Carniola and the gulph of Venice; on the south by the same gulph, Romania, and the duchy of Mantua; and on the west by the duchy of Milan; extending about a hundred and eighty miles in length, and in some parts an hundred in breadth.

This is a fine champaign country, with a fruitful soil, producing rich fruits, corn, wine, and oil; with plenty of silk, rich pastures, and all sorts of cattle. Their Paduan sheep have very fine wool, and the flesh of their hogs is much valued. But we shall give a more particular account of each of the countries included in these territories, in treating of them separately, and shall begin with the republic, which is confined to the city of Venice, the capital of the whole.

With respect to the origin and advancement of this republic to the grandeur it formerly enjoyed, and its present state, it must be observed, that on the invasion of Italy in the fifth century by the Huns, under Attila their king, when they spread a general desolation wherever they came, great numbers of the people who lived near the Adriatic fled to those islands on which at present stands the celebrated city of Venice, which, about the year 421, had in some measure been built upon by the Paduans, for the advantage of commerce. Here having settled small states, they were at first governed by consuls, afterwards by tribunes, and formed a kind of republic, the council of which consisted of those magistrates. These islands became better inhabited on the succeeding incursions of the Goths and Longobardi into Italy, when multitudes from Rome and other large cities repairing thither, this state soon became able to make some head against these bold invaders; till at length the chiefs of the islands coming to an agreement with the Longobardi, were suffered to remain unmolested. This was the commencement of the city and state of Venice.

About the end of the seventh or the beginning of the eighth century the former government of these islands was abolished, and an unlimited power conferred on Paulucio Anafesto, who obtained the title of doge, or duke. Under this sovereignty the state greatly increased, till the people being oppressed, became weary of the evils of domestic despotism; and on their choosing a new duke, in 1171, curtailed his power, by assigning him a council of two hundred and forty persons, composed not only of nobles, but of commons. At length duke Ziani siding with pope Alexander III. against the emperor Frederic, obtained such a signal victory over him at sea, that the pope presented him with a ring, which he was to drop into the Adriatic, as a sign of his marriage with and perpetual sovereignty over it.

The Venetians, who had already extended their dominions into Lombardy, Dalmatia, Istria, Syria, and other places, made a very considerable acquisition in the beginning of the thirteenth century, by possessing themselves of the principal islands in the Archipelago and Mediterranean, particularly that of Candia. From this time they obtained immense profit by trading in East India goods, which they imported from Alexandria in Egypt, to which they came by the way of the Red Sea. Under duke Marino Morosini was introduced the present form of electing the doge, and at this juncture jealousy and envy occasioned the war with Genoa, which, after continuing a hundred and thirty years, was at last concluded by a treaty in 1381. During this war duke Peter Gradenigo, in 1396, ordained that none but the nobi-

lity should be capable of having a seat in the grand council, and thus the government became aristocratical.

In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries the Venetians extended their possessions in Lombardy, and, in 1473, the last king of Cyprus appointed the state of Venice his heir. Towards the end of the fifteenth century the commerce and power of the Venetians began to decline, the Portuguese having discovered a way by sea to the East Indies, which at length opened the trade to all the maritime nations. In the sixteenth century affairs went still worse, for the pope, the emperor, France, and Spain joining in a league against them, they were stripped of all their countries and towns in the ecclesiastical state and the Milanese. They also received another severe blow from the Turks, who drove them out of the kingdom of Cyprus. In the seventeenth century a sharp contest arose between the state, the clergy, and the pope, in which, however, they had the advantage. They were also long engaged in troublesome wars with the Turks, losing Candia, and gaining part of Dalmatia and all the Morea; but even the latter, with other places and districts, the Turks recovered in the wars of the present century.

Thus has the republic of Venice continued upwards of thirteen hundred years, amidst many foreign wars and intestine commotions; its grandeur was chiefly owing to its trade, and since the decline of the former its strength and power have suffered a considerable diminution.

With respect to the persons of the Venetians, the men are handsome and well shaped, and their dress, especially that of the nobles, is grave, and yet becoming. The women are very agreeable, but their high-heeled shoes are said to make them hobble in their gait; but they seldom appear abroad, except during the carnival, at their fairs, and some other public occasions, when they are allowed to go in disguise, so that they cannot be known. At Venice is a kind of sumptuary court, which regulates the dress of the men, women, and servants; and no Venetian, of what quality soever, is allowed to wear either embroidery, gold or silver lace, or fringe. The same regulations are made with respect to their gondolas; and as for coaches they have very few, or else they would be subject to the same law. Indeed those who have been ambassadors have the privilege of wearing a stole of cloth of gold, and gold buckles in their girdles; but they are generally satisfied with wearing a little gold galloon on their black stoles.

A noble Venetian never appears in public but in his robes, which reach to his heels, and are of black cloth, lined with greyish cloth in the summer, and with ermine in winter; these robes are fastened with a belt of the same cloth, three inches broad, and adorned with silver buckles and plates. Instead of a hat he wears a long black worsted cap, with a worsted fringe, which he generally carries in his hand, that he may not incommode his large peruke. The physicians, advocates, notaries, and all those called *cittadini*, wear the same habits as the nobles, and, like them, claim the title of excellency. The manner of saluting them is to kiss their sleeve, which, about the elbow, is as wide as a moderate sack, and sometimes serves, as do also their caps, to carry provisions in from the market; for many of them are much reduced, and are brought to so low an ebb, as even to go about begging among the more opulent families. This is frequently the consequence of gaming, by which many houses that still make a figure are greatly embarrassed. The procurators of St. Mark, the *configlieri*, and others of the council, sometimes wear long red or purple robes. They are never saluted in the streets, except by those who wear the same robe. The rank of nobility is not restrained to the eldest sons, and they are not allowed to traffic, much less to marry with foreigners.

The conversation of the nobility is more desirable out of than within the city, they being then no more than private persons. The high conceit of themselves which is but too usual in the city, would there be ridiculous, and not borne with.

The women of quality do not even shew their faces in the churches; and the ordinary women wear over their

heads a large scarf, which opens a little about their eyes.

The females are educated in convents till they are married, without being allowed to see their future husbands; whence the men commonly remedy the defects of their wives by keeping mistresses. Many who are of a more tender conscience than others satisfy themselves with living with women whom they design to marry; but the ceremony is frequently deferred till a few days, or hours, before the death of one of the parties. The most general method with those who are unmarried, is to keep their mistresses at a certain allowance as long as both parties agree; and this is so frequently practised, that those who are unable to be at the expence of keeping one woman, join with two or three other men to have her between them, and without the least jealousy visit her by turns. To prevent young noblemen and gentlemen marrying too soon, or falling into worse disasters, their mothers make no scruple to bargain with a poor girl's father or mother to have her for the use of their son, at a certain rate to be paid monthly or yearly, as they can best agree.

The carnival commences here the second holiday in Christmas, when they begin to wear masks, and open the theatres and gaming-houses. The masquerade dress at Venice consists of only a night-gown or a cloak, with a mask on the face. In the beginning they act with some moderation, but the nearer they come towards Shrove-Tuesday, the more their madness increases. These extravagances are allowed by the senate of Venice, to divert the people from feeling the heavy burthen of their government, which without such amusements would be intolerable. Besides, the vast number of strangers who come to Venice from all parts, to see the diversions of the carnival, brings great sums of money to the city. "I was credibly informed, says Mr. Milson, that during the last carnival there were no less than seven sovereign princes, and thirty thousand other foreigners." The general use of masks prevents a stranger from making any acquaintance at this season, and likewise from seeing any curiosities; for no person is permitted to go into a church or convent in any disguise.

Their eunuchs make a preposterous figure in their operas; for it appears very odd to see one of these mutilated fellows act the part of a bully, and another with his withered wrinkled face representing a young lover; and in every opera a buffoon intermixes his fooleries with the most serious and tragical parts. Their comedies are so ridiculous, that in other places they would scarcely pass for tolerable farces; for Harlequin is commonly the head actor; and to make the spectators laugh, his grimaces are backed with the coarsest and most vulgar obscenity.

The assemblies where they play at *basset* are called *Ridottos*. Ten or twelve rooms may be seen with gaming tables in each, crowded with ladies of quality, gamesters, and courtezans. They have also certain rooms where liquors and sweetmeats are sold. Every person thus masked, provided he be well dressed, has the liberty of talking to the ladies of the highest quality; nobody, not even the husband himself, taking notice of what is said to his wife, because the mask is sacred; but this sometimes gives occasion to an intrigue, in a place where the scarcity of opportunities enables them to do more execution with the wink of an eye, than in other countries by a long courtship. The chief place of masquerading is St. Mark's square at Venice, where you may assume what disguise you please, provided you support the character. The Harlequins ridicule one another very handsomely, and those who personate doctors hold learned disputes; but such as have no inclination to venture upon these engagements, may appear in the habit of a nobleman, or in some foreign dress, and be only spectators; but all the maskers must be without swords.

They encourage here, likewise, during the carnivals and fairs, a set of strolling gypsies, who have a little stage, to which they draw the gazers to them by their shews and a peculiar eloquence they display in favour of their art in telling fortunes. They are furnished with a kind of tube made of tin about ten or twelve feet long, and

and those who have a mind to consult them, need but throw them a fifteen-penny piece, and clap their ear to one end of the tube, and immediately the gypsy at the other end whispers to them and resolves their questions. To raise the higher idea of their abilities, these impostors place on their little stages some paltry globes, and other astronomical instruments.

It must not be omitted that the carnival is not the only time when masks are in request at Venice, there being no feast where they are not used more or less: as at the audiences of ambassadors; on Ascension-day, &c. all which are very profitable to the watermen, who, knowing all the turns and bye-ways, keep a correspondence with the waiting-women, and for a good reward will furnish a ladder of cord for an intrigue; one of their main businesses being pimping. The Venetian gondolas may be hired either from place to place, by the hour, or by the day; and one of the best of them may be had for five or six shillings a day. They are prettily contrived, and very light. They are generally thirty or thirty-two feet long, and four or five broad, and a person may sit in them much at his ease, under a cover like that of a coach, with glasses on both sides. The boatmen are very dexterous in their business, and manage their oars with surprising facility, standing with their faces towards the place to which they are going. All the gondolas must be black, and even the little room is generally covered with black cloth or serge; but foreigners are not confined to this rule. The gondolas, particularly of the ambassadors, are extremely magnificent.

Among the several shows that are annually exhibited, there is one performed on Holy Thursday, which is peculiar to the Venetians. A set of artizans, by the help of several poles laid across each other's shoulders, build themselves up into a kind of pyramid, so that there is seen a pile of men in the air of four or five rows rising one above another; and yet the weight is so equally distributed, that every man is able to bear his part of it. The stories, if they may be so called, growing less and less in proportion as they advance higher, till a little boy represents the point of the pyramid, who, after standing thus a short time, leaps with great dexterity into the arms of one who catches him at the bottom; and in the same manner the whole edifice falls to pieces. This trick was, however, practised by the Romans.

Mr. Keyser observes, that if a traveller cannot contrive to be at Venice in carnival-time, he would advise him to be there about Holy Thursday; or if one of the two must be omitted, he says it should be the carnival: for the festival of the Ascension affords all the diversions of the carnival, as masquerades, operas, &c. except the *ridottos* and the dissolute revels about the close of the latter. But to a person of any taste the loss of those extravagant festivities is sufficiently compensated by the delightfulness of the season, the annual fair, and the solemnity of the doge's marriage with the sea. The annual fair begins on the Sunday before Ascension-day, and lasts till Whit Sunday. During this fair St. Mark's square is taken up with booths so arranged as to form several streets. On Ascension-eve vespers are performed with great pomp and splendor, and the pretended miraculous blood of Christ, with other remarkable relics kept in St. Mark's treasury, are exposed to public view in the great church dedicated to that saint.

In this republic the power is lodged in the hands of the nobility, who are said to amount to near two thousand, including those whose public employments in the provinces oblige them to reside out of Venice. On the birth of the son of a nobleman his name is entered in the golden book, otherwise he forfeits his nobility. Every noble is a member of the senate, on which account it is a received maxim, that they are all of equal dignity; yet there is a considerable difference between the interest and authority of families. To the first class belong the ancient houses whose ancestors chose the first duke, and from thence are called *le case elettorali*: these consist of twelve families, and on them preferably to others are conferred the higher offices. There are four other families who pretend to an equality with these, they being very little inferior to them in point of antiquity. Next follow eight houses nearly of the same antiquity. Duke

Gradenigo having passed a law that the council should for ever consist of the families of which it was then composed, and some others which he ennobled; this produced a second class of nobility, which consists of upwards of eighty families; and with these are also included the descendants of those who were raised to nobility after the Genoese war, on account of their large contributions towards carrying it on with vigour. The third and last class is composed of the citizens whose nobility has been purchased for a hundred thousand Venetian ducats; a resource which the republic has made use of in necessitous times for raising money. Crowned heads, with German and other princes, have thought it no degradation to be made nobles of Venice.

The nobility, as the counts and marquises in the territories of the republic, though some of them are of very ancient families, are now under great restrictions, to prevent their attempting any thing to the detriment of the state. They are excluded all offices, and at Venice must shew a due deference and proper respect for the meanest noblemen, as one of their sovereigns.

In order as much as possible to prevent all intrigues in the election of a doge, the ceremony is conducted in the following manner: Upon the decease of a doge the nobles above thirty years of age meet in the palace of St. Mark, where a number of balls equal to that of the persons present, are put into an urn. Thirty of these are gilt, and the others silvered over. Every noble, according to his seniority, draws a ball; and they who have drawn the thirty gilt balls retire into a private room to continue the election; but in drawing the gilt balls, lest more than one person of a family should happen to be appointed electors, the relations of him who drew a gilt ball are obliged to withdraw, and the same number of white balls are taken out of the vessel. After this the thirty electors who had drawn the gilt balls draw from another urn in which are twenty-one silvered and nine gilt balls: they who draw the gilded choose forty other electors, all of different families, but are allowed to name themselves of the number; and each of the four who drew first has a right of nominating five electors; but the five others can name only four each. These forty electors are again by lot reduced to twelve, who name twenty-five; the first nominating three, and each of the other two. These twenty-five draw lots a second time to be reduced to nine, and of these nine each choose five others; and from the total forty-five, eleven are again separated by lot, who choose forty-one others, who are confirmed by the grand council, and being locked up in a particular apartment of the ducal palace, there remain till they have chosen a new doge. The result of their determination is generally known in six or eight hours, and all the foregoing ceremonies seldom take up more than two days.

In order to render the election of a doge due and legal, it is necessary that out of the forty-one he should have twenty-five votes. His election is followed by a kind of coronation, the ducal cap being placed with great ceremony on his head, on the upper step of the entrance into St. Mark's church.

The doge of Venice has little more than the shadow of greatness, and has been justly defined to be in habit and state a king, in authority a counsellor, in the city a prisoner, and out of it a private person. He is not so much as to stir from the city without the council's permission; it is not in his power to pardon a criminal; all his counsellors have a constant eye over his actions, and may visit his closet every hour: he is as much subject to the laws as the meanest person, and when he dies there is no public mourning.

Were it not an evident truth that the human heart is apt to be fond of external splendor, it might be concluded that the dignity of a Venetian doge, under such disagreeable circumstances, would be rather avoided than eagerly sought after. The state and revenue of the doge on all public occasions is indeed very magnificent. He is the president of all councils; and in the great council has two votes. All the courts stand up in his presence, and pay their obeisance to him. On the other hand, he never rises from his seat, nor takes off his cap, except at the elevation of the host, before a prince of royal blood,

or a cardinal, to whom he also gives the right hand. His name is also stamped on the republic's money. All the credentials of the republic's ministers to foreign courts are made out in his name, though they are neither signed nor sealed by him. The letters of the republic's ministers, and other instruments from foreign princes, are directed to him; yet he is not to open them, but in the presence of some of the council. He has the disposal of all preferments in St. Mark's church, of which he is invested with the entire jurisdiction; and the knights of St. Mark are created by him alone. He likewise fills up the lower offices belonging to the palace: and lastly, his family is not subject to any sumptuary laws. His annual income is twelve thousand Venetian ducats: of this sum he must spend one-half on the four grand entertainments he is obliged to give every year; and to live up to his dignity, he must also spend considerably of his own fortune.

Among the other restrictions are the following: During his life none of his children or brothers can hold any of the great honorary offices, nor be sent on embassies. He is not to marry the sister or relation of a prince, without the consent of the great council; nor can he receive any present from a foreign prince. In state affairs he cannot transact the least matter without the council; nor can he resign, though he may be deposed. In general his authority is no greater than that of a private person, except he has such abilities as to influence the whole council; then indeed his authority bears the sway; but such persons are seldom chosen. On his death a formal enquiry is made whether he has abused his power; whether from a care of his own concerns, he has neglected those of the public; whether he lived agreeably to his dignity, &c. If found guilty of the things laid to his charge, his heirs are fined in proportion to the nature of the crime. Notwithstanding all this, the ducal dignity is solicited, and the person duly elected is not to decline it.

On Ascension-day, the doge, or in case of his illness, the vice-doge, who is always one of the six consiglieri, performs the annual ceremony of marrying the Adriatic Sea in a barge pompously gilt and carved. At about ten in the morning, the signal being given by the firing of great guns, and the ringing of bells, he goes on board the bucentaur, and accompanied by several thousand barks and gondolas, a great number of galleys finely ornamented, and the splendid yachts of foreign ambassadors, is rowed out to sea, about two hundred paces towards the islands of St. Lido and St. Erasmo. The patriarch and dignified clergy come on board the bucentaur, and present the doge and signoria, as they pass, with nosegays or artificial flowers, which, at their return, they make presents of to their acquaintance. The doge at his putting off and return is saluted by the cannon of a fort on the Lido, and by those on the island Erasmo, and with the small arms of the soldiers, who are drawn up along the Lido shore. These islands lie about two Italian miles from the city; and an eminence on the island of Lido affords a distinct view of this pompous procession, and of the vast number of boats, &c. which cover the surface of the water, and make a beautiful appearance. In the mean time several hymns are performed on board the bucentaur, by the band of music belonging to St. Mark's church, and several prayers appointed for the occasion are read or sung, till the doge has passed the two forts of Lido and St. Erasmo; and then he proceeds a little farther towards the Lido shore, the stern of his barge being turned towards the main sea.

Here the patriarch pours into the sea some holy water, which is said to have the virtue of preventing and allaying storms. After this the doge, thro' an aperture near his seat, drops into the sea a gold ring of a few dollars value, saying, in Latin, "We espouse thee, O sea, in token of our real and perpetual dominion over thee." After this all return, and the doge with his company is set ashore near the church of St. Nicholas, in the island of Lido, where the patriarch in person celebrates a solemn mass. In the evening the principal members of the council, and all who waited upon the doge in the bucentaur, are entertained at the ducal palace.

The bucentaur is a kind of galleas, a hundred feet in length, and twenty broad. It has forty-two benches for the rowers, which are concealed under the two great cabins, and on every bench are four rowers. It is not manned with galley slaves, but with men belonging to the arsenal, who on this occasion are allowed extraordinary pay. The bucentaur is never brought out of the arsenal but for these espousals; it being there kept dry under cover, from whence it is launched about eight days before Ascension-day, and remains on the water about eight days after the ceremony. The sculpture on this vessel represents the Pagan sea-gods, water-nymphs, sea-monsters, shells, &c. with the statues of Justice, Truth, Fidelity, Vigilance, Peace, Plenty, Apollo, and the nine Muses, the twelve months, and several other emblematical figures. The gilding cost ten or twelve thousand silver ducats. It is true, the bucentaur, says Mr. Keyser, is very beautiful in its kind, yet it must be owned that the king of Great Britain's chief yacht makes a much more splendid and noble appearance, though it did not cost near so much as the former.

In the grand council all nobles of twenty-five years of age may take their place. It usually meets on Sundays and holidays in the large hall of the ducal palace.

The senate, or *pregadi*, are a committee of the grand council, by whom they are chosen, and have the management of the most secret and important affairs of state, as the making of alliances, declaring war, concluding peace, coining money, imposing taxes, &c. They consist of sixty ordinary, and as many extraordinary members; besides the nine procurators of St. Mark, the *collegium*, the doge's six counsellors, the *il consiglio di dieci*, the censors, the judges *della quarantia criminale*, and other inferior judges; so that the whole senate consists of about three hundred persons.

Mr. Addison observes, that among all the instances of their politics, there is none more admirable than the great secrecy that reigns in their public councils. "The senate, says he, is generally as numerous as our house of commons, if we only reckon the fitting members, and yet carries its resolutions so privately, that they are seldom known till they discover themselves in the execution. It is not many years since they had before them a great debate concerning the punishment of one of their admirals, which lasted a month together, and concluded in his condemnation; yet was there none of his friends, nor of those who had engaged warmly in his defence, that gave him the least intimation of what was passing against him, till he was actually seized, and in the hands of justice."

The next council is the *collegium*, in which all public instruments directed to the state and doge are read; audiences given to foreign ministers, and other important affairs transacted. It consists of the doge, his six counsellors, the three presidents of the court of forty, the six chief officers of state, &c.

Of these three great assemblies, the presidentship is lodged in the *signoria*, or *il consiglio*, composed of the doge and his six counsellors, who consult on all matters to be laid before the grand council; open all foreign letters directed to the doge and the republic; receive petitions; and, in concert with the doge, carry many particulars into execution. This council is annually changed, and when the doge is indisposed, one of them is always vice-doge.

The procurators of St. Mark have not only the inspection of the church of St. Mark, its library, and the records of the republic; but likewise manage all affairs relating to the poor; together with wills, guardianships, the redemption of the Christian slaves, and bringing over rigid creditors to a reasonable composition. Their number never exceeds nine; they hold their office during life, and out of them the doge is generally chosen. The titular procurators of St. Mark are more numerous, the republic in a scarcity of money selling these titles.

The *consiglio di dieci* is a high penal court, which consists of ten counsellors; the doge, who is president; and his six consiglieri. Every quarter of a year three presidents of it are chosen.—The judgment of this court is without appeal, and it is much dreaded for its severity. It is the strong cement which secures the whole aristocracy,

cracy, it being chiefly instituted for the nobility, and its power extends even to the doge himself.

The state-inquisition consists of three presidents, who keep a very watchful eye over the safety of the republic; and their sagacious and vigilant attention to every thing relating to the state is so great, that to avoid the suspicion of any evil design against the government, it is absolutely necessary for every prudent person to be extremely circumspect, and to observe an almost slavish caution in speaking and acting. These inquisitors keep the keys of chests placed in several parts of the ducal palace, and shut up within the open jaws of lions heads carved in the walls; through which notes are conveyed into them by any one who pleases: and thus notice is secretly given to the republic of whatever may concern it to know. Such informations need not be signed, and are therefore generally anonymous; but if a reward is expected, the informer may at any time make himself known, by producing a piece of paper torn from the billet put into these *denuncie segrette*, as they are called, so as to tally with it. But what stress is to be laid on such secret informations, which gives such scope to malice and malevolence to spit their venom, belongs to the prudence of the inquisitors to determine.

As the *consiglio dieci* is peculiarly erected for the nobility; so the *quarantia criminale*, or the penal inferior court, takes cognizance of all other subjects of the state.

The holy inquisition, falsely so called, and which is so formidable in other Popish countries, is here confined by the republic within narrow bounds; but of this court we shall take farther notice, in treating of the religion of the Venetians.

There is a particular college, as hath been already intimated, to whose care the regulation of dress is committed by the republic. None are exempted from the jurisdiction of this college, but noblemen's wives for the first two years after their marriage, and strangers. The former are however no farther indulged, than in wearing a pearl necklace, and a gold fringe at the bottom of their gowns, and in giving their gondoliers ribbons to wear in their caps. But here also, as in other countries, the women are, in this respect, connived at, particularly the courtezans, who readily find patrons, under whose protection they trespass against this sumptuary law with impunity; though there is sometimes an instance of one or two being fined on that account. It is probably owing to the great number of persons who offend against this law, that it is not strictly put in execution.

The smaller arms of the republic are azure, a winged lion, or, with a book opened, argent, on which are these words, PAX TIBI, MARCE, EVANGELISTA MEUS, that is, "Peace to thee, Mark, my evangelist," St. Mark being the patron of Venice. The shield is surmounted by the ducal cap. The large and complete shield is composed of the arms of the several provinces and dependencies of the republic.

The principal order of knighthood is that of St. Mark; the badge of which is a large gold medal pendent on the breast. On one side is either the name of the reigning duke, or his image, with St. Mark delivering a standard to him: on the other a winged lion, holding in one paw a naked sword, and in the other a book with the above words.

The order of the Constantine knights have a cross hanging from a gold chain. The residence of the grand master is at Briana near Venice.

With respect to the state of religion, that established by law is the Roman catholic; but Greeks, Armenians, and Jews are allowed the public exercise of their worship in the countries of the republic, and Protestants observing privacy remain unmolested. The pope, after a long opposition, has obtruded on the republic a court of spiritual inquisition, the members of which are the pope's nuncio, the patriarch of Venice, an inquisitor, and three lay-assistants; but the republic has so curtailed its power, that nothing can be transacted without the assistants, who lay before the republic every case of moment. Jews, Greeks, cases of blasphemy, supposed magic and sorcery, usury, and the censure of books, are not cognizable by this court, but by the civil magistrate; and the

pope's bulls and briefs before they are made public undergo an examination, lest they should contain any thing contrary to the laws and liberties of the state.

At the head of the church is the patriarch of Venice, who is always a noble Venetian, chosen by the senate, and though confirmed by the pope, is independent of the papal chair. He is primate of Dalmatia, and of some provinces of the continent; also metropolitan over the archbishops of Candia and Corfu, and the bishops of Chiozza, Torcello, and Caorle: yet his power is very inconsiderable, he having only the disposal of two benefices in the city of Venice, and being little regarded by the clergy out of it, who depend immediately on the senate.

The territories of the republic are under governors chosen out of the nobility, who are changed at the expiration of a certain term of years.

The annual revenue of the republic is computed at eight millions two hundred thousand Venetian ducats. In war time both the nobles and the other subjects, even the doge himself, contribute in proportion to their incomes towards defraying the expences of the state.

In the army the republic make little use of such of their subjects as live under heavy oppressions: the flower of the infantry consists of thirteen regiments of Dalmatians, men of great resolution, but more expert in the exercise of the sword than fire-arms. The Swifs, on occasion, furnish six thousand men, paid by the republic. If public accounts may be relied on, the whole army consists of twenty-eight thousand nine hundred seventy-seven men, over which is a field-marshal, or commander in chief, who is always some foreign general of distinguished reputation; but with him are joined two senators, without whose consent he can do nothing.

The naval force of the republic is said to consist of fourteen men of war, twenty galleasses, and twenty-five gallies, commanded by a captain-general, who is always one of the prime nobility.

The dominions of Venice consist of those in Italy, of a considerable part of Dalmatia, of four towns in Greece, and of the islands of Corfu, Pachsu, Antipachsu, Santa Maura, Curzolari, Val di Compare, Cephalonia, and Zante.

The Venetian territories in Italy contain the dutchy of Venice, the Paduanese, the peninsula of Rovigo, the Veronese, the territories of Vicenza and Brescia, the districts of Bergamo, Cremaſco, and the Marca Trevigiana, with part of the country of Friuli. We shall begin with the dutchy of Venice, the principal place in which is the city of the same name.

Venice, in Italian Venezia, and in Latin Venetia, the capital and seat of the republic, is situated in latitude forty-five degrees forty-six minutes, and in thirteen degrees ten minutes east longitude, and makes a very noble appearance at a distance, it seeming from its being built on a multitude of very small islands, to float on the sea, or rather, with its stately buildings and steeples, to rise out of it. The number of these islands still remains uncertain, some reckoning sixty, others seventy-two, and others again maintaining that they amount to one hundred and thirty-eight; but the latter must comprehend in the calculation all those places that have been gradually raised in the Laguna, by driving piles in the ground, and building on them.

The Laguna, or marshy lake, which lies between the city and the continent, is five Italian miles in breadth, and too shallow for large ships: by the attention of the republic it is prevented from becoming a part of the continent, and from being ever frozen so as to bear an army; hence the city is inaccessible on that side. Towards the sea the access is also difficult; but the safe and navigable parts are pointed out by piles, which at the approach of an enemy's fleet may be easily cut away. Besides, as a considerable number of men of war and gallies may be expeditiously fitted out for sea from the dock, which contains vast quantities of naval stores, the city is secure from any attack either by land or water, and is strong enough without fortifications. The fish, which are caught at the very doors of the houses, may be esteemed a good preservative against a famine, and the several canals lead-

ing to the city, between the sand banks and marshy shallows, are at a vast expence kept clear of the mud and slime brought with the flood. The return of the sea is something later here than every sixth hour, and it generally rises between four and five feet, keeping the water between the islands of the city in continual motion: but some of these canals being very narrow, the mud is not so effectually carried off as to prevent ill smells in hot weather.

The great canal, which winds in a serpentine form through the city, dividing it into two parts, is one thousand three hundred paces long. The best way of going up and down the city is in gondolas, which glide swiftly on these canals: but Mr. Keyser remarks, that as they are painted black, and lined with black cloth, or serge, they have a gloomy appearance; and the awning being so low that a person cannot stand upright in the gondola, when a stranger gets into one of them, it seems as if he was creeping into a hearse or tomb hung with black. The left side is always in these vehicles accounted the most honourable and eminent, because he who sits on the right must face the rower, who intercepts the view, and sometimes unavoidably splashes him.

Over the several canals are laid four hundred and fifty, and some say above five hundred bridges, great and small, most of them of stone: the highest and longest is the Rialto, which in the midst of the city crosses the great canal at its narrowest part, where it is but forty paces broad. This bridge consists of only one single arch, whose foundation takes up ninety feet, resting on twelve thousand elm piles. It is every where incrust-ed with marble, and is said to have cost the republic two hundred and fifty thousand ducats. In the upper part it is thirty-seven common paces broad, with two rows of shops, forming, as it were, three streets, of which that in the middle is the widest; and at each end is an ascent of fifty-six steps. The city may indeed be every where traversed on foot, but the streets are very narrow, and the pavement of free-stone very slippery in wet weather; and, at the same time, the many small bridges with their steps are not a little troublesome and dangerous, very few of the bridges having any fence on either side.

The city of Venice is about six Italian miles in circumference, and contains seventy parish churches besides others, fifty-four convents of monks, twenty-six nunneries, seventeen rich hospitals, eighteen oratories, forty religious fraternities with their chapels, fifty-three squares, one hundred and sixty-five marble, and twenty-three brass statues. The buildings are indeed all of stone, but the greater part make a very mean appearance; so that the city, in point of beauty and elegance, is inferior to many others. It is true St. Mark's square is very fine, as are also the several stately marble palaces that border upon the great canal, though most of them are of Gothic architecture. In the churches and convents the paintings are most admirable; for in these Venice surpasses even Rome itself. Here are also two academies of painting. The number of inhabitants has been computed at two hundred thousand. These inhabitants are the nobility and the citizens, after whom may be reckoned the lawyers, notaries, physicians, wealthy merchants, glass-makers, and all handicraftsmen, whether dwelling in the city or the more distant islands, together with the seafaring people and the gondoliers.

This city, from the fertility of the country in its neighbourhood, and the facility of carriage, enjoys a constant plenty of all kinds of provisions. The spring-water being very indifferent in most places, almost every house has a cistern, into which the rain water is conveyed from the roof, and clarified by being filtrated through sand. Water is also brought from the river Brenta, and preserved in the cisterns.

From this general sketch of the city, we shall now proceed to a particular description. It is divided into six large parts, of which the three first lie on the east and north side; and the three others to the west and south of the great canal, which, as we have already observed, divides the city into two principal parts.

The first named Sestieria St. Marco, particularly contains St. Mark's square, with the adjacent buildings. This square, which is the pride of the city, is on the

shortest side two hundred and forty paces long, and seventy-five broad, from the ducal palace southward of the canal Della Giudeca. The longest side runs in a direct line from east to west between the churches of St. Mark and St. Geminiano, near 180 feet. In the upper part, or at the first church, it is one hundred and twenty-six paces broad on both sides, exclusive of the piazzas; but in the lower part, or at the second church, only eighty-nine. The ducal palace, towards the water-side, and St. Mark's palace, are entirely Gothic; but on the side of the small canal and in the court, of tolerable good modern architecture, and is mostly of marble. This structure not only serves for the residence of the doge, but also for the meeting of the council. The finest ornaments in the council-chamber and other apartments, are the paintings of the great masters; particularly in the middle of the ceiling of the council-chamber, the republic of Venice is represented above the clouds, and surrounded with a multitude of gods, while the tritons and nereids, at Mercury's command, bring shells, coral, pearls, &c. and present them to her, as the queen of the sea. This is one of Tintoretto's best pieces; and in one of the apartments is another piece by the same master, in which Jupiter, with several other gods, conduct Venice, in order to lay the foundation of her power and grandeur in the Adriatic sea; in which the artist has imitated the ancient pagans, in giving the god such a glory round his head, as is usually painted round that of our Saviour. But the finest piece among all the paintings in this palace, is the taking of the fortress of Zara.

In the palace is also a small arsenal, where a considerable number of loaded muskets are always kept in readiness, that in case of an insurrection of the people, the doge and the nobility may make use of them for their defence; for this purpose the council-chamber has a communication through a door with the armoury, and every three months these pieces are fresh loaded. Among other curiosities in this arsenal are two little statues of Adam and Eve, cut with a knife in an uncommon kind of wood, by Albert Durer, during his confinement, for which he was rewarded with his liberty. Here is also a most curious lanthorn of rock crystal, for which a yearly pension of four hundred ducats was ordered to the inventor, and his heirs to the fourth generation. On the steps in the court of the palace stand two marble statues of Mars and Neptune. Towards St. Mark's church is also another of Francis Maria duke of Urbino, and at the church two others of Adam and Eve.

The lower gallery of the palace on the side opposite St. Mark's square, together with the hall under the New Procuratie, is called the Broglio. Here at a certain hour of the day the nobility walk, and no Venetian of an inferior rank must be seen there; though a foreigner, being supposed to be unacquainted with the custom, is not desired to quit the place. That part of St. Mark's square between the two buildings and the piazza receives an additional ornament from two pillars of oriental granite, on one of which stands St. Mark's lion in brass, and on the other a marble statue of St. Theodore. Between these is the place for the public execution of malefactors, through which no nobleman is seen to pass. A galley completely rigged and armed lies close to the Broglio, for the defence of the ducal palace, on any sudden emergency.

Contiguous to the north part of the doge's palace is St. Mark's church, which is also stiled the doge's chapel. Its materials justify intitle it to be called magnificent, it being both on the out and inside covered with fine marble: but the architecture is entirely Gothic. The best part of it are the Mosaic paintings, and the four horses of brass, which were formerly gilt, standing over the great door, and said to have been brought from Constantinople. These are universally allowed to be master-pieces. The treasury of the church is very rich in gold and jewels, and here is a famous manuscript of the Gospel of St. Mark; but the dampness of the place has spoiled it to such a degree, that it is so far from being legible, that it is not certain whether it be written in Latin or Greek. Before the church are two large masts fixed on brass pedestals, on which in festivals silken flags are hoisted.

Opposite

Opposite the ducal palace is a fine new building, called the Procuratie Nouove, which takes up an entire side of St. Mark's square. In it may be seen the public library and museum of antiquities. The former is only prized for the collection of Greek manuscripts left to the republic by cardinal Bessarion: but in the museum one cannot sufficiently admire the multitude of Greek and Roman marble statues, all highly finished. Adjoining the Procuratie Nouove is the Procuratie Vecchie, which takes up the other side of St. Mark's square as far as St. Geminiano's church. These buildings are called procuraties, from the procurators of St. Mark's church residing in them. Facing the angle formed by the New Procuratie stands an insulated square tower three hundred and eighteen feet high, and the ascent within is such that one may safely ride both up and down. On the spire at the top stands an angel of wood sixteen feet high, covered with gilt brass.

The principal churches in this division are those of St. Moses and St. Maria Zobenigo. Of the palaces by the great canal, one of the most stately is that of Pesaro. This quarter has a communication by a bridge with that of St. Paolo over the Rialto, and near it is the German-house, in which are mercantile goods consigned to or from Germany, and in it the Protestants perform divine service.

The next division, called Sestiere de Castello, contains the magnificent churches of St. Zaccaria, St. Giovanni e Paolo, with the neighbouring Dominican convents, the Scuola di St. Marco, the hospital li Mandicanti with its church, St. Giustina, St. Francesco della vigna, St. Pietro de Castello, called the patriarchate, and the ducal seminary. Here is also the celebrated arsenal, or dock, which is two Italian miles and a half in circuit, walled and moated, with twelve towers along its walls, and within the enclosure a great variety of buildings, in which every thing requisite for a land or sea armament is kept in readiness. These buildings consist of an armoury, store-houses for iron-work, oars, cordage, bullets, tar, hemp, canvas, guns, &c. A rope-house, a salt petre-house, smiths forges, a foundery, basons, and slips for building of ships and gallies. Within it lie the men of war, frigates, gallies, galleasses, and galliots. The workmen commonly amount to upwards of a thousand; they constantly live in the dock, and most of them were born there.

The third division of the city is named the Sestiere di Canale Regio, and has many churches, one of the finest of which is the Padri Gesuiti, or Jesuits. This structure has a superb front, adorned with a profusion of statues and fine columns, and the ornaments within this edifice are answerable to its outward beauty and elegance. The walls between the pillars, the great altar, and the pulpit, are of white marble inlaid with green, and embellished with flowers. The great altar has sixteen twisted columns of white and green marble. The steps and the pavement before it are of yellow and green marble, and resemble a beautiful carpet. The tabernacle is of lapis-lazuli. Among the multitude of other fine pictures with which this church is adorned, the most admired are the martyrdom of St. Lawrence, by Titian; the circumcision and ascension, by Tintoretto; the beheading of John the Baptist, by old Palma; and the Virgin Mary visiting her cousin Elizabeth, by Andrea Schiavone. The vestry is entirely painted by Palma.

In this division is also the theatre, and in this quarter live the Jews, who amount to about fifteen hundred, and are distinguished by their being obliged to wear a bit of red cloth on their hats.

The fourth division of the city contains nothing remarkable.

The fifth, called the Sestiere di St. Paolo, contains the exchange, the bank, the Franciscan church, the splendid chapel of St. Anthony, &c.

And the sixth, named the Sestiere di Dorso duro, has many magnificent churches, adorned with the most beautiful sculpture and paintings.

Round the city of Venice are a considerable number of small islands, some of which have handsome gardens, walks, and beautiful churches. One of the principal of these is St. Murano, a populous island about a mile from

Venice, and has its own magistrates, but, like the rest, is under the jurisdiction of the city. In it are fifteen churches, of which St. Peter's, the principal, belongs to the Dominicans. In this island the famous large looking-glasses are made, and other curious glass-work performed.

We have already mentioned many of the diversions of the city; and shall here add, that among the most rational and agreeable are the excellent concerts performed weekly in the churches of the hospitals de gl' Incurabili and della Pietà. In the former they are chiefly vocal, and in the latter instrumental; and, what is most extraordinary, the performers in both are poor maidens.

The trade of Venice in cloth, especially scarlet, silk stuffs, and looking-glasses, is still very considerable. Here are also manufactured gold and silver stuffs, for which they have a good vent in the Levant; and likewise brocatellas, a kind of stuff like brocade, made of coarse silk, and much used for carpets.

Having given a very particular account of the republic, we shall proceed to give a description of the several countries subject to it.

S E C T. XI.

The PADUANO, or PADUAN.

Its Situation and Extent, with a particular Description of the City of Padua, and a concise Account of Abano and Rovigo.

THE Paduan, or territory of Padua, is called by the Italians Paduano, and is a part of Lombardy: it is bounded on the north by Trevisano, on the east by the Dogado, on the south by the Polesino, and on the west by the Veronese and Vicentino; it extending about forty miles in length, and thirty-five in breadth.

This is one of the most fertile spots in Italy; and the country is adorned with a great number of beautiful villas and gardens: but it is subject to storms, particularly those that come from the sea, which are extremely violent.

Padua, in Latin Patavium, is an antient and large city on the Brenta, situated in the forty-fifth degree thirty-six minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree twenty minutes east longitude. The inhabitants boast that the republic of Venice owes its origin and rise to their city; but it is now some centuries since Padua has been brought under the Venetian yoke, which has occasioned it greatly to decline from its former splendor; so that at present it scarcely contains forty thousand inhabitants. The streets are narrow, ill paved, and dirty; but almost all the houses stand upon porticos, under which one may walk without being incommoded either by the sun or rain: this, however, renders the lower part of the buildings dark. The city contains twenty-six parish-churches, twenty-three convents of monks, eighteen nunneries, four good hospitals, and is a bishop's see.

The principal church is that of the Franciscans, dedicated to St. Anthony, on account of the excessive veneration paid by the Paduans to this supposed saint. It is built upon the ruins of a temple of Juno, and is very spacious, full of gold, silver, precious stones, paintings, gildings, sculpture, and every other kind of magnificence. The pavement is of marble of various colours; the choir is adorned with white and red marble, and the benches, which are very fine, are embellished over head with bass reliefs in eighteen brass pannels, by Sansovin, representing several passages of the life of Christ, and are very much admired: but the richest part of this church is the chapel, which contains his body, and is entirely lined with white marble. "In the chapel of this saint, says Keyser, I saw burning above fifty large silver lamps, and one of gold; together with two very large silver candlesticks standing on pedestals of white marble. St. Anthony's coffin is of serpentine, and lies under the altar, which is adorned with seven angels of bronze, and some exquisite sculpture; and, indeed, the chapel has in every respect but few equals. On one side of it are shewn two wax flambeaux, eight or nine inches in diameter,

“ diameter, and fixed in iron-work. These are said to
 “ have been offered by a treacherous Turk, with a de-
 “ sign to blow up the chapel, by means of fire-works
 “ concealed in them; but it seems St. Anthony prevent-
 “ ed the calamity; for these flambeaux being lighted,
 “ he cried out aloud three times from his coffin, that
 “ they should be put out, which occasioned a farther
 “ examination of the flambeaux, and thus the villainous
 “ plot was discovered. St. Anthony’s remains are said
 “ continually to emit a most fragrant perfume, which
 “ is chiefly smelt at a crevice behind the altar; and it
 “ is said that this perfume is stronger in the morning
 “ than in the evening, whence some have inferred that
 “ the cleft is rubbed with perfumes every morning, be-
 “ fore the people are permitted to approach it. The
 “ saint’s tongue is kept with great devotion in a glass
 “ vase in the vestry, and very fervent prayers are offered
 “ up to it.”

The church of St. Justina, designed by Palladio, be-
 longs to the Benedictine convent, which is said to be
 possessed of an annual income of a hundred thousand
 ducats, and is remarkable for being a handsome, lumi-
 nous, and disencumbered building; and is esteemed by
 many artists one of the finest works in Italy. The long
 nave consists of a row of five cupolas, and the cross one
 has on each side a single cupola, deeper and broader than
 the others. The martyrdom of St. Justina, done by Paul
 Veronese, hangs over the altar. The chief relics of this
 church are the supposed bodies of St. Luke and St.
 Matthias.

The magnificence of the convent, which is built of
 large square free-stone, is answerable to the beauty of
 the church: it is a vast fabric that has six cloisters, several
 courts, and many gardens. The refectory is very fine,
 extremely neat, and adorned with an excellent picture of
 Jesus at Emmaus, by Titian: they also highly value a
 statue of the Virgin Mary here, which they say was at
 Constantinople when the Turks made themselves masters
 of that city; but was so frightened by those barbarians,
 that she flew directly to Padua.

What they call the library is a very magnificent build-
 ing, but very ill furnished with books, the cellars being
 much better stocked with hogheads of wine. The Bene-
 dictines of St. Justina boast of having discovered in their
 garden the coffin of Titus Livius, and that this convent
 is built upon the ruins of an old temple of Concord,
 some say of Jupiter.

The square near it is the largest in Padua, and was
 antiently called the Field of Mars: its present name is
 Prato della Valle, and it serves for the quality to walk
 in. There is a small spot in this square named Campo
 Santo, or the Holy Field, from the great number of
 Christians who formerly suffered martyrdom there. The
 cathedral is a very old structure, and has a revenue of a
 hundred thousand crowns for maintaining twenty-seven
 canons, who must be all of noble extraction, with some
 chaplains and other officers. There are here the tombs
 of many great men, and the church is adorned with a
 great number of excellent paintings by the great masters.
 Other handsome churches are those of the Carmelites,
 St. Francisco di Paola, the Theatines, and St. Maria
 della Gratie.

The university founded by the emperor Frederic II. was
 formerly in great repute; but has for many years been
 so decayed, that the students now scarce make five
 hundred. No difficulty is made of burying a Protestant
 traveller in a church or convent, if before his death care
 has been taken to have his name entered in the matri-
 cula of the university. In this structure are the statues
 and arms of a great number of illustrious persons who
 were members of it. The anatomical theatre being
 somewhat dark, the dissections are generally performed by
 candle-light. The library is a handsome building, and
 the physic-garden, though not large, is ingeniously con-
 trived, and was the first of the kind belonging to any
 university in Europe.

The chief civil edifice is the town-house; but its large
 hall is kept in so dirty a condition, that were it not for
 some monuments it contains it would not be worth see-
 ing: on the outside of the four gates are the statues of
 four celebrated Paduans, namely Titus Livius, Albertus

Patavinus, Petrus Aponus, and Paulus Patavinus. In
 the large hall just mentioned is a stone, which has a Latin
 inscription, by which it is termed the stone of ignominy
 and bankruptcy. For such as became bankrupt, and
 were unable to pay their debts, by sitting publicly three
 times with their bare posteriors on this stone, and swear-
 ing that it was not in their power to discharge their debts,
 were cleared from any farther prosecution from their
 creditors: but this extraordinary ceremony has been dis-
 continued for upwards of sixty years.

The podesta, or chief magistrate’s palace, which joins
 to the town-house, contains a great number of bustoes,
 statues, and arms of former podestas; and in it is also the
 city library.

The pallazzo del Capitaneo stands in a beautiful area
 called Piazza de Nobili. It is an elegant building, and
 the second story is adorned with a gallery, supported by
 seventy-three columns of red marble. The tower is also
 a good piece of architecture, and has a clock which shews
 both the course of the sun and moon.

The antient palace of the tyrant Acciolini is remarkable
 for its spacious vaults, and at present serves both for
 an arsenal and granary: it has two towers, on one of
 which is a Latin inscription to the following purpose:

“ Shed tears of compassion on this prison, where the
 “ blood of your ancestors was abundantly shed; for those
 “ whom the inhuman Acciolini thrust down alive,
 “ without any distinction of age, sex, rank, or con-
 “ dition, into this dungeon, perished with hunger, grief,
 “ and despair. After such numbers of innocent victims,
 “ who were buried alive in this dreadful sepulchre, it was
 “ at last the just fate of the execrable tyrant himself to
 “ expire in it. Hence you ought to be sensible of your
 “ present happiness, in having a prince who, from being
 “ objects of pity and compassion, has rendered you so
 “ happy as to be envied for your prosperity. This in-
 “ scription was placed over this dreadful dungeon by Se-
 “ bastiano Galvani, a native of Padua, commissary of
 “ the provisions and military-stores lodged in this castle,
 “ in the year 1618.”

Among the pleasure-gardens in Padua that of d’Andola,
 a noble Venetian, is one of the best, it being adorned
 with great numbers of statues; but the Papafava gardens
 exceed it for orange-trees, cypress, and other evergreens,
 which are disposed into fine walks, labyrinths, and beau-
 tiful hedges. Of the latter some are of box-trees thir-
 teen or fourteen feet high.

Though the air of Padua is esteemed very healthy, yet
 few cities have so many apothecaries in proportion to the
 number of the inhabitants: but it must be observed, that
 most of these venders of medicines are also confectioners.
 Great quantities of vipers are collected here, some of
 which are kept alive for various uses, and others dried
 and made into powder, which is supposed to be of great
 efficacy in medicine.

The Jews have their particular quarter allotted to
 them at Padua, out of which they are not permitted to
 stir.

The plain about Padua is a perfect paradise, and the
 neighbouring mountains yield excellent wine and oil.
 The passage from Padua to Venice is very convenient,
 and in fair weather the sight of the many seats on both
 sides the river renders it very pleasant.

At the distance of about four Italian miles from Pa-
 dua is the village of Abano, which is much frequented
 in summer on account of the warm baths, which are a-
 bout half a mile from it. In these baths are three sorts
 of water of very different qualities; some of these springs
 are impregnated with sulphur, and have particular bath-
 ing-rooms, where, by means of steps, one may descend
 to any depth in the water: others are boiling hot, and
 the water springs up in such quantities as to drive a mill
 at the distance of about twenty paces from the source.
 The wooden pipes through which the water is conveyed
 to these baths are often encrusted with a white stoney
 substance, not easily separated from the wood; and the
 exact impression of the veins and knots of the wood on
 this concretion make it perfectly resemble petrified wood.
 A sudatorium has also been built here, the effect of which
 is caused by the steam of the water. Some of the springs,
 which are tepid, are said to be impregnated with lead,

and others, from their reddish sediment, and other signs, appear to be chalybeate. In those where sulphur predominates, the pipes contract a crust of whitish salt. Here is also a mud-bath, where very obstinate arthritic disorders have been cured, by means of the warm mud.

The peninsula Rovigo, which is also subject to Venice, is very fertile, and environed by the rivers Adige, Po, Tattaro, and Castagnaro; and is intersected by several canals. It contains Rovigo, a pretty large city seated on the Adige, which runs through it. Its fortifications are antient, besides which it has a castle, and is the residence of the bishop of Adria. This district, besides the above city, only contains Adria, which is now an inconsiderable place, and three other market-towns.

S E C T. XII.

The V E R O N E S E.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a particular Description of the City of Verona.

THE Veronese, the next country subject to Venice, is bounded on the north by the country of Trent, on the east by the Paduan and Vicentino, on the south by the duchy of Mantua, and on the west by Bresciano. Its utmost extent from north to south is about forty miles, and its breadth from east to west about thirty-two.

The Veronese is a delightful country, abounding in excellent peaches, melons, figs, strawberries, truffles, very large artichokes, chestnuts, apples, pears, plums, wine, oil, corn, and other vegetables. It has good marble, and petrifications of several kinds. Among the mountains, that of Baldo is celebrated for its valuable plants. The lake of Garda, in Latin Benacus, Virgil represents as very stormy, comparing its waves to those of the ocean: indeed it resembles the sea, and his description is not very hyperbolical. It is upwards of twenty-eight English miles in length, and abounds in fish, particularly large fine trouts. The district of Verona annually brings in to the republic of Venice upwards of five hundred and sixty thousand ducats. The principal city of this district is the following:

Verona, the capital of the Veronese, is a very large city, situated in the forty-fifth degree twenty-six minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree fifteen minutes east longitude. It is fortified in the antient manner, with three castles, two of which stand on a hill, and the other two in a plain, by the river Adige, which runs through the city, and over which are four stone bridges, one of them three hundred and forty-eight feet long.

This city makes a better appearance from its delightful outlets, than when one is within it; most of the streets being narrow, crooked, and dirty, and the houses but mean. The inhabitants are computed to amount to near fifty thousand, but they were formerly much more numerous. The best street in the city is called Il Curso, where the diversions of the carnival conclude with foot-races, &c. Common prostitutes were formerly permitted to enter the lists, and to run for the prize; but this custom has been abolished, and altered to a horse-race, which is exhibited on Shrove-Sunday, the last Sunday of the carnival. The prize is a piece of gold brocade, or some other rich stuff. The largest piazza in this city is La Piazza d'Armi, where the two annual fairs in spring and autumn are held, and in which stands a marble statue representing the republic of Venice in a female habit, with a crown on her head. In the town-house are the statues of five celebrated persons who were natives of Verona; these are Catullus, Æmilius Marcus, Cornelius Nepos, the elder Pliny, and Vitruvius; besides which, on a high arch, stands the statue of Geronimo Fracastori, a learned physician, mathematician, and excellent poet, who flourished in the sixteenth century. The most valuable piece of antiquity here is the celebrated Roman amphitheatre, which is so perfect that the seats on which the people sat are still entire. Indeed but little of it appears antient, it having been carefully repaired from time to time at the city's expence. The learned count Maffei computed that it conveniently held twenty-two thousand one hundred and eighty-four spec-

tators, but the outer wall and the upper story are wanting.

In the edifice where the learned Philharmonic Society hold their meetings is a very large hall, in which are the portraits of the *patres*, or presidents of this academy, who are always four in number; and in an apartment on the left hand are kept the old musical instruments with which the nobility of Verona used formerly to amuse themselves. An apartment on the right hand is appointed for the presidents of the Philoti, who are instituted for the improvement of bodily exercises, as riding, fencing, vaulting, dancing, &c. There is also in this building a fine theatre for exhibiting operas and comedies, which has five galleries, and was built from a design of the famous Francesco Bibiena, architect to the emperor. As the nobility assemble here several times in a week to divert themselves with cards, &c. this theatre may be considered as a kind of exchange for the polite and the literati of Verona. In one room stands the statue of a female of white marble. On the outside of this edifice are to be seen a great number of inscriptions and other remains of antiquity, many of which were dug up about Verona; and that they may not be exposed to any future damage from the injuries of the weather, they are inserted in a long wall facing the south, the north wind being found very detrimental to stones. After these are several antient monuments in basso relievo, representing the gods, sacrifices, &c. In the proper arrangement of these pieces the marquis Scipio Maffei was at no small expence, and spared no pains to increase their number; on which account the gentlemen belonging to this academy erected a marble statue of him over the entrance of this building.

In Verona there are convents of Carmelite monks, both bare-footed and others. In the church of the former are three fine altars, the first of which is adorned with columns of verde-antico, the second with pillars of a red and white veined marble, and the third with columns of a yellow marble. The high altar is also of beautiful marble finely executed, and adorned with a noble picture of the Annunciation.

In the church belonging to the other Carmelite monks is a beautiful altar of fine marble, and in the vestry a fine piece of painting by one of the disciples of the celebrated Raphael, representing our Saviour when a child playing with John the Baptist, and the Virgin Mary looking with great complacency on their mutual fondness and sportive innocence.

Among the other churches, one of the finest is that of St. George, belonging to the Benedictine monks. Over the door is the baptism of Christ painted by Tintoretto; on the high altar is a piece representing the martyrdom of St. George, by Paul Veronese; and on one side near it our Saviour feeding five thousand people, by Paul Taranati, who was seventy-nine years of age when he painted this piece; and on the other side a very fine representation of the Israelites gathering manna. This piece is twenty-four feet in length, and twenty-three broad.

Between Verona and Vicenza are found all kinds of petrified fish, most of which are of the salt-water species, in a sort of white loam. These fishes are generally well preserved, their bones being entire, and frequently even their scales; they chiefly consist of pike, soles, thornbacks, flying-fish, perch, and gudgeons.

S E C T. XIII.

The Territory of VICENZA, or VICENTINO.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a particular Description of the City of Vicenza, and the Manners of the Inhabitants.

THE territory of Vicenza is also a part of Lombardy, and is bounded on the north by the territory of Trent, on the east by the Trevisano, on the south by the Paduan; and on the west by the Veronese, extending in length from north to south, about forty miles, and in breadth about thirty-three.

The air is serene and healthful, and the inhabitants computed at a hundred and fifty or a hundred and sixty thousand souls. The country is indeed so fertile and de-

lightful,

lightful, that it may be called both the garden and flesh-market of Venice; it also produces good wine.

The principal city in this territory is Vicenza, or Vicentia, which is situated thirty Italian miles from Verona, in the forty-fifth degree thirty four minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree fifteen minutes east longitude, and is watered by the rivers Bachiglioni and Rerone, which here unite their streams, and contains many elegant and beautiful buildings, the tops of several of them ornamented with statues, particularly the piazza before the council-house. This piazza makes a grand appearance, and before it stands two very lofty columns: on the top of one of them is St. Mark's winged lion, the arms of Venice, and on the other the image of our Saviour. There is in this city a literary society styled the *Olympici*, whose design is chiefly the improvement of the Italian language. The academicians hold their meetings in a theatre built by the celebrated Palladio, who was a native of this city. It is but seldom used as a theatre, yet the perspective of the stage is admirable, and it is adorned with statues of the Roman emperors and philosophers. The pit is likewise adorned with several statues, and the seats are disposed after the manner of the antient amphitheatres. In the Campus Martius, without the city, is a triumphal arch built from one of Palladio's designs, in imitation of the antient structures of that kind. The Monte della Pietà is also a stately fabric, and has a very fine library.

Of the churches, which are fifty-seven in number, fourteen are parochial, and twenty-nine conventual. Among these the great altar of the Dominican church is a superb piece of Palladio's architecture.

The church della Madona di Monte, on a mountain without the city, is much frequented by pilgrims, and has a fine frontispiece, with a convent built close by it. In the refectory of this convent is a picture painted by Paul Veronese, representing pope Gregory the Great sitting with several pilgrims at table, where our Saviour is also present. Though this piece be finely executed, the design is very absurd. The pope sits at the upper end, without his triple crown; and next to him Christ is represented without any particular mark of distinction: the next is a cardinal, and on the other side another cardinal, with a large pair of spectacles on his nose; a page dressed in the Spanish manner waits at table, with a dog under his arm: under the table are represented a cat, a monkey, &c. The mountain on which this church and convent are built yields a very agreeable prospect, which extends as far as Padua. For the convenience of the usual processions, and of pilgrims, a large ascent by steps has been made up the acclivity of the mountain. In the valley at the beginning of the ascent is a triumphal arch, and on the left hand of it is a statue of the Virgin Mary.

The finest garden at Vicenza is that of count Valmarano, which for its situation, vistas, arbours, and beautiful walks, may be esteemed one of the noblest in all Italy. A covered walk of cedar and orange-trees, planted alternately, and above two hundred paces in length, is particularly admired. On one side of it is a broad canal, well stocked with large barbels and other fish, which at the sound of a pipe immediately appear in great numbers on the surface, in order to be fed. Over the entrance into the garden is a Latin inscription to the following purpose:

"If corroding cares have haply followed thee thus far, though they be loth to leave thee, dispel and banish them, for this place is dedicated to genial mirth and festivity. Whoever shall damage these cedars, or crop a flower, let him be esteemed sacrilegious, and be punished, to appease Vertumnus and Pomona, to whom they are consecrated.

"Native, friend, or stranger, who desirest to amuse thyself with the rural charms of this place, thou mayest securely enter these gardens designed for pleasure and recreation. Here is no fierce dog, no frightful dragon, no deity with threatening weapon; but every thing is here freely, and without danger, exposed to thy view. Such is the pleasure of count Leonardo Valmarano, the owner of these gardens, who relies on thy

"modesty and good breeding as sufficient to guard the place from outrages."

The inhabitants of Vicenza have the character of being more vindictive than the rest of the Italians; and it is certain that travellers, especially those who are hot and quarrelsome, should be very careful both here and in every part of Italy to avoid disputes, especially with the postillions and other persons of the lower class; for the desire of revenge is so predominant, that they have been known to follow a traveller six or eight stages to watch an opportunity of gratifying their malice. "Open violence, says Mr. Keyser, from whom we have borrowed these remarks, is little to be apprehended from them, on which account the danger is the greater; for cowards are always cruel. Murder is looked upon in Italy in a very different light from what it is in other countries. If a robbery is committed in the streets, or market-place, in any of the towns of this country, and the people are called to stop the thief, there is always assistance at hand to pursue the criminal; but upon crying after a murderer, nobody offers to stir, and the assassin saves himself by flying unmolested to a church, convent, or other asylum, where, to the great honour of the clergy be it spoken, the villain receives all possible assistance, that he may escape the hands of the civil power. I remember a postillion, the above author adds, who once drove me, was treacherously stabbed at the post-house of Pistoia; and though the fact was committed in the presence of more than ten persons, not one of them stirred a foot to seize or pursue the murderer."

The meanest citizens of Vicenza, in signing contracts or other deeds, add to their names the title of count of Vicenza; an empty piece of pride, which they are said to derive from an answer given by Charles V. who when he was at Vicenza, to get rid of the importunate solicitations of several wealthy citizens to grant them the title of counts, said in jest, *Todos condes*, "I make you all counts."

SECT. XIV.

Of the Territories of Bresciano, or Brescia, Bergamo, Cremasco, Marca Trevigiana, Friuli, and Istria: with a Description of the Cities of Brescia, Bergamo, Crema, Treviso, or Trevigio, and Udine.

THE territory of Brescia is also a part of Lombardy subject to the Venetians, and, though mountainous, abounds in wine, oil, wheat, and other grain; also in silver, copper, iron, and marble of all colours. This territory is bounded on the east by the Lago di Garda; on the westward by the Lago d'Iseo, in Latin *Sevinus*; and on the southward by the small lake of Idro. The principal city in this district is the following:

Brescia, in Latin *Brixia*, is a fortified city on the little river Garza, in the forty-fifth degree twenty-seven minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree thirty-nine minutes east longitude, and is defended by a castle seated on a hill. Besides the cathedral it has nineteen parish-churches, forty-five convents, and some charitable foundations, with a general hospital. Its bishop is a suffragan to the archbishop of Milan; he has large revenues, and bears the titles of duke, marquis, and count. The cathedral is a stately modern structure; and the celebrated bishop cardinal Quirini having greatly contributed towards the building of it, and made the city a present of a library, the magistracy, in 1750, erected two statues of him, one in the church, and the other at the entrance of the library; and also caused a medal to be struck to his honour. Among the relics of this church is an azure cross, believed to be the same which Constantine saw in the air. The inhabitants are computed at near fifty thousand, and the nobility live here in a very splendid and gay manner. The fire-arms, swords, and cutlery-ware of this city are much esteemed, as are its linen-manufacture, which, with other commodities, render its trade very considerable.

In this territory are some other towns, and a considerable number of villages.

The district of Bergamo is also a part of Lombardy : towards the north it is mountainous and rocky, but about the capital very fruitful. Some valleys produce wine and oil, while others are barren, but abound in iron. The only considerable place in this district is

Bergamo, a well fortified city on several hills, at the bottom of which are some handsome suburbs. Between the city and a strong castle which stands on the highest mountain, is a communication under ground. In the cathedral, which is a handsome structure, are said to be preserved and venerated with great devotion the bodies of twenty-five saints. The bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Milan. This city is famed for its sewing silk, and has a fair on St. Bartholomew's day, to which there is a great resort of merchants and tradesmen from Italy, Germany, and Sicily.

The district of Cremasco, which is also a part of Lombardy, is very fruitful in corn, wine, and hemp, and contains

Crema, a pretty strong city, seated in a very fruitful plain, on the river Serio, and defended by a castle. The bishop is subordinate to the archbishop of Bologna. The houses are elegantly built, and besides the cathedral there are thirty churches, convents, hospitals, and charitable foundations.

The Marca Trevigiana is one of the richest and best spots in all Italy ; particularly the country between Treviso and Castel Franco is, as it were, one continued garden, every where planted with rows of wild mulberry trees, which serve as espaliers for vines ; and in travelling from Treviso to Maestre in the dutchy of Venice, each side is most charmingly variegated with the beautiful villas and gardens.

The principal place in this territory is Treviso, or Trévigo, a very old fortified town, with a fort on the river Sile, into which, after dividing itself into three branches, and watering the town, the Piavesella discharges itself. This place is of a middling size, with many neat houses, and among its inhabitants are several noble families. In 1608, the academy Perseveranti was erected here. It has also the academy of Solleciti. It is the residence of a bishop, and became subject to the republic in 1388.

The fertile country of Friuli anciently belonged to the patriarch of Aquileia ; but in the fifteenth century became subject to the republic of Venice. In the sixteenth century a part of it devolved to the house of Austria.

The capital of the Venetian part is Udine, a city of middling size, seated on the river and canal of la Roia. The patriarch, who formerly resided at Aquileia, some years ago took up his abode here. The contest between the house of Austria and the republic about the patriarchate, was compromised by the pope's suppressing the patriarchate, and erecting two archbishoprics out of it, one to be in the city, and the other in that of Gorizia, which belongs to Austria. The archbishop of Udine is metropolitan of all the bishops in the Venetian territories that were before under the patriarch. This city contains several churches, convents, and hospitals ; a college for law, and an academy for martial exercises.

Istria is a kind of peninsula between two large bays of the gulph of Venice, namely that of Trieste and that of Quarner, and is about sixty miles in length, but not near so broad. It was a part of the ancient Illyricum ; but being conquered by the Romans, between the first and second Punic wars, was annexed to Italy. In the middle ages it belonged to the patriarchate of Aquileia, who was invested with it as a marquisate by the emperor Henry IV. In 1190, most of the maritime part was conquered by the republic of Venice, which they have ever since enjoyed, though not without some interruption from the Austrians. It is fruitful, especially in wine and oil, but is hilly, and the air unhealthy, on which account it is but thinly peopled.

Capo d'Istria, anciently Justinopolis, the capital of the territory, is a bishop's see and a pretty strong town, seated on a small island, so near the continent that it is joined to it by a bridge. The cathedral is an old, but a

stately building, and has three aisles supported by eighteen marble pillars. The churches of the Servitæ and Dominicans are noble structures, as is also that of the Franciscans, who hold the tribunal of the inquisition. The town-hall is a very ancient edifice, supposed to have been formerly a temple dedicated to Pallas ; and it is even affirmed, that the statue of Justice, which now stands in the front of the building, was that of the goddess.

In this district are several other towns ; but they are most of them small and inconsiderable.

With respect to the other parts of the dominions of Venice, we have already given an account of Venetian Dalmatia in page 136 ; and of the islands of Corfu, Santa Maura, Cephalonia and Zante, which belong to Venice, in treating of Turkey in Europe, page 26, 27.

S E C T. XV.

Of the Republic of GENOA.

The Situation, Extent, and Produce of Genoa. Its Manufactures, Trade, History, and Form of Government. The Title and Arms of the Republic : Its Offices, Courts, Revenues, Military and Naval Force ; with a particular Description of the City of Genoa, and of the Manners of its Inhabitants.

THE independent republic of Genoa, besides being possessed of a long tract which extends along the coast of an extensive gulph of the Mediterranean, anciently called Mare Ligusticum, has also the sovereignty of the island of Corsica. The above tract extends along the coast from east to west, about one hundred and fifty-two miles ; but from north to south it is very narrow in some places, it being only eight, and in the widest not above twenty miles broad. It is bounded by the principality of Piedmont, the duchies of Montserrat, Milan, Placentia, and Parma, the grand dutchy of Tuscany, and the republic of Lucca.

The mountains take up a great part of the country ; some of these are covered with woods ; some are quite barren and rocky, and others yield good pasture. Though the Genoese, from their want of arable land, are obliged to furnish themselves with great quantities of corn from Lombardy, Sicily, Naples, and other countries, yet such is their skill and industry in improving a mountainous, rocky, and sterile soil, that all the year round Genoa is plentifully furnished with pulse and vegetables for the kitchen in the highest perfection. The country also produces both common and muscadell wine, with plenty of excellent fruit, particularly in the west part are lemons, oranges, pomegranates, figs and almonds ; besides many plantations of mulberry-trees, chiefly intended for silk-worms. The olives principally grow about Spatia-bay. It will not here be improper to observe, that the olive-tree very nearly resembles a willow, and makes but a mean appearance. The best oil is the white and transparent ; for the deep yellow is either made from over-ripe olives, or has been kept too long. The good oil has no smell nor any kind of viscid fatness. Virgin oil, by the ancients called green oil, is pressed both from ripe and unripe olives, and is the whitest, the most palatable, and in every respect the best. The inhabitants have also such plenty of salt, that they can spare it for exportation, as they also can stone and marble. These territories are watered by many rivers ; but they are all of them small and inconsiderable.

The inhabitants of Genoa are of the Romish religion, and the inquisition, as in other parts of Italy, has been introduced here. However, a great number of Protestants live among them without molestation.

The Genoese manufactures are far from being so numerous as formerly, yet velvet, plush, and fustian, are still made, together with damasks, and other silk stuffs ; for which considerable quantities of red silk are imported from Messina and other ports of Sicily ; they also make gold and silver tissues, laces, and gloves ; but these are inferior to those of France and the Netherlands. The other Genoese merchandizes consist of oil, fruit, Parmesan cheese, anchovies and drugs, which last are brought

brought from the Levant. A brisk trade is carried on with these goods, especially to Spain. Ships of most European nations, particularly English, Dutch, and French, are constantly seen at Genoa, which is also the great mart for the trade of Lombardy. Indeed the revenues principally arise from manufactures and trade; but the state is far from making the figure it formerly did, which is chiefly owing to the improvement of manufactures in other countries, the dearness of the Genoese goods, and the danger of the harbour. Indeed Genoa was in 1751 declared a free port; but this freedom is under some restrictions not known at Leghorn. In the part properly called Porto Franco, any merchant may have a warehouse, and both export and import goods free from duty; but such as are disposed of in the city or on the continent, pay very considerably. The city of Genoa is famous for having the richest bankers in Europe, and hence a very profitable article is its dealing in bills of exchange.

Genoa was the capital of ancient Liguria; it was destroyed by Mago the Carthaginian, but rebuilt by the Romans, and after them fell under the power of the Ostrogoths, out of whose hands it was rescued by the great Belisarius, and rendered subject to the Eastern empire. In 670 it was sacked by the Longobardi; but being afterwards rebuilt, continued under their dominion till they were expelled out of Italy by Charlemagne.

For some centuries Genoa was subject to the Roman emperors, but by degrees erected itself into an independent state; and soon after its power became so increased by its flourishing trade, that in the year 806 it reduced the island of Corsica; and in the eleventh and twelfth centuries the inhabitants distinguished themselves in the croisades. The Genoese in the twelfth century subdued half of Sardinia, and the city of Syracuse in Sicily, and even made themselves masters of all the ports in the Black Sea, and settled themselves in Crimea. In the thirteenth century they added to their conquests the towns of Albenga, Savona, Vintimiglia, and others in their neighbourhood, and engaged in a long and expensive war with Venice, which lasted till the year 1381, and so weakened them, that they became unable to maintain the possession of Crimea, from which they were entirely driven in 1471. At length this republic suffered many rude shocks from the intestine dissensions which arose about the form of government, by which the state was so debilitated, that the people were obliged to put themselves sometimes under the protection of the duke of Milan, and sometimes under that of the kings of France; but the latter treating them with intolerable rigour, they struggled hard for liberty, but without success, till that naval hero Andrew Doria, in 1528, rescued his country out of the hands of the French, and established its present form of government. Genoa has from that time generally sided with Spain, which has frequently involved it in quarrels with France, and it has always had a dangerous neighbour in the duke of Savoy. In 1684, the capital was bombarded by the French, when the republic, to save it from total destruction, was obliged to submit to very hard terms; two of which were, That the doge and four counsellors should appear in person at Versailles, and ask pardon; and that the state should disarm all their galleys, except six, and fit out no more without the French king's consent.

In the year 1713, Charles VI. sold the marquisate of Final to the republic for a considerable sum of money; and in 1730, the inhabitants of Corsica began their revolt, and will probably be never entirely reduced under the Genoese subjection. In 1743, the queen of Hungary having at the treaty of Worms, ceded to the king of Sardinia all her right to the town and marquisate of Final, and he demanding that the Genoese should deliver them up, they entered into an alliance with France, Spain, and Naples, and in 1745, declared war against the king of Sardinia; an unfortunate step, for which they were severely chastised in 1746, by Great Britain and the queen of Hungary. The king of Sardinia made himself master of all the Riviera di Ponente; several Genoese ports were bombarded by the English fleet, and the Imperialists even seized on the city of Genoa; but after a terrible slaughter on both sides, were

driven out by the inhabitants, and in 1747, failed in their attempt to recover it. However, the tranquility of this republic was restored by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748.

Before we describe the form of government, it will be proper to give our readers some idea of the nobility, which are distinguished into ancient and new. The ancient nobility consists of twenty eight families, whom Andrew Doria, in the year 1528, declared alone capable of holding the dignity of doge, and the other chief offices; all the other inhabitants being reduced by him to the class of commoners. However, there are joined to these other eminent and wealthy families; but they are obliged instead of their former name to adopt one of the twenty-eight; for in subsequent times it was found necessary, for the preservation of the public tranquillity, to proceed to a new creation of nobles. The new nobility consist of about five hundred families. The ancient nobility think themselves much superior to the modern, though both are now equally capable of public employments. However, in order to sit in the great council, it is necessary to have been a nobleman four years, and six to sit in the lesser; but a procurator or senator must be a nobleman of ten years standing, and to be doge requires fifteen. The great families of Doria and Spinola have given over commerce, but the other nobility make no scruple of being wholesale merchants. They are also allowed to keep velvet, silk, and cloth manufactories; to farm the duties, and to have shares in merchant-ships; but all other business and handicraft employments are forbidden them. It may be said in general, that the republic is poor, and the nobility rich, though not to such a degree as is commonly supposed. Dr. Busching says, he is credibly informed, that not above four or five houses are possessed of three hundred thousand liri per annum, (each liri is worth about eight-pence three-farthings sterling) that there are many more from twenty to thirty thousand; but the greatest part of them have not above ten thousand.

The form of government in this republic is aristocratical; the chief person is called the doge, or duke, to which dignity no person is promoted till he is fifty years of age. Every two years a new doge is chosen, and the former is incapable during five years of holding the same post again. However, he has a procurator's office assigned him, and a pension of a hundred scudi for life, each worth four shillings and six-pence.

On the election-day, which is usually on the third of January, the great council meet in the ducal palace, and by drawing gilt balls out of a box, where are also some silver ones, fifty persons are chosen out of the lesser council, who write down the names of such as they think worthy of being promoted to the ducal office. From these so nominated, and also from the fifty who drew the gilt balls, the great council, by a majority of votes, select fifteen; and of these again the lesser six, of which each at least must have three-fifths of the votes. It is out of these six that the great council, by a majority of suffrages, elect a doge.

On account of the kingdom of Corsica a crown is placed on the doge's head, and a sceptre in his hand; and during the two first days after his election, he wears royal robes; but afterwards only the scarlet gown common to all the members of the council. He is styled his serenity, but at the expiration of his government he is only styled his excellence, like the rest of the council. He and his family live in the palace, and have a body-guard of two hundred Germans. Without his consent nothing can be proposed, nor any resolution of the council be of force. In all important affairs he makes the first motion, gives audience to ambassadors, and all orders are issued in his name.

The title of the republic is, the most serene republic of Genoa. Its arms are argent, a cross gules; the helmet surmounted with a regal crown, to denote the sovereignty of the republic over the island of Corsica. Its rank is immediately next to Venice, and it requires that its ministers at foreign courts should be treated as those of crowned heads.

The chief authority, next to that of the doge, is lodged in the two colleges of the Governatori and Procuratori,

tori, who may also be considered as the council appointed by the doge. The former consists of twelve, and the latter of eight, without including those who having been doge, continue procurators all the remaining part of their lives. These two offices are only biennial. Three *governatori* and two *procuratori* live in the palace with the duke; but are changed every three months. The *governatori*, together with the doge, constitute the *signoria*, or grand council of state, who deliberate on the most secret affairs, and afterwards lay matters of importance before the great council, in order to their receiving a general approbation: they also, in conjunction with the *procuratori*, assist at any interesting consultations of the great council. Without the privity and advice of the *procuratori* no affair of importance can be determined, and it is to them that the direction of the treasury and public revenues belong.

The great council is composed of four hundred, and the little council, which is as it were a committee of the former, of one hundred. None but nobles, and such as reside at Genoa, can be admitted into either. The members are annually changed by a new election, which is performed towards the end of December, by thirty persons selected for that purpose by the lesser council, out of one hundred persons proposed by it. Both colleges deliberate with the two higher colleges on the laws, customs, taxes, and contributions; but war, peace, and alliances, are only considered and determined in the lesser council. The five supreme *sindicatori*, who are generally chosen out of the lesser council, examine the conduct of the doge, the *governatori*, the *procuratori*, and other officers at the expiration of their employments. The *commissarios* of peace, who are three in number, and those of the laws two, are changed every two years. The former, who are citizens, inspect into the matrimonial affairs of the citizens, adjust petty disputes, or in case of obstinacy lay them before the *signoria*. They likewise assist at the election of a doge, and of all other persons in authority, especially of the thirty directors for elections, with respect to whom they are to examine whether their proceedings be legal, and whether in every other respect due obedience be paid to the laws.

Processes among the citizens are decided by the *rota*, a court consisting of five foreign doctors of civil and canon law, who live in the palace of the republic, and continue two years in office. Another college of seven native doctors of law, who are usually changed every half year, appoint guardians, see that processes are not protracted without cause, and that care is taken of the polity. There is also a particular penal-court called *rota criminalis*, and another that deserves commendation, which manages the affairs of poor debtors, or others detained in prison.

In short, the five censors take cognizance of the manufactures and trade, the quality of provisions, weights, and measures, and of the behaviour of the consuls and wardens of companies. Besides these there are several inferior offices, which the freemen are capable of exercising.

The ordinary revenue of the state is computed to amount to about half a million of *liri*; it arises from the duties on imports and exports: the regalia at Sarzana, Gavi, Savona, Vintimiglia, and other places; the woods and forests; the monopoly of wine, with respect to vintners and others, who keep cellars, and have no wine of their own; and of corn sold to bakers; together with fines, and the produce of all the revenues of Corsica: but these last, even when that island was quiet, scarce answered the charge of the troops, and the many civil officers kept there; which more particularly since the insurrection in that island, must have been of great expence to the republic.

When the above revenues fall short of answering the necessary expences, the state borrows from the nobles and rich citizens large sums, at a high interest on certain pledges, and even assignments on branches of the public revenue, which in 1407 gave rise to the famous bank of St. George, so called from St. George's church, where the directors formerly held their meetings. The opulence and power of this bank are very extraordinary, whole towns, manors, and territories belonging to it; and even great part of the island of Corsica. Among other

important privileges, it is invested with a particular jurisdiction, and is dependent only on the doge and state. This company has not only advanced large sums to the republic, but also to foreigners, as mortgages on lands or public revenues in other states.

The republic, in time of peace, usually keep on foot a body of above five thousand regular troops; namely, four thousand natives, the duke's life-guard of two hundred Germans, five hundred Swiss, three hundred Italians, and one hundred bombardiers. Besides these, there is also a militia, which, in case of necessity, is obliged to take the field. The cavalry raised in time of war only amount to about six hundred, who are but of little service, on account of the badness of the horses in this country. In the last war the republic had in pay eighteen thousand men. The fleet of this republic, antiently so celebrated for its victories over the Saracens, Pisanese, Venetians, Spaniards, and Turks, and for continuing a considerable time masters of Sardinia, Malta, Majorca, Minorca, Candia, Cyprus, and many other islands and places in the Mediterranean and Archipelago, and even of the Black-Sea, is now reduced to six galleys, which only serve, according to Addison and Keyser, to import corn and wine, and in summer-time to give the principal ladies of Genoa an airing.

The territories of the republic on the continent are, Riviera di Levante, Riviera di Ponente, and the marquisate of Finale.

The city of Genoa, which stands in the first of these districts, is the capital and seat of this republic. It is situated in the forty-fourth deg. twenty-five minutes north latitude, and in the eighth deg. forty-one minutes east longitude. Genoa is one of the most inconvenient, yet, at the same time, one of the most beautiful, cities in Italy, and is seen to the greatest advantage at the distance of a quarter of a league at sea, where its stately buildings, which have gained it the name of *Superba*, are seen to form a glorious amphitheatre, gradually rising up the side of a hill. This declivity, and the narrowness of the streets, exclude the use of coaches in Genoa, every body being satisfied with going on foot, except the principal ladies, who are carried in chairs and litters; but the loftiness of the houses and narrowness of the streets abate the excessive heats of summer, by intercepting the sun-beams, and thus tend to preserve the healthfulness of the city. The streets are exceedingly well paved, and in some parts with free-stone; besides, the want of coaches and other carriages greatly conduce to their cleanliness. As the barrenness of the neighbouring soil requires great quantities of manure, the dung of horses and mules is very carefully gathered up. This is chiefly observed in the suburbs of Pietro d'Arena, where the breadth of the streets admits the use of all kinds of wheel-carriages.

Most of the houses are flat-roofed, or at least have a gallery at top. The roofs are mostly covered with *lavagna*, a stone that very much resembles slate, and in the shelving situation of the city these areas, which are planted with orange-trees, form a kind of penfile gardens, which, though they have nothing wonderful nor extraordinary, have a very agreeable effect.

On the rocks projecting into the sea have been built several bastions, which, in some places, stand two or three behind each other, and the length of these fortifications, with the lower town, is not less than three Italian miles. The number of guns mounted upon all the works for the defence of the city, is little short of five hundred. Towards the land the city is surrounded with a double wall, and the outward, which is the newest, extends beyond the hill, beginning at the fanal, or lighthouse, and terminating at the river Bisagno. The city is ten miles in circumference, and such is the inequality of the country, that it takes up three hours to ride round it; but this wall is of too great an extent to be of any considerable service, unless, perhaps, in keeping out the banditti. The west side of the city is watered by the river Bonzevera, and on the opposite side runs the Bisagno.

The harbour of Genoa is large, but not very safe; however, no care or expence is omitted in improving it, and it has now a mole which extends upwards of seven hundred paces into the sea. On the right hand, near

the light-house, is also a new mole, which projects seven hundred and seventy-four paces, and is defended by huge fragments of rocks. As the sea is here very deep, those works must have been very expensive. In the middle of the harbour, at a place called the Royal Bridge, is a commodious watering-place for ships, the water being conveyed by pipes from the mountains. Within this harbour is the wet-dock for the republic's galleys, the largest of which carries only from sixty to one hundred soldiers, and three hundred and twenty rowers, five or six on a bench.

The Darsena, or wet-dock, abounds with Turkish slaves, who are generally of a furly fierce aspect, to which their long whiskers do not a little contribute. They are dressed in a coarse cloak, with a cowl to it like that of the Capuchins. In the Darsena they are at liberty; but in the city one meets them every where chained in couples, and crying cheese, cotton, cloth, &c. They also keep tippling-houses, and petty shops in the Darsena, their officers giving them all possible encouragement, advancing them small sums, with which, in their trips to Marseilles, Corsica, and other places, they buy all kinds of knick-knacks at a very cheap rate, and make a good market of them at Genoa, where every thing is extremely dear; but the officers come in for a share of the profits. Some of these slaves are furnished with goods to trade with out of the republic's warehouses, part for ready money, and part on credit at a stated price. At night none of them are to be absent from the Darsena; for then they are mustered and locked up.

The rowers on board the galleys generally consist of three classes. The first, indigent people, who sell themselves for a certain term of years. The second, criminals, who have been sentenced to the oar for a limited time, or during life; and the third, Turkish or Barbary prisoners, who, though they should become converts to Christianity, do not recover their freedom; but their godfathers frequently put them in a better way of living, and, upon their good behaviour, give them their liberty.

The light-house is a tower which is ascended by one hundred and sixty-six steps, and stands on the west side of the harbour on a high rock, which is also fortified. Every night, except about the summer solstice, a lantern with thirty-six lamps, is hung out at the top of it, towards the sea; and when a number of ships, or any fleet, is known to be in these seas, an addition is made to the number of lamps, which, at a distance, resemble a single star. Upon descrying a ship from the light-house top, a bullet is hung out, for two ships two bullets, and so on till five. The signal to give notice that a squadron is in sight, is one bullet and a flag.

The only straight and broad streets are the New and the Balbi streets. These entirely consist of magnificent palaces: in the former are those of the families of Doria, Palavicini, Lescari, and Correga, the second story of which opens into fine gardens and orangeries raised on brick-work. The Balbi street is greatly ornamented by the two palaces of the house of Balbi, the Jesuits college, and the Durazzo palace, the best secular building in the whole city. The houses of Genoa are, in general, well built, and painted on the out-side with different orders of architecture, and some of them with landscapes. For the better enjoyment of the cool fresh air, persons of rank frequently live in the third story.

The palace in which the duke resides is almost in the center of the city, and is an old large stone building, with two statues of white marble in the court, erected in honour of Andrew and John Andrew Doria. From the court is an ascent by a white marble staircase, with very low steps, to the great hall, where the doge is elected, and foreign envoys have audiences, which is sixty-six paces in length, and thirty broad. It is very lofty, but the floor is made of plaster; however, the cornices and architraves are finely carved and gilt, and the ducal throne covered with crimson velvet, enriched with gold fringes and tassels. In this stately hall stand six white marble statues of persons by whose liberality the public has been eminently benefited, and on the wall at the two ends, and on the ceiling, are painted six of the republic's principal achievements.

This hall opens into the summer council-chamber, in

which, among many other paintings, is a noble picture by Solimene, of the solemn reception of St. John the Baptist's ashes at Genoa. Near the throne is also represented the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus. Its private chapel is adorned with paintings in fresco of all the saints and celebrated natives of Genoa, among whom is also Christopher Columbus, who was a native of that city.

From the audience hall a narrow passage leads to the arsenal, which is also in the palace, and is said to contain arms for thirty-four thousand men. Among the antient weapons is shown a shield, containing one hundred and twenty pistol barrels, which a person named Julius Cæsar Vacche is said to have made, in order to dispatch, as it were, with one shot, both the doge and his counsellors, when assembled. But the most celebrated curiosity is thirty-three coats of mail belonging to so many Genoese heroines, who are said to have performed a crusade to the Holy Land, in the year 1301; but it is much questioned whether these coats of mail were ever used by women.

Prince Doria's palace and gardens near the harbour are very fine, and afford a most delightful prospect.

In the whole city are reckoned thirty-seven parish churches, twenty collegiate, seventeen convents, and two large hospitals.

The principal curiosity to be seen in the cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Lawrence, is a dish made of a single emerald, said to be one of the queen of Sheba's presents to king Solomon, and the very same in which Christ ate of the Paschal Lamb, at his last supper with his disciples. On the left hand of the entrance of this cathedral is a chapel, where thirty silver lamps are continually burning, and in which they pretend to keep, with extraordinary veneration, the bones of John the Baptist. The altar is supported by four columns of porphyry, and over it is a picture by Vandyke, and it is adorned with a white marble statue of John the Baptist.

St. Ambrose's church belongs to the Jesuits, and is a good structure. Over the great altar is an excellent piece by Rubens, representing the circumcision of Christ, where the emotions of tenderness in a woman standing by, are admirably expressed. The altar is adorned with four large columns of black marble, and the statues of St. Peter and St. Paul of white marble, St. Ignatius performing a miracle by Rubens, on another altar, and the Assumption of the Virgin Mary, give sensible pleasure to the connoisseurs in painting.

The Jesuits college is a very fine building. At the foot of the stairs, next the entrance, are two large lions couchant, of white marble. The court is surrounded with two lofty galleries, both supported by columns of Carrara marble, of which there are an hundred in number.

Near the Jesuits college is St. Ann's church, beautifully decorated with fine stucco, Florentine-work, and marble sculpture, in all which, however, it is surpassed by the church of St. Cyr.

In the way from the piazza Sarsano to the magnificent church of St. Maria Carignan, which stands on an eminence, is a stone bridge, that joins together two hills separated by a deep valley. This bridge consists of one small, and three large, arches, and is between eighty and ninety feet high, fifteen common paces broad, and between one hundred and sixty and one hundred and seventy in length. Under it are dwelling-houses from four to six stories high, and over them is still an open space of ten or twelve feet. The diameter of one of the arches in the street beneath is above thirty common paces; but the extent of the middle arch is still wider. This bridge cannot be seen without astonishment.

In the church of St. Filippo Neri, belonging to the fathers of the Oratory, are some fine paintings and admirable sculptures in marble, and in many places it is lined with a beautiful kind of marble, called Brocatello di Spagna. Every Sunday evening, during the winter, an oratorio, or religious opera, is performed in this church, founded on some scripture history, and is succeeded by a sermon near half an hour long, and then the service concludes with a piece of church music: but in the summer these fathers spend every Sunday in the afternoon at their garden without the city, in which is a beautiful edifice, where they have several kinds of games, as draughts, chess,

chefs and billiards, but cards and dice are not allowed. It is true, they do not play for money; but for *Ave Maria's*, *Pater nosters*, and other prayers; and at the breaking up of a party, the losers kneel before an image of the Virgin Mary, and there, according to their losings, discharge them unto her, or unto God, by *Pater nosters*, &c. In the evening they leave off playing, and an oratorio is performed; next comes a spiritual exhortation, and this medley of levity and religion closes with a solemn piece of music.

St. Stephen's church is worth seeing, on account of its admirable altar-piece of the stoning of St. Stephen, by Julio Romano, in which the rancour and fury of his cruel persecutors are incomparably expressed; and this is allowed to be one of the completest pieces that has appeared since the revival of painting.

In the year 1751, a new academy of painting, sculpture, and civil architecture, was instituted here, under the protection of the council. The chief hospital for the poor of the city of Genoa, stands on an eminence, and at present above 2000 persons, officers and servants included, are maintained in it. On this foundation, likewise, boys are brought up to handicraft trades, and when they have gained sufficient experience in their business, are allowed to go into the world to seek their fortunes. They are employed in weaving, shoe-making, the woollen manufactory, and other trades required to support such an hospital.

Little of the beauty of the fair sex is seen at Genoa, their blooming years being mostly spent in the recluseness of a nunnery. The married ladies are generally dressed in black silk or velvet, the liberty of choosing what colours they please expiring with the first year of their marriage.

It seems but little to agree with the reservedness and modesty of that sex, that most of the married ladies of distinction in this city are every where attended by a gentleman called a *cizisbeo*, who walks before their chair in the streets, and at coming into the church, holds the holy water to them, and, like a lover, does all the little arts of complaisance. Some ladies, not satisfied with one such obsequious dangler, admit several, who have their distinct offices; one attends the lady when she goes abroad; another provides for the table; another has the management of diversions and parties of pleasure; a fourth is even consulted about receipts and disbursements of money. Indeed both the beauty and wit of the lady are commonly rated according to the number of these votaries. They all pass under the denomination of Platonic lovers, and indeed, says Mr. Keysser, one would almost imagine that the husbands had nothing to fear from all these familiarities; for the Genoese being true Italians in point of jealousy, cannot be ignorant how far these intimacies may be carried, as they, in their turn, are *cizisbei* to other married ladies. Nor is this piece of gallantry confined to the young women only; for ladies advanced in years pique themselves much on having their *cizisbeo*. Strange as this custom is, it is not peculiar to the Genoese: we have given an account of one very like it at Vienna, from the travels of the Lady Wortley Montague. However, this custom is merely arbitrary at Genoa; custom does not oblige them to observe it, and it now seems to be in some measure on the decline.

At the funerals of single persons a kind of garland, decked with all sorts of white artificial flowers, is placed upon the coffin. When a person of distinction is buried, the religious fraternities walk in the procession with their white hoods drawn over their faces, carrying flambeaux in their hands, which they hold horizontally, that poor boys may earn a few pence by catching the wax on paper as it drops off. This intention is doubtless humane, but the number of ragged boys thus mingling with the procession, are no great ornament to the solemnity.

The inns of Genoa afford but an indifferent entertainment, and care ought always to be taken to agree for every thing before-hand. Their houses are furnished with wine from the republic's vaults, in sealed bottles, yet the wine is none of the best; and as all the landlord's profit arises from the empty bottles, he takes care to make it up in other articles. Besides this monopoly of

wine, which all who have none of their own growth must buy of the republic, it is the state only that deals in corn, none being sold in any market, but all bakers must apply for it to the public granaries.

S E C T. XVI.

The Island of CORSICA.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, History, and Inhabitants, with a concise Description of the City of Bastia.

CORSICA lies opposite to the Genoese coast, between the gulf of Genoa and the island of Sardinia; between the forty-first and forty-third degree of north latitude, and the eighth and tenth degree of east longitude. According to Bellin, it extends eighty-eight English miles in length, and forty in breadth. The island being for the most part mountainous, has little arable land, so that the principal fruitful parts are the plains and valleys, which produce corn, wine, figs, and other fruit, with plenty of olive oil and honey, wax, and other necessaries; but the honey is said to be bitterish, from the bees haunting the yew trees, great numbers of which are in the island. Here is also a considerable breed of cattle, and among the mountains very furious and untractable wild horses. The county of Nebio has alum and iron. Some of the deep valleys between the summits of the mountain are continually covered with snow, and yet in them are found salt-works, sulphureous hot baths, and beautiful crystals; and along the shore towards the Sardinian side, is a very fine coral fishery.

The chief rivers are the Guolo, or Gollo, the Tavignano, and the Talavo.

The unwholesomeness of the air is an invincible obstacle to the populousness of the island, as appears from a calculation made in 1736, by Baron Theodore, according to which the inhabitants amounted to no more than 120,000. In the beginning of the present century, 600 Greeks flying out of the Morea, on account of the exactions and rapine of the Turks, the republic granted them all the country between the bay of Sagona and Ajaccio, where they built handsome villages, and during the disturbances in this island, have given proofs of a firm attachment to the republic.

Corfica was anciently a small kingdom inhabited by the Saracens, but in the year 806 was conquered by the Genoese, who drove them out of it. In the eleventh century the island was taken from them by the Pisanese, but was afterwards recovered. In 1453, the revenues and government of the island were assigned to the bank of St. George, the directors of which, in 1465, ceded it to the duke of Milan; but the Genoese being unwilling to acknowledge his sovereignty, the island again fell to the bank of St. George. In 1553, the French seized upon the greatest part of it, but five years after restored it to the republic.

In 1564 the Corsicans revolted from the republic of Genoa, and, though reduced to obedience in 1569, still harboured in their breast an implacable resentment and hatred against the Genoese, for their rigorous treatment, in divesting their most eminent families of the privileges of nobility: excluding them from all ecclesiastical and military employments, prohibiting the natives in general all manner of trade, under-rating the best commodities, while they exacted an exorbitant price for any necessities sold them; in short, oppressing them with heavy taxes; all these evils being aggravated by the haughtiness and avarice of the republic's officers, the Genoese yoke became insupportable. Some disturbances which broke out in 1726, were soon quelled; but in 1729, a new tax being laid on the Corsicans, they absolutely refused to pay, requiring the republic to permit them to make their own salt, instead of buying it at Genoa at an exorbitant price. Upon this, Pinello the governor not only rejected their petition, but had recourse to violent measures for compelling them to pay the tax. This made them openly run to arms in their own defence, but in 1731 and 1732 tranquillity was restored by means of a body of imperial auxiliaries, and the next year, by the emperor's mediation, the republic

republic made some abatement in their demands on the Corsicans. However, the imperial troops had scarce quitted the island, when the commotions broke out again. In 1735, the malcontents formed a plan for a new and independent form of government, and the next year proclaimed baron Theodore Van Neuhoff, a native of Westphalia, who had brought them some military stores, their king, and he established certain fundamental laws for this new government.

The coronation of this monarch was performed with a laurel crown, on which occasion he caused medals to be struck, and on the sixteenth of September instituted an order of knighthood, by the title of the order of Deliverance. On the fourteenth of November he left Corsica, in order to solicit foreign assistance, and in 1738, returned with three ships full of military stores; but soon went again to solicit more assistance. The same year a body of auxiliaries being sent to the republic, in a great measure quieted the island: but on their leaving it in 1741, the animosities against the Genoese began again to blaze out, and in 1743 were heightened by Theodore's second return with assistance from England. His stay was then also but short; he left Corsica, and never more returned. In this and the following year there seemed an appearance of peace; and though the English fleet bombarded Bastia in 1745, and the malcontents got possession of the city, yet they soon lost it again, and have now to contend with a body of fresh succours which the republic has obtained from France. As to Theodore their king, after coming to London to raise money and friends for supporting his claim, he was several years confined in the King's Bench prison for debt, where he at length died, and a monument has been erected by some gentlemen to the memory of that unhappy nominal monarch.

In open ground the Corsicans are said not to be a match for regular troops; but in the mountains, where they generally keep, they have the advantage, and from time to time make successful sallies.

The clergy are very numerous, and are said to encourage a spirit of discontent among the people; a priest or monk having often been seen armed at the head of a body of Corsicans. It is computed that the Franciscans, Capuchines, and Servites, have no less than seventy-five convents in the island.

Corsica is divided into two large parts, the country on this side the mountains, on the north-east part, to which belong thirty pievi, or districts; and the country beyond the mountains, or the south-west part, which contains only eight districts.

Bastia is the capital of the whole island, and is seated in the division on this side the mountains, in the forty-second deg. twenty minutes north latitude, and in the ninth deg. forty minutes east longitude. It is the see of a bishop, and the residence of the Genoese governor. It lies on the sea, and has a good harbour, defended by a castle. The malcontents of Corsica have made several attempts on this city, which is at present defended by a French garrison. In this city is an academy of fine arts. In 1745, as has been already mentioned, it was bombarded by the English, and very much damaged, but after taking it, it was given to the Corsicans; yet they were again driven out of it, and, in 1748, it was besieged by the Austrians and Piedmontese, but made such a vigorous defence, that the besiegers were obliged to decamp.

SECT. XVII.

The Republic of LUCCA.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Government; with a particular Description of the City of Lucca.

THE territories of this small republic lie on that part of the Mediterranean called the Tuscan Sea, and on the land side are chiefly bounded by the Tuscan dominions, a part only terminating on the duchy of Modena. This little country, which is only about thirty Italian miles in circumference, is exceeding fruitful and well cultivated; for the fertility of the soil and the mildness of the government have been such attractive inducements for settling there, that the inhabitants of the city, and the

hundred and fifty villages belonging to it, are computed at upwards of one hundred and twenty thousand, of whom between twenty and thirty thousand are able, on occasion, to bear arms.

Though this country is mountainous, it produces plenty of almost every thing but corn, of which they generally reap only as much as serves them half a year; and the rest they have from abroad. They have a sufficient quantity of rice, pulse, beans, lupins, and fine chestnuts, which the common people use instead of bread; with a variety of other fruits, and have plenty of wine: they likewise exceed all other countries in their olives, and the oil drawn from them. All corn is engrossed and sold by the state, distributing it to the bakers, who sell it to the public: in short, the industry of the people in improving every spot of ground is equally surprising and commendable, and the inhabitants appear with an air of cheerfulness and plenty, seldom to be found among those of the neighbouring country. The vicinity of the grand duchy of Tuscany keeps them constantly on their guard, in order to preserve their freedom, on which account the protection of some foreign power is absolutely necessary. In such a situation an universal concord and harmony can alone enable them to transmit to posterity the blessings of their darling LIBERTY, whose name they bear on their arms, and whose image is not only impressed on their coin, but also on the city gates, and all their public buildings.

The city of Lucca was anciently a Roman colony; afterwards it was comprized in the dominions of the kings of the Franks, and from them the emperors of Germany claimed its sovereignty. At the long interregnum the inhabitants formed the project of independency, which they carried on privately till the reign of the emperor Charles IV. when they openly detached themselves from the empire, and obtained the protection of Spain.

The principal person in the state is the gonfaloniere, which signifies a standard-bearer, and was formerly the title of the sovereigns of Florence. He is dressed in a robe of crimson velvet, with a bonnet and stole. His power resembles that of the doge of Venice and Genoa, but he is stiled only his Excellency. With him are joined nine counsellors, called anziani, or elders. These ten persons, who bear the title of eccellentissimi, while in the administration, live in the republic's palace, where their expences are defrayed at the charge of the state; but when they go abroad on their own private concerns, it must be incognito, and in a close sedan, with the curtains drawn. These are changed every two months, which, Mr. Addison observes, is the greatest security to their liberty, and in a surprising manner contributes to the quick dispatch of all public affairs; but in any remarkable exigence of state, he adds, it certainly requires a much longer time to conduct any great design calculated for the good of the commonwealth, to its maturity and perfection. The gonfaloniere and the nine anziani are chosen out of the great council, which is composed of two hundred and forty nobles, one half of whom forms the ordinary council, and the other the extraordinary; but both, once in two years, are changed by a new election.

The title of the state is the Most Serene Republic of Lucca. Its arms are azure, with the word LIBERTAS or, between two frets of or. The ordinary revenue of the republic is about four hundred thousand scudi, or about eighty thousand pounds sterling. It maintains a regular body of five hundred men, and seventy Swiss as a guard for the gonfaloniere and the nine regent counsellors.

The city of Lucca, the residence of the government, is situated in the forty-third deg. fifty-two minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh deg. twenty-seven minutes east longitude, in a most delightful plain of fifteen or twenty miles in extent, terminating in eminences, diversified with villages, seats, summer-houses, vineyards, meadows, and corn fields. Every thing that can contribute to use and pleasure is here in great plenty. The city is regularly fortified with eleven bastions faced with brick, and is about three Italian miles in compass; the ramparts are very wide, where is a delightful walk for the citizens, under the trees planted on them. The inhabitants amount to somewhat more than forty thousand,

among whom are great numbers of artizans and manufacturers, who carry on a considerable trade, particularly in silk goods. The houses are handsome, the streets broad and well paved, but most of them irregular.

The state-palace is a large building, and includes the arsenal, which contains arms for twenty thousand men. The cathedral is a Gothic structure, which has some admirable paintings, and in the vestry are eight large silver busts, and a golden crucifix of most exquisite workmanship, there being no less than twenty-four images upon it. This crucifix is said to have been pledged by the Pisans for twenty-four thousand scudi, for a limited term; but as they deferred redeeming it till the last day, and then came too late, the gates of Lucca were shut against them. The chief relic in this church is the *volto santo*, a wooden crucifix, which they believe was carved by the disciple Nicodemus, and is very different from the others, the body being covered either with a robe of velvet or damask, embroidered with gold, and on the head, instead of a wreath of thorns, is a gold crown glittering with jewels. It has several silver lamps continually burning before it, and stands in a chapel adorned with columns of porphyry and marble, where it daily receives the most profound adoration of the people, and, as a farther mark of the city's veneration, the impression of it is struck on their coin.

The see of Lucca, like some others, is under the immediate jurisdiction of the pope, which intitles the bishop to a pallium and cross, like an archbishop, and on public solemnities, the canons are dressed like cardinals.

On the high altar of the church of St. Maria Corto Landini, is the assumption of the Virgin Mary by Guido Rheni; on each side are some other pieces by the same hand. Another altar exhibits the Virgin Mary in the clouds, and two persons kneeling before her, with a Latin inscription to this purpose, "May our sins be covered by her snow-like innocence." The roof of this church is covered with fine painting in fresco and gilding, and its altars are adorned with excellent pieces of sculpture in marble.

In St. Augustine's church is an image of the Virgin Mary, with an infant Jesus on her left arm, under which is an inscription in Latin to the following purport:

"This image of the Mother of God, which formerly stood to be adored without the church of St. Augustine, being struck with a stone from the hand of an impious gamester, is famous for the wonderful effusion of blood which followed: she received the blow herself; and, to save her infant son, miraculously moved him from the right to the left arm. It is likewise terrible for having caused the earth to open, and through the chasm sending this monster of impiety quick into hell. The most illustrious and reverend canons of the Vatican, as a token of their veneration for this three-fold miracle, caused a golden crown to be placed on this image in the year 1690."

Without the church is shewn both the place where this fellow was at play, and where the image stood in the church wall; but it is now placed in a particular chapel, where is also seen the stone fastened to an iron ring, and the opening of the earth, which the vulgar believe to be bottomless, and to terminate perpendicularly in hell, but is too narrow to receive a man of any bulk: however, it has an iron cover fastened with two iron bolts, and near the image is this inscription:

"To efface his crime the Virgin pours forth streams of blood; but the impious wretch dies ignorant of her goodness and clemency."

In the center of one of the squares of this city, is a white marble statue of the Virgin Mary upon a high pillar.

The skill and industry of the inhabitants in their silk and other manufactures have gained this city the honourable surname of the Industrious. Here are seen more young women in the streets, shops, churches, and schools, than in any other part of Italy. The police is very commendable, and great attention is shewn to the suppression of luxury, superfluous magnificence, and such dissipations, as often prove destructive to families where no such restraints take place. At entering the city, travellers must deliver up their fire-arms; but on informing the guard at what gate they intend to go out, when they

leave the city, they are sure to find them there: they are likewise allowed to wear their swords three days, but afterwards must have a particular licence, which is generally granted only to persons of high rank, and to the knights of Malta and St. Stephen. No commoner, though he be one of the council, must appear with a sword, and no soldier without one.

Travellers are always welcomed here with an evening serenade; but this is accompanied with an humble intimation that they would be pleased to make some return for the honour done them.

S E C T. XVIII.

The Republic of St. MARINO.

Its Situation, History, and Government.

THIS small state is inclosed by Romagna and Urbino, and consists of a very high craggy mountain, with some eminences lying at its foot. The town, the seat of this republic, is seated on the summit of this lofty mountain, where it is generally hid among the clouds, and the streets are sometimes covered with snow, when it is clear and warm weather in all the country around. There is said to be neither spring nor rivulet in the whole dominion; but the people are well provided with large cisterns and reservoirs of rain and snow water. The wine that grows on the sides of their mountain is extremely good, and much better than any on the cold side of the Appenines, and their cellars have a natural advantage that renders them extremely cool in the hottest seasons; for they have generally in the sides of them deep holes that run into the hollows of the hill, whence there constantly issues a breathing kind of vapours, so very chilling in the summer time, that a man can scarce suffer his hand in the wind of them.

They have three castles, five churches, and three convents, and reckon about five thousand persons in their community. Both the inhabitants and the historians who mention this little republic, give the following account of its origin. St. Marino, by birth a Dalmatian, and by trade a mason, was employed above one thousand three hundred years ago, in the reparation of Rimini, and after he had finished his work, retired to this solitary mountain, as finding it very proper for the life of a hermit, which he led in the greatest rigours and austerities of religion. He had not been here long before he wrought a reputed miracle, which, joined with his extraordinary sanctity, gained him such esteem, that the princess of the country made him a present of the mountain, to dispose of at his own discretion. His reputation quickly peopled it, and gave rise to the republic which calls itself after his name; so that the commonwealth of St. Marino may boast at least a nobler origin than that of Rome; the one having been at first an asylum for robbers and murderers, and the other the resort of persons eminent for their piety. To this saint the best of their churches is dedicated, and there his ashes are deposited. His statue stands over the high altar, holding in its hands a mountain crowned with three castles, which are also the arms of the commonwealth. To his protection they attribute the long duration of their state, and consider him as the greatest saint next the blessed Virgin; and so high is their veneration for him, that, by a law in their statute-book, such as speak disrespectfully of him are to be punished in the same manner as those who are convicted of blasphemy.

This inconsiderable republic has lasted one thousand three hundred years, in which time all the other states of Italy have frequently changed their masters and forms of government. Their whole history is comprised in two purchases made of a neighbouring prince, and in a war, in which they assisted the pope against the lord of Rimini. In the year 1100 they bought a castle in the neighbourhood, and another in the year 1170. The papers of the conditions are preserved in their archives, and it is very remarkable that the name of the agent for the commonwealth, of the seller, of the notary and the witnesses, are the same in both the instruments, though drawn up at seventy years distance from each other, which cannot proceed from a mistake in the date, because the names of

the popes and emperors, with the year of their respective reigns, are set down in both.

About two hundred and ninety years after this, they assisted pope Pius II. against Malatesta lord of Rimini, and having helped to conquer him, received from the pope, as a reward for their assistance, four little castles. This they represent as the flourishing time of the commonwealth, when their dominions reached half-way up a neighbouring hill; however, they are now reduced to their antient limits: but were they to be attacked, they would probably sell their liberty as dear as possible; for there is but one road to climb up to them, and they have a very severe law against any of their own people that enters the town by another path, lest a new one should be worn out on the sides of their mountain; and all who are capable of bearing arms are exercised, and ready at a moment's call.

The government of this commonwealth was originally lodged in what they termed the arengo, a great council, in which every house had its representative: but finding great confusion arise from such a multitude of statesmen, they devolved their whole authority into the hands of the council of sixty. The arengo, however, is still called together in cases of extraordinary importance, and if, after due summons, any member is absent, he is to be fined to the value of about a penny English, which the statute says he shall pay without any diminution or favour. In the ordinary course of government, the council of sixty, which, notwithstanding the name, consists but of forty persons, has the administration of affairs. They are made up half out of the noble families, and half out of the commoners, but are not admitted till they are twenty-five years of age. These decide every thing by balloting, and chuse the officers of the commonwealth. They thus far agree with the great council of Venice, but enjoy a much more extensive power; for no sentence can stand that is not confirmed by two-thirds of this council, into which no person can be admitted during the life of his father, nor two be in it of the same family, nor any one enter but by election.

The principal officers of the commonwealth are the two capitaneos, whose power resembles that of the old

Roman consuls; but they are chosen every six months. Some have served this office six or seven times, but the same person never enjoys it twice successively.

The third officer is a commissary, who judges in all civil and criminal affairs; but as the many alliances, intermarriages, and friendships, and also personal feuds and animosities, might, in so small a state, obstruct the course of justice, if this office was in the hands of one of their own number, the commissary is always a foreigner, who is chosen for three years, and maintained out of the public stock. He must be a doctor of law, and a man of known integrity; he is joined in commission with the capitaneos, and acts much in the same manner as the recorder of London under the lord mayor.

The fourth man in the state is the physician, who must also be a stranger: he is maintained at the public expence, and is obliged to keep a horse to visit the sick, and to inspect all the drugs that are imported. He must be at least thirty-five years of age, a doctor of the faculty, and eminent for his honesty and piety, that the commonwealth may not be depopulated by his rashness or ignorance; and that they may not suffer long under a bad choice, he is elected only for three years.

Another person, who makes no ordinary figure, is the school-master, and there are scarce any persons in the place who have not some tincture of learning.

The statutes of the republic are printed in one volume in folio, and in the chapter on the public ministers it is said, that when an ambassador is dispatched from the republic to any foreign state, he shall be allowed, out of the treasury, to the value of a shilling a day.

In short, says Mr. Addison, who took a journey on purpose to visit this little republic, and from whom we have borrowed this account, these people are esteemed very honest and rigorous in the execution of justice, and seem to enjoy more content and happiness among their rocks and snows, than the other Italians in the pleasantest vallies in the world. Indeed nothing can be a greater instance of the natural love of mankind for liberty, and of their aversion to arbitrary government, than such a savage mountain covered with people, while, in the same country, the Campania of Rome is almost destitute of inhabitants.

C H A P. XXIV.

Of the Middle Part of ITALY, containing the Grand Duchy of TUSCANY and the Dominions of the Pope.

S E C T. I.

Of TUSCANY in general.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, hot Springs, and Rivers. Its History, the Arms of the Great Duke, his Forces and principal Officers, with the Divisions of the Country.

IN the middle part of Italy is generally included the little republic of St. Marino, and some authors also include in it the republic of Lucca; but as we chose to place all the four republics of Italy together, we have given these in the two concluding sections of the last chapter, and shall now, in this middle part, consider two grand divisions, which will contain abundant matter to gratify the curiosity of the lover of antiquities and of the polite arts, the noblest productions of statuary, painting, and architecture, both antient and modern. But all the wealth of these countries is deposited in the palaces of princes, and in churches and convents; while the people are poor, some of the richest lands in the world uncultivated, and trade in many parts neglected, for want of the specie necessary to give life to commerce.

The grand duchy of Tuscany borders on the Mediterranean, which here receives its name from this duchy, and is called the Tuscan Sea; it is also bounded by the Ecclesiastical State, the duchy of Modena, and the republic of Lucca. Some small detached parts of this duchy also lie among the territories of Modena, Lucca, and Genoa. These last excepted, it extends from north to south one hundred and sixteen miles, and from east to west eighty.

The great variety of hills and vallies, rising grounds and plains, render the country very pleasant. The soil, which is extremely fertile, abounds in corn, oranges, lemons, and all the other sorts of fruit known in Europe, besides oil and excellent wine. The oil, however, bears little proportion to the multitude of olive-trees, which are subject to a distemper, that shews itself in knots and tubercles, occasioned by worms. Of the wines a kind of white, called la Verdec, is particularly esteemed, and the greatest part is said to be sent to England. The pastures here are also very rich.

The air of several places in this duchy is unhealthy, on account of the many fens and wild desert places. The

salt

salt pits are in a thriving condition, veins of salt running under the strata of alabaster. Here are also found sulphur and Chalcedony, amethysts, fine jaspers, beautiful marble, and cornelians, lapis-lazuli, borax, and black slate for tables, crystals, alum, stone, iron ore, quicksilver, and in Calabria manna is gathered from the ash and elm. It oozes out on the taking off the rind, and consequently is not a production of the air but of the tree. The bees carry off a great deal of it, the remainder is applied in Tuscany to medicinal uses, and in France to giving a gloss to cloth.

At the foot of Mount St. Giuliano, on the borders of the territory of Lucca, are several hot springs, which have been mentioned by Pliny, and are still in high vogue, great numbers having experienced their salubrious effects. They are not properly sulphureous, and the taste is pleasant, like good spring-water. The degree of heat is not the same in all the springs; but at Acqua it is forty-nine degrees by Fahrenheit's thermometer. Close by these springs are others quite cold. At Vicasio the bath is but just luke-warm; but that at Morba has a heat of one hundred and four degrees by Fahrenheit's thermometer. The Lagoni at Monte Cerboli have a vehement ebullition, attended with a great noise, and contain sulphur, alum, vitriol, and salt: the heat much exceeds that of boiling water. Here is crystallized sulphur, a new and uncommon species of crystal. Another spring in this part of the country has one hundred and sixty degrees of heat, with a sulphureous smell, and is used to bathe in. In the baths de la Galeria are both cold and warm sulphureous springs, with petroleum floating on the surface. Besides these there are several others.

The principal river in this country is the Arno, which rises in the Appennine mountains in the territory of Florence, and after receiving the Sieva, Pesa, and Elsa, falls below Pisa into the sea. The Ombrone has its source in the territories of Sienna, through which it runs into the sea.

This country was called Etruria, or Tuscia, from its ancient inhabitants the Etrurii or Tuscani; though the present duchy does not comprehend all the ancient Etruria. In the ancient republic of Florence, the family of Medicis acquired by commercial arts the wealth and grandeur of princes, whence king Henry II. of France chose his consort the famous Catharine out of this family. The emperor Charles V. in 1531, created Alexander Medicis duke of Florence, and afterwards gave him Margaret his natural daughter in marriage. Cosmo I. the successor of Alexander, was, in 1569, declared great duke of Florence, by pope Pius V. which was ratified by the emperor, on condition of his holding it as a fief of the empire; and in 1699 the emperor conferred on the great duke the title of royal highness.

John Gaston, the last great duke, having no heirs, it was stipulated by the quadruple alliance in 1718, that the duchy should for ever be acknowledged a fief of the Roman empire, and that with the consent of the Germanic body, the emperor should confer it on the king of Spain's eldest son by the second marriage, from him to devolve to his male descendants; but that Leghorn was always to remain a free port. This was confirmed by several succeeding treaties; but a war breaking out in 1733, in which the emperor lost the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, Don Carlos, who had been brought up at the great duke's court, caused himself to be proclaimed king, and at the peace of 1736 retained the possession of these kingdoms. On the other hand it was stipulated, that after the demise of the present possessor, Tuscany was to devolve to the house of Lorraine in lieu of that duchy, which was to be resigned to king Stanislaus. This took place in 1737, and soon after the duke of Lorraine and the great duke of Tuscany made an agreement with the princess dowager Palatine, sister to the late great duke, concerning the moveable parts of the succession, by virtue of which she transferred to the duke the vast treasure of jewels, statues, paintings, and other curiosities, of which particular mention will be made in treating of Florence.

The arms of the great duke are, or, six globes gules, with the lilies of France in the uppermost. The shield is surmounted by a regal crown, in which is a full red

lily. The helmet is also crowned, and the crest is a bird holding in his right talons a ring, from which hangs a label, whereon the word SEMPER is written.

There is here an order of knighthood called the order of St. Stephen, instituted by Cosmo I. in 1554. Its privileges are very like those of the order of Malta. The great duke is always grand master, and the chief residence of the knights is at Pisa, in treating of which city, we shall give a more particular account of that order.

The ordinary revenue of the grand duke is computed at about three millions of piastres per annum. In 1753 the military force of this duchy was settled at three regiments of foot, and one of dragoons of 500 men; but in 1755, another regiment of dragoons was raised, and the militia was formed into regiments. However, this duchy is said to be able, in case of necessity, to bring into the field 30,000 men, and to fit out twenty ships of war, twelve gallies, and some galleasses.

The chief officer of this duchy is a governor appointed by the emperor as grand duke. He resides at Florence, where is also a council of regency, the military board, and other state offices.

The countries of which this great duchy is composed, are the following; the territories of Florence, Pisa, and Sienna, with the states of Presidii and Piombino.

S E C T. II.

The FLORENTINO, or Territory of FLORENCE.

Its Situation, Produce, and the Manner in which its ancient Inhabitants lost their Liberty; with a particular Description of the City of Florence, and the Manners of the Inhabitants.

THIS is the most considerable part of the duchy of Tuscany, both for extent and opulence. It is divided in the middle by the river Arno, and is bounded on the north by the Bolognese and Romania, on the east by the Ecclesiastical State, on the south by the Siennese, and on the west by Pisa and the republic of Lucca.

The territory of Florence is well cultivated and populous, and justly esteemed an excellent country. The environs of the city of Florence are particularly delightful, from the variety of the well cultivated hills and dales; and in the neighbourhood of that city is a kind of white marble, and a sort of slate, which, when polished, represents an infinite variety of brown and yellow figures, and by a little help of the imagination, seems to represent trees, landscapes, the ruins of castles, and several other agreeable objects.

Anciently the city of Florence, with its district, formed a republic, for which the inhabitants obtained a licence from the emperor Rodolphus for sixty thousand guilders; but its aristocratical government was filled with apprehensions and jealousies from the increasing grandeur of the family of Medicis. In the war between the emperor Charles V. and pope Clement VII. the government had the misfortune to offend the former, and upon the conclusion of the peace in 1530, the emperor marched his army into the city, and having abolished the republican constitution, nominated Alexander de Medicis duke, prescribing him a model of government, and pardoning the city, on condition that, for the future, it should pay obedience to the emperor, and the sovereigns appointed over it.

The principal city is Florence, in Italian Fiorenza, the capital of the grand duchy, delightfully situated between mountains covered with olive trees, vines, farms, seats, and villages, in the four hundred and thirty-ninth degree forty-two minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree forty-seven minutes east longitude. It is divided into two unequal parts by the Arno, which, with its four stone bridges, adds to the beautiful appearance of the city. With respect to curiosities worthy the notice of a traveller, it is, next to Rome, the principal city in all Italy. The Florentines pride themselves so much in its elegance, that they imagine nothing equals it. The streets are indeed clean, and paved with very broad

broad stones, but most of them are narrow and crooked, and many of them have scarce room for a carriage to pass. The number of houses amount to about 9000, and among them are some magnificent stone buildings; but their palaces are not so numerous as to claim a superiority over those of Turin, Genoa, and Rome. The paper windows, which, after the Italian manner, are every where seen, are no small diminution to the beauty of the city, which is generally reckoned to contain seventeen market places, seven fountains, six columns, two pyramids, 160 public statues, forty-four parish churches, twelve priories, fifty-four convents, twenty-four ecclesiastical fraternities, and thirty-seven hospitals and charitable foundations. The number of inhabitants is computed at 70,000.

The pronunciation of the Italian here, differs much from that in other places, the *r* being changed by them into *h*; for instance, they say *hosa*, instead of *cosa*; and their accent is so guttural, that they are called the Italian Swifs. However, they write much better, having, for the improvement of the Tuscan tongue, a celebrated society of learned men, who stile themselves *Accademia Della Crusca*. Since the year 1738, a riding academy was erected, and since 1753, an academy of agriculture, consisting of a hundred members. The greatest trade of the city consists in its woollen and silk stuffs, and even the nobility not only trade as merchants, but keep shops. A faint shadow of the ancient republic still remains among the nobility, some of whom are are stiled senators, though they in reality constitute nothing more than a magistracy.

From this general view of the city, we now come to its curiosities, of which we shall treat in their proper order.

The great dukes formerly resided at the Palazzo Vecchio, or the Old Palace, which faces a large market called la Piazza del Gran-Duca. At the entrance is a marble statue of Hercules killing Cacus, both bigger than the life, by Baccio Bandinelli; opposite to which, by way of contrast, is David triumphing over Goliath, by Michael Angelo. In the middle of the court is a porphyry fountain, with a boy grasping a fish, in bronze, and another statue of Hercules killing Cacus. There is a hall in the palace one hundred and seventy-two feet long, and seventy-four broad; but it is too dark: however, on account of its spaciousness, it is used for homage ceremonies, and for the dances on St. John's day, which are annually performed by a company of peasants of both sexes, when the ducal family are generally present, and the duke distributes the appointed prizes to the best dancers. On the ceiling and walls of this room are painted in fresco, the most remarkable achievements of the republic of Florence. A traveller ought not to omit observing the marble statues of several dukes, and two popes, who were of the house of Medicis. Here is likewise a most admirable statue of Victory, with a prisoner at her feet, by Michael Angelo. Here are also six excellent marble groups, by Vincenzo Rossi, representing six of the exploits of Hercules; his dashing Anteus against a rock, his killing the Centaur, his throwing Diomedes to wild horses, his carrying a terrible wild bear alive upon his shoulders, his helping Atlas to bear up the sky, and his victory over the queen of the Amazons.

In the Old Palace is the duke's wardrobe, in which are ten or twelve large closets full of plate, great part of which is finely chased and set with jewels. Here are also abundance of Turkish arms and bridles profusely enriched with jewels, and in a particular closet is shewn the crown with which pope Pius V. in 1569, crowned Cosmo I. as first great duke of Florence. It is made of gold, and adorned with a great number of jewels. But what is esteemed most valuable, is the palliotto, or altar cloth, covered with pearls, rubies, and other stones; among the rest, two gems called aqua marina, in size equal to a large walnut, are said to be of inestimable value. On both sides the arms of Austria and Florence are joined together, and in the middle of the palliotto Cosmo II. is represented in an embossed work of gems and enamel, and his robe is richly set with diamonds.

On the altar or table before which he kneels, is a crown entirely covered with diamonds.

Near the Old Palace under the Loggia, commonly called de Lanzi, are three fine statues, the first of Judith with Holofernes at her feet, of bronze; another, of the same metal, representing Perseus with Medusa's head: the third piece, where admiration can never be satisfied, is a group representing a young warlike Roman carrying off a Sabine virgin; he is transported with joy on account of his booty, while her father lies prostrate on the ground, with looks full of the most passionate grief and rage. The rape of the Sabines is expressed in basso relievo on the pedestal, and the performance of this piece does great honour to Giovanni Bologna.

In the square before the Palazzo Vecchio, is a very grand fountain, adorned with shells, cornucopias, tritons, and four other sea-gods of brass, of a very large size; and in the center is Neptune drawn in a large shell, resembling a triumphal car, by four horses, two of which are of brass, and the other two of white marble.

In this square is likewise the Fabrica degli Uffici, on the ground-floor of which the principal magistrates of the city live together, for the better maintenance of the public tranquility, and the more speedy dispatch of business. The first story is filled with artists employed for the duke's wardrobe and gallery, particularly in Florentine works, where nature and painting are surprisingly imitated by the proper arrangement of sparks of gems, and bits of the finest marble inlaid. This place is distinguished by the name of il Scrittorio, and though the artists chiefly work for the duke, yet the most industrious find time to make toys to dispose of to foreigners, which are sold at a great price.

The uppermost story of this structure contains the famous gallery, in which perhaps are the noblest collection of curiosities that are to be met with in any part of the world. In its form it resembles the Greek Π ; the ceiling is covered with paintings representing the arts and sciences, the most eminent personages of the city of Florence, and historical pieces. The walls on each side are hung with portraits of the most illustrious persons of the house of Medicis, and over these, on the entablature, are small portraits of generals, ministers of state, and princes; and opposite to them the busts of learned men, among which is that of the great Sir Isaac Newton. The vast number of statues is really amazing: among these is Narcissus stooping to view himself in a well of Parian marble, an excellent performance; Bacchus, with a goblet in his left hand, leaning upon a Faunus, who is kneeling before him; and near this antique stands a Bacchus of Michael Angelo, being a copy of the former. Bacchus riding upon a tyger, both of bronze, is justly reckoned one of the most remarkable pieces here; but the feet are wanting. The pedestal on which it stands is the work of Guiberti, and on one side of it is represented, in basso relievo, the story of Ariadne, and on another a sacrifice to Bacchus. Morpheus is here represented in the shape of a sleeping boy, in touchstone; probably the blackness of this stone, which was always used for the statues of sleep, as Mr. Addison observes, alludes to the darkness of the night, the proper season for rest. Farther in the gallery are to be seen Mars and Venus, Cupid and Psyche, several Ganymedes, Marsyas, a philosopher, a Venus sitting and drawing a thorn out of her foot; Venus Urian; Venus persuading Mars to stay with her, and Apollo with Faunus; Flora; a vestal, with the holy fire burning before her, &c. Among the busts or heads, the most curious are those of Alexander the Great, three times bigger than the life, and Agrippa, Caligula, and Otho; the busts of Antinous, Nerva, Aelius Verus, Caracalla, Pertinax, and several others, in fine alabaster. Among these pieces is also a bronze head of Michael Angelo, done by himself.

Out of the gallery you enter several cabinets full of curiosities, which are well worth seeing. In the first are above an hundred and twenty portraits of celebrated painters, most of them done by the persons they are designed for, and all in gilt frames, with the names over each of them; among these is Sir Godfrey Kneller. In the

The middle of the chamber stands the statue of Cardinal Leopold de Medicis, of white marble. He was a great encourager of arts and sciences, particularly of painting.

The next cabinet contains a noble collection of large porcelain vases, &c. There is also shewn in this apartment a large table, on which is represented birds, flowers, fruit, and festoons, in excellent Florentine work: twenty-five persons were employed thirteen years in performing this curious piece. The artificial curiosities of ebony in another cabinet is the more extraordinary, on account of their variety of sculpture, it being extremely difficult to carve it with any degree of nicety, on account of its splitting. The largest of these ebony works represents a palace with several gates. The chief Scripture histories are exquisitely painted on gems by Bruggel. In the next chamber is to be seen the anatomy of a human head in wax, and also the gradual petrification of the body, till at last it terminates in a bare skeleton. These were performed by a Sicilian ecclesiastic, and Mr. Keyser observes, that however disagreeable such a spectacle may be to timorous self-love, the execution is so natural and delicate, that a person is never tired with viewing it. The same admirable artist has in the same manner exhibited the various stages and effects of the plague.

In another chamber is a large collection of mathematical instruments. Among the optical rarities are several heads and trophies of standards, colours, spears, &c. painted on a table, which when viewed through a glass in a tube, exhibit the picture of the present duke's grandfather.

On entering the Tribuna, the eye is immediately struck with six marble statues standing in the center, among which is the celebrated statue called the Venus de Medicis, which has been unanimously esteemed to surpass not only all the statues in Florence, but any piece of sculpture throughout the whole world. The inscription on the base shews it to be the work of Cleomenes, an Athenian, the son of Apollodorus. This incomparable statue stands between two others of the same goddess, which in any other place would pass for admirable pieces; but here they serve rather as foils to the Venus of Medicis, only increasing the admiration of it, while their own excellencies are quite unnoticed. That on her right hand is twice as big, holding the golden apple, and is termed Venus Victrix; the other, a noble statue by Hercules Ferrata, distinguished by the name of Venus Urania. On one side of this last statue is a dancing Faunus, whose sportiveness and agility are finely expressed. Michael Angelo is said to have added the head and arms; but the piece is originally ascribed to no less a person than Praxiteles. Next to this is Arretino, an old man resting upon one knee, and whetting a broad knife upon a stone, with his head erect, and, as it were, listening with great attention; but very cautious of being observed. The head and hair of this piece are particularly admired. The sixth piece is a group representing two wrestlers engaged, and one of them throwing his antagonist, who, in the struggle, at the same time breaks his own arm. The heads in this group are also executed with admirable skill. It is said that this piece was dug up at Rome.

The remarkable diamond that used to be shewn here, has been removed from the Tribuna to the duke's private cabinet; but an exact model, made of yellowish glass, now supplies the place of it. The original, according to Tavernier, weighs 140 carats and a half, and was the largest diamond in Europe, till Mr. Pitt brought from the East Indies a diamond that exceeded it, which was sold to the Regent of France, and is the most costly and superb jewel belonging to that crown: the great duke is said to have bought his of a Jesuit for 75,000 scudi, about 18,750*l.* but the father had a most exorbitant profit, having given only a single paolo, or about sevenpence sterling for it on the Piazza di Navona, where it was offered to sale as a bit of crystal.

In a particular closet in the Tribuna are kept several vases of lapis-lazuli, jasper, cornelian, agate, &c. some set in gold, and enriched with jewels of a prodigious value. Here is also a most rich and admirable cabinet, with fourteen beautiful pillars, the shafts of which are

of lapis-lazuli; but the pedestals and capitals of solid gold enriched with pearl and turquoise. The interstices between the pillars are filled with basso relievos in gold. In the center of the upper part is a pearl that has but few equals, it being nearly of the size of a walnut; but the aqua marina in this piece is something larger. It has also a topaz of a prodigious size. This magnificent cabinet serves for keeping intaglios and camei, or gems cut in relievo. The heads of the kings and heroes make forty-two pieces. Here are also forty intaglios representing persons in masks, twenty-eight philosophers and poets, and near an hundred pieces of pagan deities, all antiques. The historical and mythological intaglios amount to a thousand. Besides these, and many others, there are three hundred and twelve medallions, one thousand six hundred gold medals, eight hundred silver, and about two thousand two hundred of copper. The gold, silver, and copper medals, struck in honour of cities and states, amount to one thousand five hundred pieces. In short, the whole collection is composed of fourteen thousand antique medals, and eight thousand modern.

The palace where the great duke usually resides, is called the Pallazzo de Pitti, where the best front is next the gardens; the columns of the first story being on that side, of the Doric order, those of the middle Ionic, and the third Corinthian. The apartments are well furnished, especially with fine pictures, and the ceilings beautifully painted by the great masters. From this palace is a covered gallery for the great duke to go to the Palazzo Vecchio, where, through little private apertures, he may hear and see what passes in the several courts of judicature. This gallery is six hundred paces in length, six paces in breadth, and eight in height, and on the walls on both sides are fine historical paintings.

The garden of the last mentioned palace is three Italian miles in circumference, and the highest part of it affords a noble prospect. The fine fountain which fronts the palace has a noble appearance; in the middle of the basin is a Neptune, of marble, of a very large size, in a shell of Egyptian granate, thirty-six feet in circumference. Three other statues of the Ganges, Nile, and Euphrates, are represented in a sitting posture, pouring water into the shell. In the grottos and fountains of this garden are to be seen, among several others, four statues by Michael Angelo. Nothing can be more delightful than the alleys and covered walks of laurel and other ever-greens, and every part abounds with espaliers of orange, lemon, jasmine, and pomegranate trees. On one side of the garden is the duke's menagerie, where are kept foreign fowls and wild beasts.

The principal church is the cathedral, called St. Maria del Fiore, which is four hundred and ninety feet long, and three hundred and eighty English feet to the top of the cross. The cupola is octangular, and the breadth of each side twenty-five feet; the paintings in the upper part representing the mansions of bliss, and below them the place of torments. Under the cupola is the choir, the pillars of which are intermixed with the statues of the twelve apostles in white marble. On the great altar stand three marble statues of a large size, one of the Supreme God and Father sitting, the two others representing the dead body of Christ, supported by an angel, done by Bandinelli.

Near the church is a square tower built of red, white, and black marble, on which are erected a great number of fine statues. Opposite to the cathedral is the church of St. John the Baptist, supposed to have been anciently the temple of Mars. It is of an octangular form, and has three brass gates, formerly gilt, on which several histories of the Old and New Testament are so admirably expressed in basso relievo, that Michael Angelo, in the extacy of his admiration, could not forbear saying they were worthy of being the gates of paradise. Over the chief entrance are three marble statues representing Christ's baptism, with three brass statues over the door of the decollation of John the Baptist. Over the third door are three statues in bronze, of John the Baptist discoursing with a Pharisee and a Scribe. In the court before the middle gate, is a fine pillar of granate, which was a present from the Pisans to the city of Florence.

Near them stands another column, erected in memory of a pretended miracle wrought by the body of St. Zenobius, on its being removed from St. Laurence's to the cathedral church, when his bier accidentally touching the trunk of a dry elm, that lay upon the ground, they pretend that it immediately became sound and cloathed with the liveliest verdure. In the church are sixteen large pillars of oriental granate. The whole cieling is of Mosaic work, representing eminent persons, and done by Apollonius, a Greek, Andrea Taffi, Gaddi, &c. The font is large, and adorned with several beautiful marble sculptures, particularly a statue of John the Baptist standing before it. Here all the children born of christian parents within the city of Florence, are baptized. The pavement of the church is inlaid, and on one side of it are represented the sun, and the twelve signs of the zodiac, with the following inscription, which is the more remarkable, as it may be read backwards as well as forwards :

En giro torte sol ciclos, et rotor igne.

“ Behold the sun pursues his oblique way,
“ And with his fiery vertex brings the day.”

On midsummer day, at noon, the sun is said to be directly concentric to a solar disk cut in a window opposite to this representation of that luminary.

One of the principal relics of this church is the finger with which it is pretended John the Baptist pointed to Jesus, when he said, “ Behold the lamb of God,” and which the people worship with the most zealous adoration.

In the church of the Annunciation, the walls and cielings are hung with votive offerings, it being famed for a miraculous picture of the Virgin Mary, which indeed brings a great deal of money to the clergy. The story is, That the Servites, to whom the church and adjacent convent belong, employed a painter to draw the Annunciation of the Virgin in fresco ; but when only her face was wanting to finish the work, the artist was extremely perplexed how to give it a suitable perfection, and falling asleep under this disquietude of mind, when he awoke he had the pleasure of seeing the cause of his anxiety removed, and the face completely finished. It is not questioned that he received this assistance from the angels, and the Florentines, from the many miracles performed by it, wonder how any one can have the least doubt of it. Among other things, it is said, that they who look on this picture will never be troubled with sore or weak eyes. Mr. Keyser observes, that another artist probably played the sleeping painter a trick, which he and the monks had the address of turning to their advantage ; or the whole might be a contrivance of the painter himself, in order to get a name by being on such good terms with the angels. He adds, that this piece is far from being an angelic work ; for though the person and attitude of the angel are proper and graceful, and the painting of Mary, at the sight of the heavenly messenger, happily designed, yet the wonder-working face is not to be compared with some hundreds of pictures by hands merely human. This piece is covered with three curtains, and placed in a chapel with a multitude of silver votive pieces hanging about it. The chapel is curiously adorned with marble, the pavement is of Egyptian granate and porphyry, and it is illuminated with above forty silver lamps and branches. Before the altar are two silver candlesticks of the height of a man, and upon them are two large silver statues, representing two angels. Every part of the altar is covered with basso relievos, and the tabernacle is extremely rich.

In St. Laurence's church are two pulpits, supported by marble columns, and adorned with basso relievos by Donatello, and in the new vestry are shewn the tombs of some princes of the house of Medicis, done by Michael Angelo. Behind the high altar is the entrance into the chapel designed for the burial-place of the great dukes of Florence ; it has been begun ever since the year 1604, and is not near finished, though the ducal family is extinct. It is of an octangular form, and the altar is richly adorned with lapis-lazuli, chalcedony, porphyry, and other valuable stones. Indeed the whole chapel is, in a manner,

lined with these and other materials equally expensive. The lower part of the walls are every where encrusted with fine Sicilian jasper, with green and yellow veins, and above this is a red Florentine marble, variegated with white spots. The inscriptions on the tombs are of chalcedony, inlaid with red porphyry, and the finest ivory is not whiter than these letters, every one of which cost three Spanish pistoles. The sarcophagi on some of the monuments are of Egyptian granate, which is of a deep red, and others are of oriental granate. Upon the sarcophagi are cushions of red jasper, profusely enriched with jewels ; the expence of each cushion is said to be sixty thousand scudi, about twelve thousand five hundred pounds sterling. At each end of these cushions lies a regal crown, glittering with pearls, diamonds, and other jewels of immense value. Lastly, the bronze statues of the great dukes, for whom the monuments are erected, stand in niches of touch-stone, and every statue is ten feet high. The Mausolea are separated from each other with double rows of jasper columns, with capitals and cornices of brass gilt, and between these columns are placed large urns of Corsica jasper, with green and white veins inlaid with Florentine work. The walls are ornamented with the arms of the principal cities in the duke's dominions, of the same work.

We have not room to describe the multitude of statues and pictures with which the other churches of this city are adorned. Notwithstanding all this splendor, the appearance of the city suffers considerably from the great number of paper windows to be seen here. However, among its ornaments is a vast Doric column of one piece of granate, which stands before the church of St. Trinita, and serves for a pedestal to a porphyry statue of Justice with her balance, and a royal mantle of bronze. This granate column is said to have been found at Rome, in the emperor Antoninus's bath.

In the middle of one of the streets is a fine statue of Hercules killing Nessus the centaur, cut out of a single block of white marble, by Giovanni Bologna.

In the Old Market, where provisions are sold, the goddess of Plenty, done by Donatello, stands upon a granate pillar.

The New Market is properly the exchange of Florence, where, about noon, the principal merchants meet to do business, many of whom are of great families. Some of the nobility deal in a retail way ; and a noble Florentine often condescends to measure out a yard of silk.

A particular part of the city, noted for houses of ill fame, was assigned by Cosmo I. to the Jews ; and an inscription at the entrance of this street observes, That it was thought more adviseable to permit the Jews to remain in the neighbourhood of Christians, that, by their good example, they might be brought to submit to the easy yoke of Christ, than totally to expel them.

The Florentines attribute the vivacity and penetration by which they boast that their countrymen have made superior improvements in the polite arts, to the purity and salubrity of the air ; and they never mention their countrymen Michael Angelo, Dante, Petrarch, and other great men, without transports of admiration. They are inimitable in making repartees, and telling stories with a good grace ; but are so infatuated with these endowments, that the government of the tongue is but little known amongst them : but happy would it be for them, if this vanity was all that could be laid to their charge ; for they are, even to a proverb, addicted to that most unnatural vice which brought down the Divine vengeance on the cities of Sodom and Gomorrah.

At the distance of an Italian mile from the city is Poggio, or Villa Imperiale, a palace belonging to the duke, with a very delightful range of trees leading to it, and both sides bordered with vineyards, convents, and villas. The apartments of the palace are very fine, and the garden belonging to it extremely delightful.

Six Italian miles from Florence towards Bologna stands Pratolino, another palace belonging to the great duke. The apartments and halls are very rich, and the paintings exquisite. The garden abounds with beautiful allies, covered walks, mazes, grottos, and water-works.

The road from Florence to Vienna is paved, and still exhibits

exhibits many remains of the ancient *Via Cassia*. It extends over a chain of hills, and though the country is not so fine as that between Florence and Pisa, it affords very delightful prospects, it being every where planted with vineyards and olive-yards.

S E C T. III.

The PISANO, or Territory of PISA.

Its Situation, Produce, and Extent; its History, with a particular Description of the Cities of Pisa and Leghorn.

THE Pisano, a territory of Tuscany, is bounded on the north by the territory of Florence and the republic of Lucca; on the east by the Siennese; and on the west by the sea; extending about forty-seven miles in length, and twenty-five in breadth, and abounds in corn, wine, all kinds of vegetables, fine cattle, and every thing requisite for the comfortable subsistence of human life.

The road from the city of Pisa to that of Lucca, which are only twelve miles distant, is most delightful, especially in dry weather, when, instead of crossing over Mount St. Julian, one may keep along the plain. The country is divided into square inclosures, and planted with rows of trees, with vines twining round them, which luxuriantly intermingle their branches at the top, and form beautiful festoons. In summer and autumn nothing can exceed this delightful tract of land, the mountain which runs all the way on the right being covered with olives and cypress-trees of an extraordinary height.

Pisa, formerly a republic of considerable figure, reduced the islands of Sardinia and Corsica, conquered Carthage, drove the Saracens out of the city of Palermo in Sicily; maintained with honour a long war with Genoa, and subdued the island of Majorca, though Almeric king of Jerusalem sent forty ships to its succour. But in 1390 it was deprived of its liberty by John Galeazzo Visconti, duke of Milan; and in 1405 by the Florentines; but, by the assistance of Charles VIII. king of France, it recovered its liberty in the year 1494; however, being again reduced by the Florentines, in 1509, it has ever since remained in a state of subjection. The principal cities in this territory are Pisa and Leghorn; we shall begin with the former.

Pisa is a spacious city seated on the Arno, which divides it into two parts, in the forty-fifth degree thirty-seven minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree eighteen minutes east longitude, twelve miles to the north of Leghorn. The streets are straight, broad, and well paved, and the greatest part of the houses make a tolerable appearance; but the life and spirit that formerly animated this city, namely, the multitude of its inhabitants, are so far exhausted, that the grass grows in several of the streets. The most wealthy inhabitants, since the loss of its freedom, have withdrawn themselves, some of them to Genoa, and there is little appearance that this loss will ever be repaired; for though Pisa enjoys a healthful air, good water, a convenient and delightful situation for trade, and is encompassed by a fertile country, the inhabitants now scarce amount to sixteen or seventeen thousand, though in the eleventh century it is said they amounted to one hundred and fifty thousand; but, in the year 1615, they were reduced to fifteen thousand and sixty, including even the Florentine court. The university, which was founded in 1339, may be supposed to partake of the misfortunes of the city; though it wants neither colleges nor endowments, nor able professors, who are of the great duke's nomination.

The exchange is a superb structure, built in 1605, but is now almost desolate.

Some business, however, is still carried on in the city, on account of its being the place where the duke's galleys are built; and the few galleys of which his naval force consists, generally lie here.

Another circumstance of some little benefit to the city, is its being the chief seat of the order of St. Stephen. These knights are divided into *Cavalieri della Giustizia*, *della Grazia*, and *de Commanderie*. The last are those who, for the honour of wearing the cross of the order,

found a commanderie, which upon their death reverts to the order. In the second class are celebrated painters, and other eminent masters in the polite arts, on whom the duke confers this honour. These two classes are not obliged to make any vows; but the first, who are the proper knights of St. Stephen, swear allegiance to the grand master, who is always the great duke, and to serve against infidels. The proofs of noble descent must be the same as those required by the order of Malta. Their vow of chastity does not exclude marriage; but the unmarried knights have this advantage, that they live in the palace of the order, where they are elegantly lodged and provided with a splendid table gratis. The knights have the free disposal of their fortunes and incomes, of which a fourth part only devolves to the order, on their decease. On the festivals of the order, and other solemn occasions, they wear on their breast an octangular cross of crimson satin, embroidered with gold; but on common days, when they appear in public, they have only a plain white cross upon their cloak. The name of St. Stephen was chosen by Cosmo I. the founder of the order, from a signal victory he obtained, which entirely established the government of the Medicis, on the festival of that saint; whence St. Stephen's day is kept as the chief festival of the order. Their church is then hung with several hundred flags, and other trophies, taken from the infidels. The high altar is made of fine porphyry, and over it is a marble statue of pope Stephen.

The square before the church consists of stately houses, with the palace of the order, round which are the busts of the great dukes in white marble, and in the front a fine marble statue of Cosmo the Great.

The ducal palace has nothing magnificent, or suitable to that title. The market is ornamented with a white marble statue of the goddess of Plenty, standing upon a pillar, which serves both for a whipping-post and a pillory.

The archbishop's palace is a mean old building, with nothing remarkable but a fountain in the inner court, in which is a white marble statue of Moses, placed there, as an inscription says, on account of his rising from the water, and his rod having miraculously forced copious streams from a barren rock.

In the cathedral is a pair of large folding-gates of brass, on which is represented in relievo the life of Christ; but both the workmanship and design are very indifferent. On the side of the church are three entrances, with brass doors, on which are several historical pieces of the Old and New Testament in basso relievo, much superior to that mentioned above. The door frames are adorned with very curious festoons, and figures of animals, with the arms of the house of Medicis interspersed in several places. The middle portal is adorned with two columns of white marble, embellished with admirable foliages, and said to have belonged to Nero's baths. The frontispiece of the cathedral is a Gothic work, with innumerable pillars carved up to the very top. The number of pillars within the dome amounts to seventy-six, each of which is cut out of a single block of white oriental granate. The pavement before the high altar is of Mosaic work, made of small gems, representing a variety of figures. On each side of this altar stands an angel of bronze, admirably executed by Bonanno Pisano. The statues of Adam and Eve, on the altar of the Holy Sacrament, are greatly admired. The Baptistry is a large circular building with a high cupola; but it has no lantern, or any opening at the top, and is built all of white marble. The Last Judgment, represented in basso relievo on the pulpit by Nicholas Pisano, cannot fail of pleasing a curious eye. There are here eight pillars of oriental marble, each cut out of a single block. The large marble font is divided by four partitions, which shews that formerly baptism was here performed by immersion, and in the middle stands a bronze statue of John the Baptist. The concavity of the cupola is disposed in such a manner, that any noise made below is followed by a very loud and long double echo, which even exceeds that of Simonetti near Milan; but the repetition is not so clear and distinct. Two persons also, whispering, with their faces near the wall, opposite to each other, may converse together, without being overheard by the company that stand between them.

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In the cathedral church-yard, near the choir, stands the famous leaning tower, detached from any other building; it is round, and ascended by three hundred and fifty-five steps to the top, which is enclosed with a breast-work, and in it hang seven bells. It is computed to be one hundred and eighty-eight feet high, and is divided into eight partitions, or stories, each surrounded with a colonnade of thirty-eight pillars, which in all the rows are of the same thickness; but decrease in length in proportion as they rise towards the top. The ground-floor is the only one without an opening between the pillars; but all the other stories form so many galleries round the tower. It is remarkable, that a plummet let down perpendicularly from the top, touches the ground at the distance of fifteen feet from the bottom of the tower. Its thus leaning has raised the admiration of travellers, some pretending that, by a peculiar art of the architect, it appears to lean on all sides, though in reality it inclines only on one, which is occasioned by nothing more than the sinking of the foundation: this is evident from the pedestals of the lowest row of pillars being sunk much deeper in the earth on the side of the inclination than on the other.

The Campo Santo, or the city burial-place, is an oblong piece of ground, and as the earth was brought from the neighbourhood of Jerusalem by fifty Pisan galleys, it is walled round with a building in the form of a cloyster, with marble columns and porticos, covered with lead at the top, and is divided by low stone-walls into three equal parts. In the uppermost lie the nobility, the citizens in the middle, and the peasants in the lowest part. On the walls of the cloysters are Scripture histories, painted by several hands, among which that of Job, in eight pieces, by Giotto, deserves particular notice. There is here likewise the life of the patriarch Joseph, in four compartments, and a very large representation of the East Judgment, in the middle of which is seen king Solomon hanging down his head, with all the signs of a guilty conscience. On our Saviour's left hand hell is represented, and on his right the mansions of bliss, crowded with monks and nuns: however, an angel is seen to take the freedom of dragging away a monk by the hair, as not qualified to be in such good company.

St. Matthew's church, which belongs to the Benedictine nuns, is a small, but very elegant, structure, remarkable for the perspective paintings in fresco on the roof; but the beholder must stand on a particular stone near the middle of the pavement, for that is the point of view from whence all the figures, pillars, &c. of the picture are distinctly seen in their proper arrangement.

There belongs to this city a very large physic-garden, well stocked with all sorts of curious plants and water-works, and near it is a museum of natural curiosities. The city is encompassed by a moat and walls; it is also defended by an old castle and large fort, but its citadel is a modern fortification. Between this city and Leghorn is a canal, sixteen Italian miles in length, and of great service for the convenience of trade and draining the morasses.

We now come to the city of Leghorn, by the Italians and other nations called Livorno, the antient Liburnus Portus, a handsome, but not very large, city, built in the modern taste, and with such regularity, that both gates are seen from the market-place. It is seated in latitude forty-three degrees thirty-three minutes north, and in ten degrees twenty-five minutes east longitude. In the north part are the finest houses, and from its being intersected with canals it is called New Venice. Leghorn was formerly a place belonging to the Genoese, and by them given to duke Cosmo I. in exchange for the town of Sarzana. It was then an inconsiderable place; but since that time it has put on a quite different aspect. The canals cut in several parts without the town, have rendered the marshes fit for culture, and in some measure dissipated the noxious effluvia, though the air is not yet esteemed perfectly healthful; and fresh water is so scarce, that they are obliged to bring it from Pisa.

The city is very well fortified, having two forts towards the sea, besides the citadel. The ramparts afford a very agreeable prospect of the sea, and of many villas on the land side; the number of guns in the several fortifications at present amount to about three hundred, most

of them of brass; and the garrison consists of six hundred men. The harbour is divided into the outward and inward, the last of which is called the Darsa, or Darsena, and is only appropriated to the great duke's galleys, which are about five or six in number, and are sometimes sent out upon a cruise against the Corsairs. The outward mole has a strong barrier of stones, of a vast size, upon which is a strong pavement, with a parapet wall running along the middle of it, where, on one side or the other, a person may be always sheltered from the wind. The length of the mole is six hundred common paces; but the breadth is said to be fifteen hundred. On this mole the wealthy inhabitants take the air in their coaches. One great defect in the harbour is, that in the middle it is too shallow for large ships, which on this account are moored to pillars and large iron rings on the side of the mole, by which means they are safer than in the harbour itself. The road, for an Italian mile or two towards the sea, is very good, though there is no security against the winds or Corsairs. The light-house, where every night thirty burning lamps are contained in one lantern, stands on a single rock in the sea; and not far from it, on the main land, is the Lazaretto, where quarantine is performed by persons coming from places suspected of infection.

On a building near the harbour, where the great dukes formerly resided, is an inscription to the following purport.

"Fly hither, ye merchants, with alacrity: this sacred place by its beauty, commodiousness, freedom, and plenty of all the necessaries of life, allures you: Cosmo III. the sixth great duke of Tuscany, who resides in this house, courteously invites you; having enlarged and fortified the city, he rebuilt this edifice, first raised by his grand-father Frederic I. and made it more superb and magnificent in the year 1695."

In the square before the Darsena is a statue of duke Ferdinand, with four Turkish slaves, in bronze, of a gigantic size, in chains.

The number of inhabitants is computed at forty thousand, among whom are twenty thousand Jews, who live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handsome synagogue, and, though subject to very heavy imposts, are in a thriving condition, the greatest part of the commerce of this city going through their hands. The generality of the Greeks and Armenians settled here, acknowledge the pope's supremacy, and each have their peculiar church. The free Turks and the Turkish slaves have a mosque, but the protestants are not permitted the public exercise of their religion, the English excepted, who being of all foreign nations the best customers to Leghorn, are allowed to have a chaplain, while the other protestants make use of the chaplains of ships. None of the churches in Leghorn afford any thing worth the curiosity of a judicious traveller.

As particular quarters of the city are assigned to the Jews and Turks, so the public prostitutes have theirs also, consisting of two or three streets, which bounds these unhappy creatures are not to pass, without previous leave from their commissary, and paying a trifling sum.

The port is entirely free for commerce to all nations, and the duties on imported goods are so easy as not to cause the least obstruction to commerce; every bale, let the size be what it will, pays only two piasters, or nine shillings sterling; nor are the contents examined. Travellers are not troubled at Leghorn about searching their baggage; they are only obliged to deliver up their pistols, and other fire arms, till they obtain an order from the governor to have them restored, which is also attended with very little difficulty.

Leghorn, after all, is far from being a cheap place to live at; for though strangers pay little or no taxes, yet the provisions and other necessaries, brought thither by land, are subject to very high duties; and the duke reserves to himself the monopoly of several commodities, particularly brandy, tobacco, and salt; and Mr. Addison informs us, that in his time, the person who had the monopoly of selling ice at Leghorn, paid annually above one thousand pounds sterling for that privilege, and the tobacco-merchant ten thousand pounds. All the

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commodities that are sent up into the country are clogged with impositions as soon as they leave Leghorn; and all the wines, oils, and silks brought from the fruitful valleys of Pisa, Florence, and other parts of Tuscany, are obliged to pay several duties and taxes before they can reach the port.

The Turkish slaves and other galley-rowers are every night secured in a large place surrounded with a high wall, called the Bagni, in imitation of the Moors, who give this name to a prison in which they keep the Christian captives. In the day-time they are set at liberty, and may exercise their industry either in labour or trade; but they must take care to return in due time to the Bagni. They lie here singly in long barracks, the beds being in five or six rows over each other, with rope ladders to ascend to them, and nothing is punished with greater severity than when two are found in one bed: for the better preventing all disorders, lamps are kept burning, and a watch is continually walking about the barracks. The three classes of rowers are the volunteers, the criminals, and the Turkish slaves, who have each their respective wards; in other respects no distinction is made, and one sick ward and dispensary serves indiscriminately for them all. The number of these galley-rowers is generally about two thousand, and of these the Turks make eight or nine hundred.

S E C T. IV.

The SIENNESE.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Government, and History; with a Description of Sienna, and the Customs and Manners of the Inhabitants. A concise Account of the States of Presidii and Piombino.

THE Siennese is bounded on the north by the Florentino; on the south by the Mediterranean sea and the duchy of Castro; on the east by the Perugino and Orvietano; and on the west by the Florentino and the Tuscan sea, it being about fifty-five miles in length, and as much in breadth.

The country is pretty fertile, especially in mulberry trees, which feed a great number of silk-worms, and there are several medicinal springs.

The Siennese flatter themselves with retaining a kind of liberty in the election of their senate, which consists of nine persons called *Eccelsi*, whose president is stiled captain of the people; but this is only an external shew, the senate being so far under the check of the great duke of Florence, that no measure of any consequence must be taken without his knowledge and permission.

Sienna was at the time of the long interregnum a free state; but has since been thrown into frequent convulsions, by the ambition and intestine broils of the principal families, especially the Malatesta and Petrucci. In the year 1554, the emperor Charles V. reduced them entirely under his dominion, and at his resignation in 1556, the sovereignty devolved to his son Philip II. king of Spain. This prince afterwards, in consideration of a large sum of ready money, and a promise that they should not take part with the French, ceded the country to Cosmo I. duke of Florence; but reserved to himself some maritime towns, as Piombino, Orbitello, Telamone, Porto Hercole, Porto St. Stefano, Porto Longone, with the isle of Elva, which constitute what is called Stato de Gli Presidii, from the Spaniards keeping garrisons in those towns.

The principal city in this territory is Sienna, which stands thirty-six miles to the south of Florence, and fifty-nine to the south-east of Leghorn. It is pretty large, and pleasantly situated on three hills, which render the streets very uneven; but this is compensated by the agreeableness of the prospect, and the exceeding healthfulness of the air. The houses are elegant, but thin of inhabitants, who scarce amount to seventeen thousand. They are civil and of a chearful disposition; the women have their share of beauty, and have more freedom than in many other parts of Italy. Several of the nobility, who are divided into classes called *Monti*, choose it for their residence, and on this account Sienna is famous for

the purest dialect of the Italian language. It is the see of an archbishop, and the cathedral is incrusted both on the outside and within with marble. The pavement is admirably inlaid with marble and other costly stones, especially under the grand cupola, and before the great altar, where many scripture histories are represented in this manner with all the delicacy of painting; but this part is covered with boards in order to preserve it, and a foreigner is only shewn some feet square. In this church are the busts of one hundred and seventy popes, in plaster of Paris, six of whom were natives of Sienna, and the twelve apostles have marble statues. The roof of the whole church is painted with azure, and, as it were, strewed with golden stars.

Through an aperture in the pavement of the choir one may look down into St. John's church, which lies directly under the cathedral, and there is an entrance to it at the foot of the ascent. This singularity is occasioned by the uneven and hilly situation of this city. Near the cathedral is the archbishop's palace, and opposite to it a large and well endowed hospital, founded by a shoemaker, who lies buried in a church belonging to it, and, in return for his liberality, was canonized, and has a statue erected to his memory.

The Jesuits church is, as usual, very fine, and adorned with a great many marble statues. That of the Augustines is worth seeing for the admirable sculpture on the high altar. On each side of the tabernacle stands an angel of white marble, holding a lighted taper in his hand.

The head of St. Catherine of Sienna, which one of her countrymen, upon her dying at Rome, out of a pious zeal, is said to have severed from her body, and brought to Sienna, is kept in the church of the Dominicans with the greatest veneration, and is exhibited to view only twice a year. On the high altar of this church are two admirable statues of Mary Magdalen and Catherine of Sienna, the latter of whom has a fine chapel here, painted by Sodorno. The Dominicans here pretend to shew the ring given her by Christ at the solemnization of his espousals with her, which are profanely said to have been performed with celestial splendor, while king David graced the solemnity with the music of his harp. The house in which they say she lived with her parents is now an oratory, and her private chamber is converted into a chapel, profusely adorned with stucco-work, gilding, sculpture, and painting.

Not far from the Dominican church is a remarkable bridge, extending from one hill to another across a street; but the inconsiderable height of this bridge does not admit of any buildings under the arches like that of Genoa. This city has an university, founded by Charles V. but it is in a declining condition. The German students enjoy particular privileges, which they derive from the same emperor; but in the Jesuits College is a considerable number of scholars. In the fifteenth century the Academy of the Intronati was founded here.

The Senate-house is scarce worth seeing; before it indeed is a large square called the Branda, resembling a dish, or rather shell, which it is pretended in case of fire, or for a mock sea-fight, may be laid under water, by means of the city fountain. On one side of this square stands a tower called the Mangiana, remarkable for its chimes, which, however, never play but on extraordinary occasions; it derives its name from a statuary, who made several statues erected upon it. Before the Senate-house is a fine marble fountain by Giacomo della Quercia, a sculptor of this city.

The arms of Sienna are Romulus and Remus sucking a she-wolf, and as such they are to be seen in several parts of the city; particularly on a pillar of ophir fronting the Senate-house. Sienna, indeed, boasts of being a colony founded by those celebrated brothers, but cannot support its claim by any satisfactory proof.

The Siennese also contains a number of small towns; and in the Tuscan sea are the islands of Melora, Gorgona, Pianosa, Le Formiche, Monte Christo, Giglio, and Gianuti; all of which belong to the duchy of Tuscany.

We now come to the small and inconsiderable states of Presidii and Piombino, with which we shall conclude this section.

The former of these states, which lies as it were scattered near the sea, formerly belonged to Sienna; but Philip II. king of Spain, as we have already intimated, on transferring the district of Sienna to Cosmo I. excepted this tract, which thus continued annexed to the crown of Spain, till in 1707, the greatest part of it, with the kingdom of Naples, was conquered by the Imperialists; but in the peace of 1736, this tract was yielded to Don Carlos, king of both Sicilies.

The state della Presidii, or of the garrisons, from its being garrisoned by the troops of the king of the Two Sicilies, contains the following places, Orbitello, Telamone, Argentaro, Porto Hercole, Monte Filippo, and Porto St. Stefano.

Orbitello, the capital, stands near the Tuscan shore, at the foot of Mount Argentaro, on a lake formed by an arm of the sea, which serves for a good harbour, having a narrow entrance between two capes. It is strong both by art and nature; being almost surrounded by the lake, which is eleven or twelve miles in compass, and having no communication with the continent, but by a narrow causeway that may be easily broken; and it is defended by some good forts.

The other towns, just mentioned, are only small fortified places.

The principality of Piombino is a small territory lying along the sea-coasts, between the Siennese on the east, and the Pisano on the west. It was formerly part of the republic of Pisa, from which it passed into the family of Appiani, who took the title of princes of Piombino; but the last male heir dying without male issue, the emperor conferred it as a fief on others.

The town of Piombino stands on a rock in the sea, and is defended by a citadel and castle; it was built out of the ruins of the ancient city of Populonia, but makes no great figure at present.

There are several other small towns in this district, some of which are fortified; and opposite to Piombino is the island of Elba, which is separated from the continent by a channel; it is small, and with all the turnings and windings of the shore, which is very uneven, is not above forty miles in compass. It is very mountainous, and affords iron, lead, and sulphur, with quarries of marble. It has two fortresses, namely, Porto Longone, garrisoned by the Spaniards, and Porto Ferrario, which belongs to the duke of Tuscany.

SECT. V.

Of the ECCLESIASTICAL STATE.

Its Situation and Extent. The Reason of the Poverty and Want of Inhabitants in the Pope's Dominions; the Prerogatives claimed by the Pope; his Power not derived from St. Peter; the Rise of the Cardinals, and their Manner of choosing the Pope; the Offices of the Government and Courts of Justice, with the Revenues, Military and Naval Forces of the Pope.

THE Ecclesiastical State, or the territories of the pope, is bounded on the north by the dominions of Venice; on the east by the Adriatic: on the south-east and south by the kingdom of Naples and the Mediterranean; and on the west by the grand duchy of Tuscany and the territories of Modena; extending from south to north two hundred and forty miles, and from the south-west to the north-east, in some parts, one hundred and twenty, but in others scarce twenty.

Mr. Addison, Dr. Busching, and other authors observe, that on considering that the pope's dominions generally consist of a very fertile and excellent soil; that his harbours, both on the Adriatic and the Mediterranean seas, are very advantageously situated for trade; that he receives considerable sums out of Spain, Germany, and other countries, that belong to foreign princes, which one would fancy might be no small ease to his subjects; that his country is visited by numbers of foreigners, who spend a great deal of money in it; and that on account of the supposed sacredness of his person and character, his government should seem most eligible and best calculated for the welfare of subjects: on considering

all these particulars, and the long peace that has reigned in Italy, one would be apt to imagine that this country could not fail of being extremely flourishing; but upon the slightest inspection the very reverse is manifest.

The country is but ill cultivated, poor, and thin of inhabitants, the city of Bologna alone excepted. Trade and manufactures are entirely stagnated, and were it not for the bounty of Providence, which furnishes the inhabitants with dates, figs, almonds, olives, and other fruit, which grow spontaneously, and without culture, their sloth would absolutely starve them. Their little inclination and spirit for work is the less wonderful, as they are conscious that if they have much, much will be taken from them. The many holidays, which are an impediment to trade and business, and the great number of young sturdy beggars, strolling about, under the title of pilgrims, instead of increasing the common stock by their labour and industry, lie as a dead weight on their fellow-subjects, and consume the charity that ought to support the aged, the sick, and the decrepid.

The multitude of convents, which are like so many nests of drones, that hinder the increase of inhabitants; the many hospitals that confirm the people in idleness; the inconceivable wealth in the churches and convents, which lie dormant, without the least advantage to the public; and the inquisition, which will not permit the want of inhabitants to be supplied by those of another religion, are some of the great causes of the wretched condition of the papal dominions; though there are others attended with still more fatal consequences. No christian government equals the papal in rigour, the temporal sword being not only used, but, on several occasions, the spiritual. Nothing is so monstrous as the passion by which most popes, cardinals, and other great prelates, have been carried away for enriching and promoting their nephews and relations, and nothing is so vain as the ambition of gaining a great name by founding churches and convents. The regulars vie with each other in the number, splendor, and riches of their religious houses and churches; but it is from the bowels of the poor inhabitants that the money is generally extracted for the support of their frivolous rivalry. The legates, governors, and other inferior officers in the provinces, knowing that the time in which they can enjoy their posts is but short and uncertain, scruple no kind of rapaciousness. On considering these various causes, we shall no longer be surprized that in no part of Europe there is a more wretched people than the pope's temporal subjects.

According to the canon-law, the pope is the supreme, universal, and independent head of the church, and invested with sovereignty over all christian communities, and every individual member. He has a right to prescribe laws to the whole world. What he does is as if God himself had done it, he being god upon earth. All sovereigns must pay homage to him. He may depose both disobedient and ill-governing princes, and give their dominions to others. He has a right to examine any person promoted to a kingdom, and may require an oath of allegiance from him. On the vacancy of a throne the government devolves to him. He has the right in all states to use both the temporal and spiritual sword. If a prince be remiss in his government, he may appoint him a colleague, or substitute another in his stead. He can legitimate children born out of wedlock, and thereby make them capable of succeeding to a throne, &c. This is a short sketch of the extravagancies of the political system of the court of Rome, which, notwithstanding its impiety and absurdity, has been ambitiously obtruded on the world, and even was for some ages tyrannically put in practice. It is chiefly owing to the Reformation that these corrupt maxims are at present, by the rational part of Christendom, treated with contempt, and that the pope has lost a great part of the formidable power he has vainly and arrogantly assumed, which has reduced his power even among those princes who own his authority, and several of them seem to consider him less as a spiritual father than as a temporal prince. Hence many of the abuses with which the reformers justly charged the court of Rome, have been either

ther quite set aside, or managed with more art and policy. Princes, instead of being treated with threats and anathemas, are addressed with great civility and submission: the clergy and monks are become more learned and moderate, and though they have have lost none of their zeal for reducing protestants to their church, yet in general they do not use so much violence and cruelty as they formerly did, except in a few countries more bigotted than the rest; nor do they treat those who dissent from them with such uncharitable language and virulence. Protestants, of all sorts, are used with more humanity in those countries, and the learned of all religions hold an epistolary commerce with each other, with the utmost seeming friendship and candour.

Dr. Busching observes, that the papal territories are far from being derived from the poor and disinterested apostle St. Peter, who, according to the groundless opinion of the church of Rome, is said to have been the first bishop of that city; but have been procured and annexed to that see much later. It is equally false, he adds, that the emperor Constantine the Great, in the year 324, made a grant to Sylvester bishop of Rome, of that city and St. Peter's patrimony; as it is called. This fable was first mentioned by Isidorus Mercator, and is probably nothing better than his own invention. However, the pretended instrument of donation is alone sufficient to place in a clear light the ignorance and audaciousness both of its forgers and partizans. Certain it is, that the bishops of Rome gradually procured for themselves several estates and lands, which, particularly in the year 755, received a very considerable increase; Pepin king of France giving the whole exarchate to the see of Rome, and his son Charles not only confirming that gift, but making three several additions to it. No mention was made, till some time after this, of the supposed gift of Constantine to Sylvester. Rome was still reputed subject to the emperor, the king of the Franks retaining the temporal sovereignty of the places which had been granted to the popes. But under Charles's successors the popes, finding opportunities of increasing their power, at last arrogated to themselves the disposal of the empire. In the following ages they took all measures for raising their see to an astonishing and formidable greatness, which proved highly detrimental both to the welfare of Europe, and the cause of religion. How the several parts of the papal territories became annexed to the see of Rome, we shall hereafter shew in the description of those parts.

The pope is chosen from among the cardinals, and before we describe the manner of his election, it will be proper to take some notice of them. The word cardinal was a name anciently common to the presbyters and deacons of great churches in cities; but in the eleventh century the presbyters and deacons of the church of Rome restrained the appellation to themselves, and their power encreased with that of the pope. The first dawn of their grandeur appeared under pope Nicholas II. Innocent IV. at the council of Lyons in 1243, gave them the red hat, Boniface VIII. the red vestments, and Urban VIII. the title of *Eminentissimi*, but before they were only stiled *Illustissimi*. Sixtus V. at the council of Basil, fixed their number at seventy, which is seldom complete. They are divided into three classes: these are six cardinal bishops; namely, the bishop of Ostia, dean of the sacred college; the bishop of Oporto, sub-dean; and the bishops of Sabina, Palistrati, Fregati, and Albano. These bishoprics may be held with other bishoprics or archbishoprics. The second class consists of fifty cardinal priests, and fourteen cardinal deacons; each of the cardinal priests and deacons bears the title of a church in the city of Rome. The cardinals insist on precedency before the electors of the empire, and of being treated on the same footing as crowned heads. Indeed the title of cardinal has no revenue annexed to it; but embassies, the protection of Roman catholic nations, governments, archbishoprics, bishoprics, prelacies, and other ecclesiastical benefices, enable them to live in state, though not suitably to the rank they assume, especially when, being of mean extraction, they have no fortune of their own.

The conclave is the theatre on which the cardinals principally endeavour to give proofs of their genius and

address. The decease of the pope is made known to the people of Rome, by tolling the great bell of the capitol, firing the cannon of the castle of St. Angelo, and opening the prisons; and soon after circular letters are sent to foreign cardinals by the cardinal cammerlingo to invite them to the approaching conclave. Mean while the cammerlingo acts as regent, is attended by the pope's life-guard, and orders every thing necessary for opening the conclave, which is held in the galleries and some of the anti-chambers of the Vatican, and consists of a number of small rooms separated by wooden partitions, and distributed by lot, both among the cardinals then in Rome, and those that are absent. Each has usually two, one for himself, and one for two attendants called conclavists.

On the eleventh day after the pope's demise all the cardinals in the city meet in the morning at St. Peter's church, where the mass *Sancti Spiritus* is celebrated; and after a sermon on the duties to be observed in the election of a pope, they proceed two by two into the conclave, which is then shut up by the governor and marshal of the conclave, none being let out, unless in case of illness, till a new pope is elected, and the person so let out is not allowed to return. The governor of the conclave is always previously chosen by the cardinals, and, together with the marshal, resides at the entrance of the Vatican, and without their express licence no person is suffered to go in or out.

While the cardinals sit in conclave, refreshments are brought them in baskets, or boxes, which are searched, though not with much strictness. Each cardinal orders his conclavists to write down on a slip of paper, the name of the person to whom he gives his suffrage. This is thrown into a chalice on the altar of the chapel of the conclave, and two cardinals appointed for that purpose successively read aloud the notes, marking the number of votes for every cardinal. He who has two-thirds is declared pope; otherwise the scrutiny is repeated till this number is complete. If this manner of election does not take place, recourse is had to another, called *Accessus*, whereby the notes of the former scrutiny being set aside, every cardinal must give in writing his vote to another, and if by this way two-thirds do not appear, there is still another resource called *Inspiratio*, in virtue of which, those of the cardinals who are unanimous, come out of their cells and call aloud to each other, "Such a one shall be pope, such a one shall be pope:" upon which, others, to avoid incurring the displeasure of the new elected pope, frequently join in the cry, and thus the election is sometimes carried; but if this also fails, the scrutiny begins again, and a conclave in this manner, sometimes proves a long-winded business.

The emperor, with the kings of France and Spain, are allowed to exclude a person proposed for the pope-dom; but this protest must be made before the complete declaration of the votes for such a person. It is required that the pope be an Italian, and at least fifty-five years of age, though the age mostly insisted upon is between sixty and seventy. When the election is over, and the pope elect has declared what name he will bear for the future, the chief of the cardinal deacons proclaims him to the people. His coronation with a triple crown is generally performed eight days after.

The governor and magistrates of the city of Rome are, during the conclave, invested with the interregnum.

Each pope may choose his arms. The papal court is numerous and splendid. The posts of cammerlingo, prime minister, upper confessor, secretary of state, datary, and vice-chancellor of the holy church, are filled by cardinals. Some officers are removed at the pope's decease, as the secretary of state, the upper confessor, &c. while others, as the cardinal cammerlingo, vice-chancellor, &c. continue in office.

The pope's high council is formed of the consistory of cardinals, and its ordinary meeting is once a week in the papal palace; but the extraordinary meetings depend on his holiness's pleasure. Here are discussed all the temporal and spiritual affairs of the papal see, as the filling up of vacant archbishoprics, bishoprics, prelacies, abbacies, &c. Every nation of the Romish religion has

a cardinal for its protector. The inferior colleges are called congregations; as the congregation of the sacred office or inquisition; the congregation *de propagandâ fide*, and those of religious ceremonies and the candidates for ecclesiastical benefices. The cardinals preside in these congregations. The *rota Romana* is a kind of supreme court of appeal, where also every popish nation has one or two assessors. The *dataria* is the chancery, and is so called from the usual signature, *Datum Romæ apud Sanctum Petrum*, &c. when the pope lives in the Vatican: and *Apud Sanctam Mariam Majorem*, when he resides at the Quirinal.

The revenues of the pope are very large, as those of the countries of which he is sovereign as a temporal prince are considerable. No person in Rome must sell any wine or fruit till the pope and his nephews, with their dependants, have disposed of what is consigned to them from their domains and estates. The annates of the great consistorial benefices, the pallia, and investitures of archbishops and bishops, the jubilee year, indulgences, dispensations, canonizations, promotions of cardinals, subsidies of the clergy, convent collections, &c. continually bring vast sums into the papal treasury, from all Roman catholic countries. The annual income of the pope is generally computed at eight millions seven hundred thousand scudi. This revenue is under the management of the apostolic chamber, where the offices are so lucrative, that some of the principal are sold for eighty or a hundred thousand dollars; yet in the year 1741 the apostolic treasury was indebted no less than fifty-six millions of scudi.

The pope's soldiers are by no means despicable; but they have seldom good officers. They are both well clothed and paid, and are augmented or reduced as circumstances require. His body-guard consists of forty Swiss, seventy-five cuirassiers, and as many light-horse; but his galleys, which lie at Civita Vecchia, are of small consequence.

In the papal territories are five legations or principal governments; these are Bologna, Urbino, Ravenna, Ferrara, and Avignon. At the last place the legate never resides in person; but is represented by a vice-legate. The post of legate is only triennial. The other countries belonging to the pope are under ecclesiastical governors, and the administration is every where despotic, Bologna alone excepted.

We shall now proceed to describe the several countries subject to the pope, with the principal places in each. These countries are the duchies of Bologna, Ferrara, Romagna, and Urbino, the marquisate of Ancona, the territories of Perugia and Orvieto, the duchies of Spoleto and Castro, St. Peter's patrimony, and the Campagna di Roma, or territory of Rome.

SECT. VI.

The BOLOGNESE, or Duchy of BOLOGNA.

Its Situation and Produce, with a minute Account of the Bononian Stone: Its History, and a particular Description of the City of Bologna, and of the Trade, Manners, and Customs of the Inhabitants.

THE Bolognese is bounded by the Ferrarese on the north; by Romagna on the east; by Tuscany on the south; and by Modena on the west; and is watered by a great number of small rivers, which render the soil extremely rich and fertile; but it is far from being either populous or well cultivated. The country abounds in all kinds of fruit, especially quinces, olives, and grapes. The quinces, in particular, are remarkably large, and of an exquisite flavour. The whole territory is said to contain three hundred and eight towns and villages, and three hundred and eight thousand souls.

Among the natural curiosities of this country is the famous Bononian stone, found about the Appennine mountains, and in mount Paderno, four Italian miles from Bologna; also in several other parts of Italy. It is commonly of the size of a walnut, of a light-grey colour, the surface uneven, impregnated with sulphureous particles, and not very compact, though heavier than

one would imagine from its size, and in many parts of it sparkling like talc. After a heavy rain has washed the earth down from the mountains, it is easily found. Before it is properly prepared it appears in the dark like another stone, but, by a particular calcination, it acquires the following property: that after lying in open day-light, it absorbs so much luminous splendor as to shine in the dark, like a glowing coal, for eight, or even fifteen minutes, and when the stone is very good, its lustre resembles that of a flambeau. The moon-shine makes not the least impression on it, and the sun-beams are too strong for it by calcining it too much, so as to crumble it to powder. It retains also its luminous quality when laid in water; and in general it lasts three or four years, at the expiration of which, or at any other time, it may be calcined anew to recover its quality; but it never becomes so luminous afterwards.

This country formerly maintained its independency as a republic, under the protection of the emperor; but in the year 1278, subjected itself in some measure to pope Nicholas II. In succeeding times it underwent several revolutions, till pope Julius II. on occasion of the Venetian war, annexed the city of Bologna, and all its dependencies, to the papal dominions in 1513. The city having freely submitted to the Romish chair, its various privileges have been preserved, and it still enjoys those of sending an envoy to the court of Rome, of having an assessor in the Rota, that no citadel must be built at Bologna, and that the effects of the citizens shall not be taken from them, upon any pretence whatsoever. In memory of their former state the word *LIBERTAS* is stamped on their coin.

The temporal government is under a cardinal, who has the title of legate a latere, and has a prelate, or vice-legate, under him. The legate himself is either changed or confirmed every three years.

The principal city in this territory is Bologna, in Latin *Bolonia*, antiently *Felsina*, which is, next to Rome, the best and richest city in all the Ecclesiastical State. It is situated in forty-four degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree forty minutes east longitude, two hundred miles to the north-west of Rome, and is of considerable extent, it being five or six Italian miles in circumference, and so populous, that its inhabitants amount to upwards of eighty thousand. It is seated at the foot of the Appennine mountains, in a fertile plain, and enjoys a wholesome air. The river Savona runs by the walls, and the Reno through the city. Among the houses are many fine buildings. In most of the principal streets they have a kind of portico, which supports the second story. These must be allowed to be very convenient in windy or rainy weather, and in shading the rooms from the sun; but they deprive them of the ornaments they would receive from a fine front, and an elegant entrance. As the pillars of those porticoes are very irregular before different houses, some being high, others low, some square or octangular, others round, some of stone and others of wood, they are of no great ornament. These porticoes, or galleries, serve only for walking, and that part of the street where the carriages pass, is considerably lower, and, in short, they resemble those of Chester. The roofs of the houses, though flat, are covered with tiles, with a kind of parapet towards the street.

The palace in which the vice-legate, the gonfaloniere, and other officers of state have their apartments, and the several boards and courts of justice are held, stands in the great market-place, and the front is two hundred and eighteen common paces in length. Over the entrance is a brass statue of pope Gregory XIII. who was a native of Bologna; it weighs eleven thousand three hundred pounds, and the workmanship does great honour to Minganti, the artist by whom it was made. On the left hand on entering the door is the statue of pope Boniface VIII. Among the apartments shewn to strangers is one called *il Salone d'Ercole*, where may be seen a noble statue of Hercules, of an uncommon size: it is of terra cotta, by the skilful hand of Lombardi. In another saloon is represented, in fresco, the most considerable achievements of the Bolognese, inscribed with Latin verses. Above this apartment is the *Sala Farnese*, so called from a marble statue



Festival or Sacrifice in Honour of Confucius.

statue of pope Paul III. who was of the family of Farnese. The cieling and walls of this apartment were painted by the best masters in Bologna, at the expence of cardinal Farnese, among which is the public entry of Paul III. into Bologna.

The Aldrovandi museum is kept in this place with such care, that it is never opened but in the presence of a senator, and consists, among other curiosities, of one hundred and eighty-seven folios, and above two hundred bags full of single leaves, all written by the indefatigable hand of Aldrovandi. This collection has been enriched with the cabinet of the marquis Cospi, which contains a great number of valuable medals. In this place are also kept the military stores and artillery, with arms for six thousand men. The physic-garden in the court is very small, and has nothing remarkable.

The area before the palace is three hundred and seventy feet long and three hundred broad, in which is a fountain that is much admired: the statue of Neptune on the top is eleven feet high. Within the basin are a great number of dolphins ejecting water, and four women with three streams issuing out at each breast. The only exception to this superb work is, that the jetteaus are in no proportion to the size of the figures.

A connoisseur in painting will meet with a great deal of entertainment in the palaces of the city: that which most gratifies a traveller's curiosity is the palace of Caprara, where he cannot but admire the double stair-case, the tapestry hangings, and the richness of the other furniture. Here are particularly many small coffers of admirable Florentine work, one that has six large and as many small pillars of rock crystal, several curious works of ivory and wood. In the gallery are some fine paintings, among which is the death of Bragadino, who was flayed by the Turks, painted on wood.

On the cieling of a saloon of the palazzo de Favi are the adventures of Jason in eighteen pieces, by the two brothers Augustino and Annibal Caracci. In another apartment are painted on the frieze twelve passages of the Æneid in fresco, by Luigi Caracci. The rest of the adventures of Æneas are painted in ten pieces by Albani; under the direction of Luigi Caracci, and his other disciples have finished the remainder; but the latter are in a different apartment, and under every picture is a Latin verse out of the Æneid, explaining the subject. Several other fine pieces of painting are likewise to be seen in this palace, and particularly some very delicate drawings with a pen.

The palazzo de Monti shews the genius of the Italian nobility for adorning their palaces with collections of paintings and other curiosities; who often abridge themselves of many of the conveniencies of life, in order to be possessed of something that attracts the admiration of other people, and especially of foreigners. The first floor of this grand edifice, consisting of above thirty apartments, which are by far the best, is never, or at least very seldom, inhabited, and then only for the reception of some person of distinction; their general use being only to display an amazing collection of paintings and other curiosities. Besides the many pieces by Albani and the Caracci's, here is a gallery painted by young Cignani, with a large piece of painting representing the raising of the siege of Turin, by Antonio Casa. In another apartment is to be seen a woman asleep, with a wanton boy laughing, while he lets down a mouse, hanging by a thread, upon her breast. In this piece the expression is very strong, and the mouse is admirably done.

The palace of Ranucci is built in a grand taste, with a noble stair-case, and spacious lofty rooms. Here is some beautiful tapestry, made at the Gobelins, and several closets full of Florentine work, silver vases, and other furniture, particularly a clock of raised inlaid work of gems, on a ground of lapis-lazuli. The height of the chapel takes up three stories of the house. Among the paintings in this palace are St. Jerome, and Joseph flying from Potiphar's wife, by Guido; the fall of Haman, by Antonio Gionima, where the beautiful figure of Esther is particularly admired; and the portraits of the great dukes of the family of Medici.

We shall now take notice of some of the ecclesiastical buildings at Bologna, and shall begin with the cathedral,

which is dedicated to St. Peter, and has a great number of monuments. On each side of the main entrance is a large lion couchant of red marble, on each of which is placed a basin of holy water. On the center arch, near the Tribuna, is a marble statue of pope Gregory XV. who was a native of Bologna. On the cieling of the chapter-room is a fine piece of painting by Luigi Caracci, representing St. Peter on his knees before the Virgin Mary: here is also the Annunciation, by the same hand, which was the last piece he painted.

St. Agnes's church is finely gilt and painted, and among the pictures is the martyrdom of St. Agnes, over the high altar, which is one of Dominichino's pieces.

In St. Anthony's church, over the great altar, is an admirable piece by Luigi Caracci, representing the preaching of the primitive hermits. On another altar is a picture of the Virgin Mary and her Divine Infant, with a group of angels hovering over her. In the oratory or small chapel near this church is a most beautiful piece representing the Annunciation, by Tiarini.

Before St. Bartholomew's church stands a marble statue of St. Petronius, by Brunelli. This church is divided into three isles, and that in the middle is of a remarkable height. All the three make a fine appearance, and are excellently painted, particularly that on the south side. Angelo Michael Colonna, as is mentioned in an inscription, from a motive of devotion, performed this grand piece, and some others, without any reward. The high altar is of beautiful marble, with some figures inlaid. The Annunciation by Albani is accounted an incomparable piece, and nothing can surpass the expression of the Virgin's admiration. Two other pieces representing the nativity, and the flight to Egypt, are also by the same master.

In the church of St. Petronius, the biggest in the whole city, is to be seen the celebrated meridian line of Cassini, which consists of pieces of red and white marble inlaid, of a hand's breadth; but those pieces in which the signs of the Zodiac are cut, are a foot square. This line is above half the length of the church, and at the beginning is a Latin inscription, which says, that the whole length of this line, which is said to be one hundred feet, is the six hundred thousandth part of the circumference of the terraqueous globe. In the arched roof of the nave is a hole directly over the noon point of this line, through which a ray of the sun entering, marks the solstices and equinoxes upon the line. However, the same operation may without much difficulty be performed in any other convenient place; the whole mystery consisting only in measuring the degrees on the line proportionably to the height of the hole through which the rays enter.

Madonna di St. Luca, on the Monte della Guardia, is a Dominican nunnery about four Italian miles from Bologna, and is much resorted to on account of a picture of the Virgin Mary, pretended to have been painted by the hand of St. Luke: on which account it is every year brought into the city in a solemn procession, with more than ordinary magnificence, attended by the firing of cannon, the several companies of artizans, the fraternities, monks, heads of the parishes, the magistrates, the gonfalonier, and the legate himself. The picture is always carried under a rich canopy, the people upon their knees saluting it as it passes by, with the most zealous ejaculations that can be conceived. For the greater convenience of the pilgrims, an arched colonnade has been built from the city to the top of the mountain, which on account of its great length may be justly esteemed the most remarkable building of that kind in Italy. In the contribution of the necessary sum for this colonnade, all the handicraft men, &c. seemed to vie with each other in the erection of a perpetual monument of their zeal for the Blessed Virgin; even the very lacquies of the city were at the expence of building fifteen of the arches. On each of the arches are the names and arms of the benefactors. One side of the arcade is walled, but in that towards the road, every arch rests upon its respective pillars. Every arch is five common paces, or twelve feet wide, which is also the breadth of the walk. The height is about sixteen feet. This arcade does not run in a straight line; but its direction is now and then interrupted with small windings,

windings, yet in many parts there are very long vistas, particularly at the grand portico near the city, from which one has a view of ninety-three arches in a direct line, which taken together are seven hundred and fifty common paces in length. There are thirty-three flights of steps to ascend the acclivity of the mountain; these flights consist of a few steps, and the space between is level and paved with flat stones.

A continual emulation reigns between the Franciscans and Dominicans, especially at Bologna; each of these orders striving to surpass the other in buildings and other external magnificence, in order to increase their revenue and authority. The Dominicans have the advantage in the splendor of their churches; but in wine cellars they have been hitherto exceeded by the Franciscans. The church of the latter is adorned with many highly finished pieces of painting, and on each side of the convent are fine arched cloisters, one of which is one hundred and thirty-three, and the other two hundred common paces in length. In the street before the convent is a pillar, on the top of which is a brass statue of the Virgin Mary, standing on a crescent.

In the Dominican convent are about one hundred and forty monks. An anti-chamber, divided into three isles, leads to the library, and on each side are statues and paintings in honour of the Dominican order, and pope Pius V. The books are very numerous, and judiciously disposed. In the lower cloister of the convent is a small chapel, said to have been the apartment in which St. Dominic, in the year 1221, departed this life. In one piece of painting in this chapel is an angel represented going up a ladder to heaven with St. Dominic on his back; but that the angel and St. Dominic may not have the ill manners of turning their posteriors towards the people, they ascend the ladder backwards. Another circumstance no less absurd, is our Saviour and the Virgin Mary standing above, holding the ladder.

Here is an university, in which are professors for oratory, philosophy, geometry, astronomy, anatomy, divinity, physic, the oriental languages, the civil and canon law, civil and ecclesiastical history, and all of them have handsome salaries. The foreign students amount to about four hundred. The public college is two hundred and thirteen paces in length. Near its entrance on the right hand is a grand stair-case, adorned with some good paintings in fresco, representing the noble actions of St. Carlo Borromeo, and other pieces. The anatomical theatre is adorned with wooden statues of the most celebrated anatomists, and the floor is boarded with cy-presses.

In the year 1712, Luigi Ferdinando de' Medici instituted at Bologna an academy of sciences, for the improvement of natural history, mathematics, natural philosophy, chemistry, anatomy, and physic. With this the Clementine academy, founded by pope Clement XI. for architecture and painting, was incorporated; and for the farther advancement of this institution, the city purchased and gave the palazza Celesti to the academy, that the library, the museum, the observatory, the schools, and the apartments of the professors, might be under the same roof. In ascending the tower you first come to the astronomical school, where is to be seen a model of the Copernican system. Here is also a perpendicular meridian line, cut through a wall a foot thick. On each side hang telescopes, quadrants, &c. so that, as the stars cross the meridian, proper observations may be conveniently made, for which purpose all the shutters in the aperture may be removed at pleasure.

Higher up the tower is the observatory, which on every side has shutters to be opened or shut as required, and a gallery on the outside. This tower is ascended by two hundred and seventy steps, and the top of it also serves for astronomical observations; and through an aperture just over the middle of the spiral stair-case, the stars may be seen in the day-time, from the vault under the tower. The library belonging to the college is in the second story, and chiefly consists of the books of count Marfigli, who founded the academy, and contains several Turkish, Arabic, and other oriental manuscripts. In another apartment is taught experimental philosophy.

The paintings with which this room is decorated represent volcanos, and other mountains of a singular quality; large islands of ice, frequent in the north seas; the cataracts of the Nile, and other great rivers. In a closet adjoining to this apartment are several load-stones, among which is one scarce so large as a man's fist, that weighs only nine ounces without the cap, yet lifts up two hundred and thirty ounces. Another apartment exhibits a variety of shells and other marine productions. Adjoining to this is a closet containing a collection of semi-pellucid stones, as agate, jasper, turquoise, chalcedony, onyx, and lapis-lazuli. The transparent stones are kept in another closet, with the name affixed to each piece. Here are also many hundred species of marble, and other stones, in separate repositories, which being well polished, and all ranged according to their different colours, make a beautiful appearance. In another room are kept several kinds of sea-weeds, corals, sponge, &c. In another, all kinds of exotic fruits, woods, leaves of plants, roots and barks of trees, gums, resins, with the seeds of all kinds of vegetables. One large room contains a variety of all kinds of animals, and another all sorts of warlike instruments.

The painting academy is on the ground-floor, and the ceiling beautifully painted. In winter those who are instructed in painting meet in a particular room, built in the form of an amphitheatre, and well illuminated with lamps, where above a hundred and fifty of them may conveniently sit and draw from the life. In the academy of sculpture are wooden models of the ancient obelisks at Rome, and in a place adjoining to it are statues and copies of the most famous originals in plaster. To this edifice is added a noble printing-house, furnished not only with Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, but also with Arabic and other oriental types.

The Bolognese ladies dress entirely in the French fashion. The women of the middle class generally appear in a black gown, with a black silk veil over their heads; and the female sex in general enjoy a greater freedom here than in most cities of Italy. One meets with many persons walking the streets with spectacles on, who are so far from labouring under any weakness of sight, that they cast their eyes about on all sides without once looking through the glasses. This fashion is of Spanish original, and is supposed to give an air of gravity, which has recommended it to the generality of the monks and clergy.

The Bolognese are famous for their vivacity and wit, and particularly for their satirical jests. However, a stranger no where meets with more civility than at Bologna; but their assiduous application to their several trades and manufactures, is a much more valuable quality.

The little river Reno, a branch of which runs through the city, turns many silk-mills. The Bologna damasks, fattins, taffeties, and velvets, are in great repute. This city also carries on a considerable trade in flax and hemp, and also supplies the neighbouring provinces with oil and wine.

The wine made about Bologna is so strong, that on its first coming from the press it is generally diluted with a fourth part of water; except that appointed for the sacrament, which is without mixture: the neat wine is to be purchased at the convents. Many ingenious works are here made of walnut-tree; for with these trees the country abounds, and the quinces are here large, and of an exquisite flavour. Bologna is likewise celebrated for essences, aqua-vitæ, soap, and snuff; but more particularly for its theriaca, which is prepared in the public elaboratory; and at Bologna rock crystal is wrought into snuff-boxes, lustres, &c.

The nuns of the city are very ingenious in making most beautiful artificial flowers of silver, silk, muslin, enamel, and isinglass. Fruits of all kinds are also imitated in wax, so as scarcely to be distinguished at first sight from the products of nature. This country indeed abounds in honey and wax, great quantities of which are exported. All kinds of provisions are here exceeding good, and in great plenty. Fowls of all kinds are in these parts very large, and of a fine flavour, especially the

the pigeons. The Bologna cervelat, and other sausages, tongues, &c. are famous, not only throughout Europe, but in the East and West Indies.

The other towns in the Bolognese are very small and inconsiderable.

S E C T. VII.

The FERRARESE, or Dutchy of FERRARA.

Its Situation, the Manner in which it became subject to the Pope, its present wretched State, and a particular Description of Ferrara, the Capital of the Country.

THE Ferrarese is bounded on the north by the Polesino di Rovigo, on the west by the dutchy of Mantua, on the south by the Bolognese and Romagna Proper, and on the east by the gulph of Venice. It had formerly its own dukes, who held this country as a fief of the papal see, till 1597, when pope Clement VIII. annexed the country to the Ecclesiastical State; since that time it lies almost uncultivated, though it was one of the finest countries in Italy. The air is unwholesome, on account of the marshes, the inhabitants being too thinly scattered to drain them.

Ferrara is an antient, large, and beautiful city, notwithstanding its being poor and ill peopled. It is seated on the Po, in the forty-fourth degree thirty-six minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree fourteen minutes east longitude, thirty miles to the north-east of Bologna. Its fortifications are of little value, except the citadel of five whole, and as many half bastions, built by Clement VIII. Within the city is a large castle, or palace, surrounded with high walls, towers, and moats, at present the residence of the legate a latere over this dutchy. At the entrance are two brass statues of two former dukes, one of whom is on horseback. The streets are long, broad, clean, and regular, with many handsome houses and palaces.

The architecture of the cathedral is in the Gothic taste, and its outside adorned with a multitude of marble pillars and bas-reliefs. Its large square steeple is also entirely of marble. The grand gate is supported with three ranges of pillars, between which are several porticos, one above another, and just above the entrance is a large gilt statue of the Virgin Mary. The chapels of this structure are finely ornamented with sculpture and painting.

Opposite the cathedral are two fine brass statues; the one is equestrian, representing Nicholas d'Este, marquis of Ferrara, with an inscription, intimating, that he thrice restored peace to Italy; the other is sitting between two small figures of brass, upon a pillar about twenty feet high, and represents Borso d'Este, the first duke of Ferrara, one of the most virtuous men in his age. This is said to have been formerly an asylum for criminals, which extended twenty paces round the statue; tho' it has now lost its protecting power. But near it is still a sanctuary; a very handsome pillar adorned with oak branches and leaves, which supports a gilt statue of pope Alexander VII. who is sitting in a chair giving his blessing.

At a small distance is another square in which is the town-house, which is adorned on every side with marble galleries and balustrades, together with several other fine structures. These two squares, with the adjacent streets, are the best peopled parts of the whole city.

The church of the Carmelites is a very spacious structure, filled with fine paintings; the most valuable of which are, a conversion of St. Paul, to whom the church is dedicated; the martyrdom of that apostle; and the adoration of the eastern magi, all in the choir.

The Benedictine convent is very fine; and its cloisters are composed of magnificent porticos. At the foot of the stair-case that leads to the dormitory, is the statue of Otho III. its founder. Its church is large, and the tabernacle of the high altar much admired for the beauty of the workmanship. It is adorned with very fine fluted columns, and the figures of several saints of the Benedictine order. In this church is the tomb of the celebrated Ariosto, the author of Orlando Furioso, and several other pieces highly esteemed. This tomb is of red,

white, and black marble, adorned with columns and statues. His bust is of white marble, and crowned with bays.

The church of the Theatines is large, and their convent very magnificent. Its library is esteemed one of the best in Ferrara, both for printed books and manuscripts.

The Chartreuse is also worthy of notice, and is adorned with very fine porticos. Its church is a large superb building, that contains many magnificent chapels, all adorned with excellent pictures. Those over the high altar, which represent the ascension and the last judgment, are by Bastianino Philippi, a native of Ferrara; but the marriage of Cana in the refectory of the convent, by Bononi, who was born in the same city, is by far the best.

The university of this city is gone to decay, and has only one college, which belongs to the Jesuits.

It must not be omitted, that in 1735 pope Clement III. raised the bishopric of Ferrara to an archbishopric, which at once put an end to the long disputes about jurisdiction between this bishopric and the archbishopric of Ravenna.

Ferrara was very rich, and possessed a great trade, while governed by its own princes, especially its three last dukes, who fortified, embellished, and enlarged it so much, that it contained upwards of a hundred thousand inhabitants; but it is at present very desolate, vast numbers of the houses being uninhabited, and falling to ruin.

In this dutchy are also Comacchio, a bishop's see, but a small place, and two or three market-towns.

S E C T. VIII.

Of ROMAGNA.

Its Situation, Produce, and History; with a Description of Ravenna, Imola, Faenza, Servia, and Rimini.

ROMAGNA, in Latin Romandiola, is bounded on the north by the Ferrarese; on the south by Tuscany and the dutchy of Urbino; on the east by the gulph of Venice; and on the west by the Bolognese and a part of Tuscany. The country produces corn, wine, oil, and fine fruits; and especially salt, from which arises its principal revenue. It has also excellent pastures, with some mines and mineral waters; but the country lies miserably uncultivated, except near the principal towns.

This country was a part of the antient province of Flaminia, which in the fifth century became subject to the Ostrogoths, whose king, named Theodoric, having taken the city of Ravenna in 493, made it his usual place of residence. In the following century the Goths being driven out by Belisarius and Narfes, generals of the emperors of the East, Ravenna became the residence of the emperor's exarch, till the Longobardi made themselves masters of it; but in 755 Pepin, king of the Franks, having compelled Istulphus, king of the Longobardi, to give up the whole exarchate, conferred it on the see of Rome. The most remarkable places in this country are the following:

Ravenna, the capital, was formerly a city of great splendor, but is now mean and inconsiderable. The houses are old and ruinous, the streets filthy, and all parts have a melancholy appearance; for the number of its inhabitants scarce amount to fifteen hundred. In the time of the Romans and Goths it stood on a bay formed by the Adriatic, and had a celebrated harbour; but at present it is three Italian miles from the sea, which is owing to the great quantities of mud thrown up by the tide, and since formed into a tract of land which is cultivated. Without the city is still to be seen a high brick tower, which formerly stood at the harbour, and one mile and a half farther a ruinous old light-house. The air is unwholesome, but has been somewhat improved by conveying along the sides of the city the rivers Montone and Ronco, which carry off the stinking water from the adjoining marshes.

The large market-place of this city is adorned with two lofty pillars of granate, upon which stand at present the statues of St. Victor and St. Apollinaris. In this

area is also erected a brass statue of pope Alexander VII. sitting, which is the usual attitude in public monuments erected to the vicars of Christ. Under an arcade in the market-place are eight small iron gates, which are said to be those taken from the city of Pavia, and set up as trophies of the valour of the inhabitants of Ravenna; but the common people are persuaded that these gates were brought from the Holy Land, and that they were those which Sampson carried away from Gaza.

On the area before the cathedral stands the statue of the Virgin Mary, on the top of a pillar erected to her in 1659, because, according to the inscription, she preserved the city more than once from the plague. The great door of the church is made of rough boards, without any ornament; but what is most remarkable is, that these boards are sawed out of vines, and some of them are twelve feet long and two spans in breadth. In the cathedral are fifty-two large marble pillars in four rows, and in the chapel of the Holy Sacrament is a representation of the children of Israel gathering manna in the Wilderness, with some other paintings by Guido Rheni.

The church of St. Apollinaris is worthy the notice of a traveller. On each side of it are twelve marble pillars, and the ceiling is an old, but beautiful Mosaic work, representing the three Eastern kings worshipping the infant Jesus, and several saints with their names inscribed over them. In the center is the head of the emperor Justinian. The sculpture and marble of the high altar are exceeding beautiful. In St. Anthony's chapel are several fine marble statues: the altar is ornamented with black marble pillars, and near the entrance are two pillars of quince-coloured alabaster. The altar of the chapel della Reliquie is decorated with four beautiful pillars of red porphyry. All the other altars in this church are of marble, adorned with many excellent pieces of painting. Great devotion is paid to the body of St. Apollinaris, and on his coffin are three silver tablets, on which are engraven a long account of his life and martyrdom.

The pavement of St. Vitalis's church is very beautiful, and the Mosaic work in the choir is extremely curious. The ceiling of the church is painted in fresco, and on the walls are painted the martyrdom of St. Vitalis. On the altar della Madonna stand three beautiful white marble statues of the Virgin Mary, and two angels. Over another altar, which is likewise of white marble, is an excellent Pieta, between two angels.

The church called the Rotonda lies without the city, and at present resembles a ruined cupola. Its diameter is about sixteen common paces, and its pavement, except in the dry summer months, is always under water. It is supposed to have been built in the year 526 by Amalasunta, daughter to Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths. The most remarkable part of it is the roof, which is in the form of an inverted dish, and consists of one single stone, which many years after this church was built was split by lightning: it is as hard as a flint, and, according to an account written on vellum, and kept on the altar of the chapel, was brought out of Egypt. The thickness of this stone is four geometrical feet, the circumference a hundred and fourteen, and the diameter thirty-one feet two inches. It is difficult to conceive, says Mr. Keyser, in what manner, at a time when the modern machines were in a great measure unknown, this huge mass, the weight of which cannot be less than a hundred tons, was raised to the top of this edifice. Round this stone formerly stood the statues of the twelve apostles, as appears from their names still to be seen on the pedestals, which project a little way from this stone roof, and in the center stood a coffin of porphyry, in which was the body of Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths.

On a fountain in the area before the pope's palace is an antient statue of Hercules, bearing on his shoulder an hemisphere that serves for a sun-dial. The club on which he leans distinguishes him from Atlas, for whom he might otherwise easily be taken.

Good spring water is extremely scarce at Ravenna; and seems to have been more so in the time of the Romans; for Juvenal thus complains:

"By a Ravenna vintner once betray'd,
"So much for wine and water mix'd I pay'd;
"But when I thought the purchas'd liquor mine,
"The rascal fobb'd me off with only wine."

After thus describing the capital, we shall mention some other places worthy of notice.

Imola, the antient Forum Corneli, is a pretty town on an island formed by the river Santerno, nine miles to the north-west of Faenza. It has a wall, moats, and towers, with a strong old castle; it is the residence of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Ravenna, and contains fifty churches, convents, and hospitals.

Faenza, in Latin Faventia, a town thirty-four miles to the east of Bologna, is seated on the river Amone, from which a canal runs through the city, and afterwards falls into the river below it. Over the Amone is a stone bridge, with towers leading to a suburb that has some fortifications, though, like those of the city, they are of no consequence. It is a bishop's see under the archbishop of Ravenna, has a fine market-place, and is famous all over Italy for the goodness of its earthenware.

Servia, a small new-built town near the sea, with handsome broad streets. It formerly stood about half an Italian mile farther from the shore; but was removed hither in the year 1703, on account of the unwholesomeness of the air. Its bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Ravenna. Up the country is a low tract of ground about two Italian miles and an half in length, and in some parts nearly as broad, into which, during the summer, the sea-water is conveyed through a large handsome canal. The heat of the sun prepares the water in this spacious reservoir for making salt, of which the apostolic chamber have the superintendency, and supply the provinces of Urbino, Ferrara, Cona, Bologna, and Romagna.

Rimini, a city on the river Marecchia, which was formerly called Ariminum, twenty miles to the south-east of Ravenna. It was once situated by the sea, as appears from the remaining mole of the old harbour near the city walls; but now it is thirteen hundred paces distant, the sea having thrown up a large tract of land that has been improved for tillage and gardening, and the harbour is so choaked up with sand, as scarce to admit of small barks. Ravenna was antiently in a very flourishing condition; but, among other calamities, suffered extremely by an earthquake in the year 1671; but it is still a bishopric suffragan to Ravenna, and is venerable for many monuments of its antient splendor. A little without the town towards Pesaro is a triumphal arch, on each front of which are two beautiful columns, and two bustos. This was erected to the emperor Augustus. Here are also the remains of an amphitheatre, and several antient inscriptions. Among its churches, that of the Franciscans is the finest. In the square before the council-house is a beautiful fountain, on which stands a small bronze statue of St. Paul. In this city is also a large library, in a very elegant structure, for the use of the public.

SECT. IX.

The Dutchy of URBINO.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and History; with a Description of the Cities of Urbino, Pesaro, and Fano.

THE dutchy of Urbino is bounded on the north by the gulph of Venice; on the south by Perugino and Umbria; on the east by the marquisate of Ancona; and on the west by Tuscany and Romagna; extending about fifty-five miles in length and forty-five in breadth. It contains fruit, great plenty of game, as well as fish; but the air is not very wholesome, nor is the soil remarkable for its fertility.

This dutchy had formerly its own dukes, of whom the last, Francis Maria, of Rovere, dying in 1631, the papal treasury took possession of his territory, the same duke having before, by will, confirmed the pope's claims, and

and in effect made over the country to him. The principal places in this duchy are the following :

Urbino, the capital of the country, is seated on a mountain between the rivers Metro and Foglia, twenty miles to the south of Rimini, and is a handsome place, where the dukes formerly resided ; and, though not large, is the residence of a legate and archbishop. The houses are very well built, and great quantities of fine earthenware are made here. The palace of its former dukes is a fine building.

Pesaro, a sea-port at the mouth of the Foglia, in a pleasant country, is a handsome clean city, which has some fortifications, and is the see of a bishop suffragan to Urbino. There is here a fountain of mineral water, which, though its jet d'eau is not extraordinary, is very convenient for the inhabitants, and is ornamented in a good taste. In its upper basin, which is in the form of a drinking-glass, are several sea-goddesses and sea-horses, which spout water from about thirty different apertures. In the great market-place is a highly finished marble statue of pope Urban VIII. in a sitting attitude. The city contains many fine churches, convents, and palaces ; and the figs of this country are reckoned the best in Italy. Round Pesaro is a fine country, divided into square inclosures by rows of trees, interwoven with vines.

Poggio Imperiale is an antient pleasure-house of the dukes of Urbino, seated on a hill about a mile from Pesaro, and is adorned with some good paintings by Genga, and a fine orangery.

Fano, a sea-port, pretty well fortified, with a harbour for small vessels, is seated about twenty miles to the east of Urbino, and derives its name from a *fanum*, or temple of Fortune, which antiently stood here. In commemoration of this, the image of Fortune is not only erected on the fountain in the market-place, but has also a place in the arms of the city. This is a bishop's see, which depends immediately on the pope, and has forty-four churches and convents. The greatest curiosity here is a marble triumphal arch in honour of the emperor Augustus, which after having withstood the injuries of time till the year 1458, was then much damaged by the cannon, during the siege of Fano. This arch had formerly three gates ; but the smallest on the left hand, in coming from the town, has been pulled down to make room for St. Michael's church, and the other is stopped by a mean house ; so that the middle gate is now the only one open. In the cathedral of Fano are some admirable paintings, representing the annunciation, the Lord's supper, and the gathering of manna, by Quercini ; and the assumption of the Virgin Mary, by Caraccioli. In the chapel of the Virgin Mary are the fifteen mysteries of the rosary, painted by Domenichino. St. Peter's church also deserves notice for its cupola, sculpture, and paintings. On the high altar are two angels of white Carrara marble, by an eminent hand ; the picture of Christ delivering the keys to Peter, by Guido Rheni ; with several other pieces. A nobleman, by the name of Torelli, has erected in the market-place at Fano a very elegant theatre for exhibiting comedies and operas, which is made use of in carnival time.

Here are also Sinigaglia, Possombrone, Borgo St. Sepulchro, St. Leo, Cagli, and Gubio, each of which is the see of a bishop, with some other small places.

S E C T. X.

The Marquisate of ANCONA.

Its Situation, Produce, and Rivers ; with a remarkable Account of the Ballani, a Shell-fish inclosed in Stones, with other Kinds of Sea-fish in the Adriatic : a concise History of the Country, with a particular Description of the Cities of Ancona and Loretto, including an accurate Account of the Casa Santa.

THE marquisate of Ancona is bounded on the north and east by the Adriatic sea ; on the west by the duchy of Urbino ; on the south by Umbria, or the duchy of Spoleto ; and on the east by the Farther Abruzzo, from which it is separated by the river Tronto ;

extending from east to west about eighty miles, and sixty from north to south.

The air is extremely temperate, and the soil so fruitful, that it has been formerly called the garden of Italy. It produces a great variety of excellent fruit, with flax and bees-wax.

This country is watered by no less than twelve rivers ; these are the Fiumefino, the Aspidio, Masone, Potentia, Lasino, Chiento, Tingo, or Tenna, Leta-Vino, Asone, Tosino, Ragnola, and Tronto.

This would be still an excellent spot, and its inhabitants very rich, had they not the misfortune to groan under the tyranny of priests. On this account it is a desert, if compared to what it was formerly ; for Pliny assures us, that after a long bloody war it submitted at last to the Romans, with upwards of four hundred thousand inhabitants.

The eastern part of Italy is much more pleasant and fertile than most parts on the west side.

All along the coast of Ancona, on the Adriatic sea, stands a range of towers, at the distance of half a mile from each other, defended by one or two pieces of cannon, in order to hinder the landing of pirates, or the corsairs of Barbary.

In the loamy shallows along this shore, and especially near Monte Comero, or Conaro, ten miles from the city of Ancona, are found the ballani, a sort of shell-fish, which, when alive, harbour in a kind of large spongy stone, and, being not unlike a date kernel, are called sea-dates. Frequently twenty or thirty of these are found in one stone. Many of these stones have little orifices on their surface ; but others have none at all, notwithstanding which the fish live and grow up in them. At Ancona they are larger than at Conaro ; but the largest do not much exceed a finger in length. When they fish for ballani, they pick up such stones as have their surface full of little holes, these being a certain sign that the fish have insinuated themselves into them : but sometimes the aperture through which the spawn, or small fry of the fish, have penetrated into the stone, happens to be afterwards stopped up so as not to be discernible, and yet they thrive very well. They have no more room than is just necessary to open their shell a little way, this having been gradually abraded by their motion, in order to make room for their growth. The only way of getting them out, is by breaking the stone ; for the passage through which they entered is much too small even for the young fry to come out at. If two or more of these shell-fish happen by their growth to come into contact with each other in the same stone, only one fish is found to be alive. The inside of the shell is white, but the outside of an ash-colour. When taken out of the stone a gut resembling a worm about the length of a man's finger, hangs to them. This is entirely white, and full of clear water, which it squirts out when pleased. Such as find a particular delicacy in the taste of these fish, say, that they do not feed on the grosser parts of the sea-water, but as it were on the subtle dew which penetrates through the stone, and thus undergoes a kind of filtration. It is very remarkable, that both the fish and the juices got from them are so luminous in the dark, that one might read by them ; and even the water into which this fish has been squeezed, when put in a glass, emits an effulgence that lasts between ten and twelve hours. Great quantities of these fish are sent to Rome, where they are reckoned dainties.

At Ancona is also a kind of sea craw-fish, called nocchia, that have some resemblance to our lobsters, but have a more delicate flavour. Their claws are less than those of a craw-fish, and the head and tail are of a very uncommon shape. The largest of these species is about four inches in length.

Among other remarkable sea animals in the harbour of Ancona is a fish called the sepi, which is probably a species of the cuttle-fish, and has a long whitish shell on its head.

In the neighbourhood of Ancona are dug out of the ground amber, sulphur, and several mineral refins. The sea near Ancona is observed to ebb and flow about a foot, or a foot and a half ; but this tide gradually abates as the Adriatic sea approaches to its junction with the Mediterranean,

anean, and increases in its northern part towards the city of Venice.

The inhabitants of Ancona, especially the female sex, so far excel those of the other parts of Italy in shape and complexion, that they seem to be a different race of people. The same may be observed of the inhabitants as far as Rimini.

With respect to the history of this country, it will be sufficient to observe, that over the city of Ancona and its district, antiently called Picenum, was formerly placed a governor, who had the title of margrave, whence is derived the appellation of the marche or marquisate of Ancona; but afterwards recovering its freedom, it continued independent till the year 1532, at which time Lewis Gonzaga, general of pope Clement VII. rendered it subject to the pope. Under the plausible pretence of defending it against the incursions of the Turks and banditti, the bishop of Carla and the above Lewis de Gonzaga prevailed on the inhabitants to permit them to build a citadel. As soon as this was done, Gonzaga having drawn out all the young men of the city, under the pretence of exercising them in arms, the perfidious bishop sallied out of the citadel with his garrison, caused the gates to be shut, seized the magistrates, and obliged them, with the rest of the inhabitants, to take an oath of obedience and subjection to the pope.

Ancona, the capital of the country, is situated in the forty-third degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the fifteenth degree east longitude; and stands on the sea between two hills, on one of which is the citadel, and on the other the cathedral. It cannot be termed small, and some parts are not unhandsome; but it is far from being so populous and wealthy as it might be, from the conveniency of its situation and the goodness of its harbour. This harbour was considerably improved by the emperor Trajan, and in commemoration thereof a triumphal arch of fine veined marble was erected to him on the mole, which still makes a beautiful appearance, it having eight fluted columns, which are still entire and very elegant. The extremity of this mole is fortified and planted with ten or twelve pieces of cannon, which contribute to secure the harbour. Over one of the gates of the city is a Latin inscription to this purpose: "Fair Probity, which built this city, delights to associate with Peace on this happy spot."

The cathedral is incrustured with marble, and from its situation affords a delightful prospect of the town and along the sea-coast. In the portico before it are two remarkable pillars resting on two marble lions. The churches, convents, and hospitals, are forty-five in number, and the bishop depends immediately on the pope. The exchange within the city is a large elegant building, and persons of all religions enjoy liberty of conscience, though the Protestants are not allowed any place of public worship: the trade, however, is but inconsiderable, and for the greater part kept up by the Jews, who amount to about five thousand, and live together in a particular quarter, where they have a synagogue, but are distinguished from the Christians by a bit of red cloth in their hats. The large lazaretto for performing quarantine stands partly on the shore and partly on the sea.

Loretto is a small town very pleasantly situated on a hill, about fifteen miles to the south of Ancona. It is two thousand paces from the sea, and with the most delightful prospect on all sides; is surrounded with deep moats and small towers, which, however, would prove but a slender defence in case of an attack. The Santa Casa, or Holy-house, which has rendered this place so famous throughout all the catholic part of Christendom, is said to be the very same in which the Virgin Mary lived with Joseph at Nazareth. According to the history of the adventures of this building, it is pretended that in May 1291 it was transported by angels through the air from Galilee to Tersato, in Dalmatia, and three years and an half after into Italy; where, on the tenth of December, 1294, about midnight, it was first placed in a wood belonging to Recanati, a thousand paces distant from the sea. Eight months after it was again removed a thousand paces nearer to Recanati; and at last, as it

were with more mature deliberation, deposited in its present place. Nothing can be more amazing than the credit given to such an absurd and ridiculous fable, by which all popish countries have been voluntarily drawn to make burthensome contributions, it being notorious, that with respect to the received chronology of this miraculous transmigration, the sacred house had been placed in Italy, and its fame much celebrated, even long before some popish writers, as St. Vincent and others, sought for it in Nazareth, and maintained that they saw it there.

The sacred house itself is built of bricks of unequal size. The length within is thirty-one feet nine inches, the breadth thirteen feet and near three inches, and the height eighteen feet nine inches at the sides; but the center of the roof is five palms higher than the sides.

On the top of the Casa Santa is a little tower, which the Roman Catholics cannot deny to have been the work of Christians; since it is contrary to all probability to imagine, that the Virgin Mary had such a tower erected upon her mean habitation. In violent tempests of thunder and lightning they ring two little bells which are hung in this tower, not doubting but that their sound will disperse any tempest, and prevent any ill effects from it.

One part of the Casa Santa may be considered as the Holy of Holies, it being separated from the other part by a silver balustrade, and a gate of the same metal. In the larger part are thirty-seven silver lamps, some weighing fifty, others eighty, others a hundred and four, and four of them weigh a hundred and twenty-eight pounds each. This part is also separated from the other by an altar, which being without a back, affords a view of the celebrated image. In this larger part is the greatest curiosity, that is, the window by which the angel Gabriel entered at the Annunciation; over which is a picture of the Crucifixion, pretended to be brought by the apostles into this house, and to have been done by St. Luke. The smaller part has the wall plated over with silver, and contains the hearth where the blessed Virgin used to dress her victuals, and over it stands her image, which is five feet high, and is said to be made of cedar by the hand of St. Luke; the infant on her right arm is also of cedar; it is not quite two palms in height; and in her left hand she has a globe. The faces of both images have been over-laid with a kind of silver lacker, which is now become quite black with the continual smoke of the lamps; so that the Virgin Mary wants only thick lips to make her a perfect Negro. The infant Jesus is dressed in a flame-coloured habit, and the Virgin Mary in an azure robe; with which she is so modestly covered, that no part of the statue is to be seen, but its face and toes. The mantle hanging down her shoulders is of the same colour, powdered with golden stars: her hair hangs on her shoulders and part of her back. On her head is a triple crown of gold, enriched with pearls and diamonds, and another is on that of the child Jesus; both the gift of Lewis XIII. king of France, and valued at seventy-five thousand crowns. The gold chains, rings, and jewels, with which the image of the Virgin is loaded, are frequently changed, and her apparel is not always the same; for on the seven days of Passion-week she is dressed in deep mourning, and has daily a fresh suit. The niche in which the image stands, is adorned with seventy-one large Bohemian topazes. On the right side of the image is an angel of cast gold, profusely enriched with diamonds and other gems, with one knee inclined, offering a golden heart embellished with large diamonds, and terminating in a flame of rubies and pearls. This piece is said to have cost fifty thousand ducats, and was offered by Maria Beatrix Eleanora, queen to James II. of England, that by the intercession of the Virgin, she might conceive a son; and it is said, that soon after she had the son who has made such noise under the name of the Pretender to the British crown. On the left side of the Virgin is a silver angel, in the same posture of reverence, offering her a golden heart crowned, and glittering with pearls, emeralds, and diamonds, likewise terminating in a flame: this was presented by the mother of the same prince. On the right hand of the Virgin

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is a silver angel, weighing three hundred and fifty-one pounds, offering on a cushion of the same metal an infant of massy gold, weighing twenty-four pounds. This was presented by Lewis XIII. king of France, for the birth of the dauphin, afterwards Lewis XIV. Seven golden lamps are continually burning before the image; one of which, presented by the republic of Venice, weighs thirty-seven pounds and a half. Under this hangs another richly set with jewels. The lamp that stands next the Virgin's face, which is held by three angels, weighs nine pounds; and another, which Francis II. duke of Modena, offered to the Virgin, weighs eighteen pounds and a half. On both sides of the niche are cupboards filled with the antient ornaments of this statue; and in a little window in the wall are some earthen-dishes said to be used by the Holy Family. Some of these vessels have since been edged with gold.

The robe which this famous image had on when it was brought from Dalmatia into Italy, is of red camblet, and kept in a glass shrine. The dish out of which it is pretended the Virgin and her divine Infant used to eat, is shaped like a shallow bowl, and of earthen-ware; but its outside is now plated over with silver. This utensil is not only kissed, but rosaries, medals, *Agnus Dei's*, crucifixes, and paper caps painted with the image of the Madonna of Loretto are rubbed against it, from a firm persuasion that they thus become an infallible remedy against the head-ach, and other disorders. An ague is said to have been perfectly cured only by drinking a little cold water out of this dish: even the oil and wax of the lamps and candles burning before the image are not without their medicinal virtues.

Notwithstanding the mean appearance of the walls within, the outside of the Casa Santa is most elegantly adorned with the finest marble; but is so contrived, that the marble structure serves only as a case for it, leaving a small interval between it and the brick walls of the Casa Santa. This is partly to be attributed to the veneration entertained for those sacred materials, and partly from an apprehension that they would not have suffered the new and unhallowed marble to be in contact with them; but would have repelled it with such violence as to endanger the lives of the workmen. This, it is pretended, formerly happened to some builders, who, from an indiscreet zeal, were going to strengthen these sacred walls by some new additions.

The marble case was begun in the year 1514, and consecrated in 1538 by Paul III. The expence of it at that time, when labour was cheap, amounted to twenty-two thousand ducats, exclusive of twenty marble statues, and four brass doors of curious workmanship, that must have cost an immense sum. One of these is, however, a false door, there being but three entrances cut through the wall. The most celebrated sculptors of that age seemed to have emulated each other in this noble structure. It is about fifty feet in length, thirty broad, and about the same height; and the two longer sides are adorned with twelve Corinthian columns, while the two other sides have eight. The intervals between the columns are filled with basso relievos finely executed, representing the most remarkable incidents in the life of the blessed Virgin. There are also ten statues of the Prophets, and above them the ten Sibyls. Among the Prophets on the south side, David, with the head of Goliath at his feet, is greatly admired by all connoisseurs: and on the north-side, in a groupe representing the espousals of the Virgin Mary, a boy playing with a dog, whilst his mother, with a child in her arms, looks at him with a countenance full of maternal tenderness and complacency, cannot be viewed without pleasure.

The treasury infinitely surpasses the Holy-house in riches. It is a spacious hall wainscotted, and the arched roof is divided by gilt compartments, beautified with excellent pictures. They were formerly glad to keep a number of works in silver in large presses of folding doors, but that metal is now laid up in heaps in private places, and perhaps for private uses; and they are now filled with nothing but pure gold, an amazing quantity of the largest and richest jewels, and such vessels and ornaments as are supposed to exceed the value of gold and gems.

The large church in which the case of the Holy house stands, as it were under a tent, is built of Istrian stone; but the front is entirely of marble finely embellished with sculpture, and over the portal is a statue of the Holy Virgin by Lombardi. The three gates on this side of the church are of brass, with beautiful basso relievos representing different histories of the Old Testament by Lombardi. Here are about twenty altars and chapels, in which all the celebrated artists gave specimens of their skill. The great cupola is supported by eight large pilasters, and on the inside is the assumption and glorification of the Virgin Mary, by Christopher Roncalli.

The font, which stands in a separate chapel, is of bronze, embellished with beautiful basso relievos, and the basin is supported by four angels, over which is painted our Saviour's baptism.

Formerly the walls of the church of Loretto were covered with multitudes of pictures and votive pieces, some of wood, others of wax or brass: but besides the coarseness of the performance and meanness of many of them, they very much darkened the church, and therefore, in 1673, the greatest part of them were removed and the silver and gold tablets employed to better uses.

Near the Casa Santa in this church is the picture of a priest offering his entrails to the Virgin Mary, and under it is a most ridiculous inscription to the following purpose: that this priest, who was a Dalmatian, and lived in the beginning of the sixteenth century, being taken prisoner by the Turks, and strongly solicited to abjure the Christian religion, so incensed them by his continually calling upon Christ and the Virgin, and promising a pilgrimage to Loretto, that they at last ripped open his breast, and putting his heart and entrails into his hands, sarcastically bid him go and perform his promise; on which he set out for Loretto, where having shewed his empty breast, and offered his heart and entrails to the image of the Virgin, he related the whole affair, and having received the sacrament died in an extacy of joy.

The number of pilgrims who annually visited this place formerly, amounted to two hundred thousand, but the Reformation has given a severe blow to indulgences, and the zeal for tire some pilgrimages is greatly cooled; so that at present the number of pilgrims who annually repair thither, seldom exceeds forty or fifty thousand. Some come on foot, and others ride on horses or asses. The female pilgrims, who can afford the expence, generally travel to Loretto in a carriage; and as large companies often travel together, many droll incidents happen on the road. As soon as they enter the suburbs they set up a singing, which continues till they reach the church. If the company be too large, the ceremony of going round the Casa Santa on their knees is omitted, and they are obliged to express their devotion in some other manner. The poorer sort of pilgrims are received into an hospital, where they are provided with beds, and have bread and wine every morning and evening for three days.

Loretto is generally without a garrison, so that it seems somewhat strange the Turks have not made greater efforts for getting into their hands the precious booty kept there, than they have hitherto done. The Roman catholics indeed affirm, that in all the attempts which the Turks have hitherto made against Loretto, they have either been repelled by some extraordinary miracle, or miscarried by a supernatural panic. But all these pretended miracles have not produced such confidence in the inhabitants as to put the affair upon such an issue; the treasure being upon the least appearance of danger sent away to Ancona, or some other place of security. But the reason why the Turks make no formal attempt upon this place may probably be owing to the shallowness of the Adriatic, which in these parts has not a sufficient depth of water for large ships to approach the shore; besides, a Turkish garrison is no sooner known to be at sea, than a strong garrison is immediately sent thither.

In going out of the church on the right hand, is a statue of Sixtus V. seated on a pedestal decorated on every side with basso relievos all of bronze. In the great

area before the church is a beautiful marble fountain, made at the expence of Paul V. to whom the city owes the fine water it receives by means of an aqueduct from a neighbouring hill. In the palace which stands in this area, the clergy, the officers of the Holy-house, and the governor of the town, have apartments, besides those appointed for persons of distinction who come hither upon pilgrimages. Here are also the wine vaults belonging to the Holy-house, which are one hundred and fifty-eight common paces in length; and in these vaults are generally kept one hundred and forty large casks of wine. Over the wine cellar are the kitchen, offices, and dispensary. In the latter are three hundred and sixty-eight gallipots, most of them very large and with covers, which are extremely valued on account of the paintings on them, said to be the work of the great Raphael. The subject of these paintings is a medley of stories taken from the Scriptures, the Roman history, and Ovid's Metamorphoses.

The arsenal is in one of the upper stories; it is pretty well furnished, and one closet is full of prohibited weapons which have been offered to the Virgin.

The trade carried on by the inhabitants of Loretto, besides what they get by entertaining strangers, consists in making and selling medals, crucifixes, images of the Virgin Mary, rosaries, painted paper caps, ribbons, &c. which are bought by the credulous Papists as amulets.

The vast concourse of foreigners occasions a great consumption of provisions in this city, and the inn-keepers are for imposing as much as they can upon strangers; but the entertainment is generally very good, and the inhabitants behave with great civility. It is observed, that the lower class of people are much more reasonable in their demands from those travellers who return from Rome, than from such as travel to that city; for they conclude that the latter are strangers to the customs of the road, and think it allowable to take all advantages of the unexperienced.

The country about Loretto, as well as the town itself, swarms with beggars; with whom it is customary in spring to strew flowers in the road, when strangers approach, who cannot see such an honour paid them, without giving a small gratuity in return for it.

There are several other towns in the marquisate of Ancona; but as they contain nothing very extraordinary, we shall omit giving an account of them.

S E C T. XI.

Of the PERUGINO, ORVIETANO, and SPOLETTO.

Their Situation, Extent, and principal Cities.

THE Perugino, or territory of Perugia, is bounded on the west by Tuscany; on the north by the duchy of Urbino; on the east by Spoleto; and on the south by Orvietano; extending about twenty-eight miles from north to south, and about thirty from east to west.

The Tiber, which runs across the country from the north-west towards the south, is the principal river; besides which there are several smaller. This territory contains a pretty large lake, anciently called Thrasimene, but at present the lake of Perugia, in which are three islands. Between this lake and a high mountain near Cortona, in the dominions of Florence, is a long valley with only one narrow entrance, where Hannibal defeated Flaminius the Roman general.

The air of this territory is very pure, and the soil fertile in corn and wine; besides, the lake supplies the country with plenty of fish.

The principal city in this province is Perugia, which is very ancient; and like its citadel is going to decay. It is advantageously seated upon a hill seventy-five miles to the north of Rome. It is the see of a bishop, and has an university that has three considerable colleges; besides which it has two academies, one of which was founded so lately as the year 1752. This city is famous for the residence of several persons of quality, and for a very

agreeable sort of white wine, as clear as rock water, with somewhat of the flavour of muscadine.

There are three or four small towns in this territory, with some villages.

The territory of Orvieto is bounded on the north and east by Spoleto, on the west by the Siennese, and on the south by the remaining part of St. Peter's patrimony and Castro. In this canton is the lake Boffena, formerly Volcini.

Orvieto, the capital of this territory, is built on a high and craggy rock near the confluence of the rivers Paglia and Chiuna, which fall into the river Tyber a little below it, twenty-six miles to the south-east of Perugia. It is an episcopal see, and has six churches and convents. Its walls are strong, though ancient, and both the cathedral and the other churches, as well as the vice-legat's palace, are very noble edifices, enriched with great quantities of marble, porphyry, stately towers and steeples, and especially paintings. The palace was built by pope Urban VIII. who also adorned several of the churches and public structures. But what is most singular in this city, is a well cut into the rock by order of pope Clement VII. to supply it with fresh water. This well is two hundred and fifty cubits deep: one descends into it by a double stair-case of five hundred and fifty steps, enlightened by seventy windows cut through the rock. The mules which bring up the water upon their backs, go down one stair-case and up the other. The town neither has nor needs any other fortifications than those solid rocks and precipices with which it is surrounded, and from which one can hardly look down without dread. The height of the city renders the air very serene and healthy, except in autumn, when they steep their hemp in the river Paglia, which causes a very offensive stench.

Aqua Pendente, a pretty large city, but indifferently peopled, stands on an eminence about twelve miles between Orvieto on the east, and Savona on the west, near the river Paglia, and was erected into a bishopric by pope Innocent X. in the year 1650, or rather the see was removed thither from Castro, which city he caused to be razed for having murdered the bishop.

There are no other places in this territory worthy of notice.

Spoleto is bounded on the north by the marquisate of Ancona and the duchy of Urbino; on the east by the Farther Abruzzo; on the south by Sabina and the patrimony of St. Peter; and on the west by Orvietano and Perugino; extending about forty-five miles in length, and forty in breadth, and abounding in corn, wine, oil, almonds, and other fruit.

This duchy, which is part of the ancient Umbria, on the extinction of the Longobardian monarchy, became subject to the Franks, and was afterwards annexed to the papal territories.

The principal places in this duchy are the following:

Fuligno, or Foligno, a small city surrounded by an old wall with port-holes, and almost of a circular form. It is situated fifteen miles to the north of Spoleto, in a pleasant plain, encompassed at a distance with a chain of beautiful hills that extend farther than the eye can reach, and that form a vast amphitheatre, interspersed with towns, villages, and country seats, that may be discerned through the trees, which are chiefly planted in straight lines, and cover part of the plain, while the spaces between them are laid out in corn-fields and vineyards. It is the see of a bishop appointed by the pope. The cathedral is dedicated to St. Felician, formerly bishop of Fuligno, but has scarce any thing remarkable, except some good paintings in fresco, and some magnificent tombs.

In the church of the nuns of St. Francis is an altar-piece by Raphael Urbino, in which the Virgin Mary is represented in all her glory, and below St. John the Baptist, St. Francis, and Cardinal Conti, first secretary to pope Julius II. who ordered it to be painted. In the Franciscan church are four bodies of saints in shrines of silver gilt, placed upon four different altars; but the most honoured of them is that of St. Angela, a lady of quality in the city of Fuligno, who made a vow of chastity,

chastity, after burying three husbands and fifteen children.

Fuligno has some fine streets, but neither the square, the town-house, the governor's palace, nor that of the bishop are worth notice. The most remarkable building in the whole town is the house of the marquis Justi, which has a grand and regular front; the inside is spacious, and the apartments well furnished.

Affisa, or Anisio, is seated on a hill about twelve miles to the east of Perugia, and though it is but small, is a bishopric in the pope's nomination. Here St. Francis was born, and his remains are deposited in a small vault under the high altar of the Franciscan church. The situation of this convent is very fine: it is said to be built on the ruins of a temple dedicated to Jupiter Paganicus; and the popes have granted such indulgences to this church, that those who enter it on the feast of St. Francis are absolved from all their sins. A great number of silver lamps are continually burning round the place where his body is deposited. The monks, among their other relics, pretend to have a piece of our Saviour's tomb, and of the pillar at which he was scourged, a thorn out of his crown, the point of one of the nails that fastened him to the cross; together with some hair, with a girdle and robe, of the Holy Virgin. The church of St. Clara is seated at the extremity of the city; but contains nothing remarkable, except an ancient picture of the cross, which it is pretended spoke three times to St. Francis.

The city of Spoleto or Spoletto, the capital of the duchy of the same name, is situated in the forty-second degree forty-one minutes north latitude, and in the fifteenth degree forty-seven minutes east longitude. It appears at a distance like an amphitheatre that terminates the beautiful plain of Fuligno, and is seated on the declivity of a hill that renders the streets very uneven. It is surrounded only by a single wall, with port-holes; and its castle is a Gothic structure, that entirely commands the place. This city contains twenty-one parish churches and a like number of convents, seventeen hermitages, and thirteen religious fraternities. The square of Spoleto is very small, and the cathedral but a mean structure, though the pavement, which is composed of small pieces of marble, curiously arranged, is very beautiful. The bishop's palace is also a mean building, and though the city is a bishopric suffragan to the pope, and is the capital of a duchy, it makes but an indifferent appearance, and is very poorly peopled.

Among the remaining antiquities of this city the most considerable are, a triumphal arch very much decayed, an aqueduct, the ruins of a palace built by Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, and those of an amphitheatre. With respect to the aqueduct, it is still entire, and conveys water into the city. It is said indeed to be of Gothic work, but it is so magnificent that it would be no discredit to the ancient Romans, and has not perhaps its equal in Europe. It joins Monte Lugo to the hill on which Spoleto is seated, and consists of ten free-stone arches between four and five hundred feet in height, from the bottom of the valley, and three hundred and fifty feet in length. What appears very singular, is their having cut a path beneath the water course on the crown of the arches, by which means they can walk from one mountain to another. At the extremity of the aqueduct is an antique head of a lion, of an extraordinary magnitude, which discharges through its mouth, with great violence, a prodigious quantity of water into a basin, from whence it runs into two others much larger, and is thence conveyed to different parts of the city.

Monte Lugo is remarkably pleasant, for it enjoys a perpetual verdure, and is plentifully stocked with fruit-trees, and springs of clear water, on which account there are said to be here above fifty hermitages.

Narni, the ancient Narnia, is a poor town delightfully situated on a high rocky mountain, forty-six miles to the north of Rome. This was the native place of the emperor Nerva, and is at present the see of a bishop, immediately subordinate to the pope. Here are some good springs, and a noble aqueduct, by which the water is conveyed to this place from the distance of fifteen Italian miles. Below the city is a valley, through which

the river Nera passes, where are the remains of a grand stone bridge over the river, built by Augustus, and contrived in such a manner as to join two opposite mountains on each side of the river.

The road from Narni to the city of Terni, extends through a delightful valley planted with rows of trees, round the trunks of which twine very thick and large vines. This country also abounds with fig-trees and olive yards. The turnips it produces, which thrive best in a gravelly soil, are so large as sometimes to weigh between thirty and forty pounds. Melons, peaches, figs, and other fruit, are also larger here than in other parts.

The famous cataract, commonly called *Cascata del Marmore*, from the mountain down which the Velino falls, being almost wholly of marble, lies about three miles from Terni, and the road to it, part of which is cut in the rock in the side of the mountain, is without rails, very slippery, and consequently very dangerous to men and horses. The spectator is struck with terror on viewing the precipices, which are of a frightful height; but the traveller is sufficiently rewarded when, on reaching the top of the mountain, he views the stupendous cataract formed by the river Velino, rushing from the mountain.

The river, after running some miles with a gentle course, reaches the declivity of its channel, which is shaded with many thick trees, covered with perpetual verdure, as are the mountains by which this is surrounded. The water no sooner reaches this declivity than it proceeds with so rapid a course, that every wave seems to press forward to overtake the former, till they rush at once with a furious noise down a steep rock, at least three hundred feet high, falling on other rocks, against which they dash and break, rising in mists, which, after hovering some time in the air, far above the level of the cataract, and the neighbouring fields, fall in a kind of perpetual rain into the adjacent valley. After this fall the waters rush into the cavities of the rocks, and then foaming, burst thro' several openings; and after rolling for some time down other precipices, at last reach the bed of the river at the bottom.

Terni, an ancient city, has several remains of structures built by the Romans, but they are chiefly in ruins. In the square is a very fine fountain cut out of the rock, on which stands a pyramid; on the sides are two statues, representing two Naiades, or river nymphs, with a large lion, which appears as if desirous of coming out of the hollow of a rock. Terni is encompassed only with a single wall, and is at present smaller than Spoleto, though better peopled. Most of the streets are badly paved, and those which run across the town are not paved at all, which occasions their being very dirty. It is the see of a bishop suffragan to the pope. The cathedral is a modern structure, and there are some convents, but they contain nothing remarkable.

The inhabitants carry on a pretty good trade in black taffeties and olive oil. Their wine is very good, and their pigeons excellent. Terni boasts of having given birth to Cornelius Tacitus, the celebrated historian, and to the two emperors Tacitus and Florianus.

Between six and seven Italian miles to the north-west of Terni, is mount Eolo, remarkable for its cool breezes, which, especially in summer, issue from the chasms in the rocks of this mountain.

S E C T. XII.

SABINA, CASTRO, and St. PETER'S PATRIMONY.

Their Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Places.

THE province of Sabina derives its name from the Sabines, whose country also included a part of the present duchy of Spoleto. It is bounded on the north by Umbria; on the east by the Farther Abruzzo; on the south by the Campania of Rome; and on the west by St. Peter's Patrimony. It is twenty-two miles in length, and almost as much in breadth. It abounds in oil and wine, and is watered by several small rivers, which render it fertile.

In this province are no walled towns; its principal place is Magliano, which is seated on a mountain near the river Tiber, thirty miles to the south-west of Spolitto. It is a small place, but is pretty populous considering its extent.

The duchy of Castro is bounded on the north by Orvietano; on the east by the river Marta; on the south by the Mediterranean; and on the west by Tuscany; and produces corn and fruit; but is ill-peopled, and worse cultivated.

The duchy of Castro and the earldom of Ronciglione was conferred by pope Paul III. on his natural son Peter Aloysius Farnese, who afterwards became duke of Parma and Placentia. His descendants held this country as a fief of the papal chair, till Adoard mortgaged it to the Monte di Pietà at Rome; but paying neither principal nor interest, pope Urban VIII. sequestered the land, and took upon himself the liquidation of the debt. Adoard, indeed, afterwards found means to make himself again master of the country; but it was taken from his son by pope Innocent XI. and the money lent not being repaid at the appointed time, this duchy was, in 1661, again annexed to the papal chamber. In 1664, Lewis XIV. king of France, prevailed on the pope to allow a farther term of eight years for the redemption of the land; but even when that was expired, nothing was effected. On the other hand, Don Carlos laying claim to it in 1732, offered to pay the loan; but the pope refused to agree to it, and it continues united to the papal dominions.

The principal places in this duchy are the following:

Castro, formerly a genteel city, and a bishop's see; but the inhabitants having murdered the bishop sent them by pope Innocent X. his holiness, in 1646, removed the bishopric to Aquapendente, and ordered the town to be demolished.

In this duchy are also Farnese, Montalto, Valentano, and other small places. To this duchy likewise belong the islands of Bisentina and Mantana, which lie in the lake of Bolsena. Each has a church; and in one of them it was that Amalasunta, daughter to Theodoric king of the Ostrogoths, was kept prisoner by her cousin Theodat, with whom she had shared the government, and afterwards, by his orders, was murdered while she was bathing.

St. Peter's Patrimony, formerly called Etruria Suburbicaria, was given to the see of Rome by the countess Matilda. This grant is said to have been made in the year 1077, under Gregory VII. and in 1102, renewed to Paschal II. But granting the truth of this account, it is evident such alienations to the prejudice of the Roman emperor and empire were not founded in justice.

This country is bounded on the north by Orvietano; on the east by Umbria and Sabina; on the south by the Campania of Rome; and on the west by the sea; it being about thirty-five miles in length, and thirty in breadth.

The principal places in this province are the following:

Bolsena, a small town, most delightfully situated near the lake of the same name, which is thirty-five Italian miles in circuit. The mountains which environ it are covered with oaks, and afford the prospect as it were of an august amphitheatre. Here is said to have been wrought by a host the miracle which gave occasion to the institution of the festival of *Corpus Christi*. Near this place are seen, on an eminence, the ruined walls of the Etrurian city Volturnum.

Monte Fiascone is seated upon a mountain; but would be little known, were it not on account of its white muscadell wine, which, however, seldom comes to perfection. Its bishopric is incorporated with that of Corneto, and immediately subject to the pope. Near this city, in the church of St. Flavian, is a monument said to be erected to the memory of a German, who unhappily was so delighted with the wine of this city, that he drank himself into a fever, which soon carried him off; but has the honour of being buried before the altar, he having left six hundred scudi, or a hundred and twenty-seven pounds ten shillings sterling, to the church and the

poor, the interest of which is annually distributed to the poor in bread and cheese.

Viterbo, the capital of the country, is situated in the forty-second degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree thirty-nine minutes east longitude, and was given to the pope by the empress Matilda, in memory of which donation an inscription on stone is fixed on the town-house. This city lies in a beautiful and fertile valley: it is large, the streets for the greater part are broad and well paved, and the houses are handsome. The inhabitants, however, scarce amount to fifteen thousand, though there are sixty-nine churches, convents, and hospitals. The bishop is immediately under the pope. Among the several fountains in the city, that in St. Lucia's square is justly admired as the most elegant for the workmanship, and affords the best water. In the cathedral are the monuments of four popes. The Franciscan nuns pretend to shew the body of St. Rosa di Viterbo, which is uncorrupted, and dried up like a mummy. At the distance of an Italian mile from the city is a handsome church dedicated to the Virgin, with the surname *della Quercia*, resorted to by a great number of pilgrims; and near it is a Dominican convent.

Here are two academies; one styled *Gli Ostinati*, or the Obstinate, whose emblem is a pyramid beat on every side by the winds, and the motto *FRUSTRA*: the other, styled *Gli Ardenti*, the Fiery, whose emblem is an ingot of gold in a crucible over a furnace, with the motto *DONEC PURUM*. The government of this place is commonly given to some favourite bishop or cardinal, who is obliged to keep a noble house and equipage, and to entertain all the cardinals and men of a public character that come hither. The town is divided into sixteen parishes. Some good hospitals are likewise here, especially those for orphans and foundlings.

At the distance of two or three miles to the north-east of Viterbo, stands a most delightful villa belonging to the duke of Lanti, which has this peculiar advantage, that of the many dukes who have succeeded each other in this seat for some hundred years past, not one has neglected to improve it; and accordingly this palace abounds in fine pictures, antique statues, and rich furniture; and nothing of the kind can exceed the fountains, grottos, canals, walks, arbours, and groves, in the gardens.

The adjacent country is naturally rich and fertile, and where it is well cultivated, produces great plenty of corn, oil, fruit, rice, and pulse; notwithstanding which, except where there are some villas, it is a perfect solitude, without houses or inhabitants, and the very roads so unfrequented, that one may ride many miles without meeting any body.

Civita Vecchia, a fortified sea-port, and the best in the papal dominions, is seated in the forty-second degree ten minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree ten minutes east longitude, and obtained its name in the following manner: in 854, pope Leo IV. built a new town, which, from its own name, he called Leopolis, and peopled it with the inhabitants of Centumcella, which the Moors had sacked; after some time the inhabitants returning to their former place of abode, repaired it, and hence it was called Civita Vecchia, or the Old Town. The remains of Leopolis are still to be seen at six miles distance. Pope Urban VIII. caused this city to be regularly fortified, and besides, it has a strong old castle, that stands by itself in the sea. The port is not quite sheltered from all winds, but has a spacious dock for ships, and an artificial mole, at the end of which is a strong high tower, which at once defends the entrance into the port, and serves as a light-house. The place is in good condition, but thinly inhabited, the air being unwholesome, and good water very scarce; but this last inconvenience has in some measure been remedied by means of a canal. Here are some good churches and other edifices, and here commonly lie the pope's galleys. This city would greatly lessen the trade of Leghorn, was it declared a free port.

Civita Castellana is a small town, of mean appearance, situated on a very high and steep rock, near the confluence of the Frigia and Tevere. This was the ancient Falerios, once the capital of the Falisci. Its bishopric is united

united to that of Orta. Pope Clement XI. caused a bridge of an uncommon height to be built here, by which the rock on which the city stands, has a communication with the opposite mountain; so that a person may cross directly over, without going down into the valley, which is of a considerable depth.

There are several other towns in this district, none of which deserve a particular description.

The earldom of Ronciglione, which is entirely included in St. Peter's Patrimony, belongs to the duke of Parma. Ronciglione, the principal town, is but small; and is seated at a small distance from the Lago di Vico, anciently called the lake of Cyminus.

The palace of Caprorola, which belongs to the duke of Parma, stands at the distance of ten Italian miles from Viterbo, in the way to Rome, but out of the post road. It was built in the sixteenth century, by cardinal Alexander Farnese; its outward figure is a pentagon, resembling a citadel; but the inward court, which has a gallery round it, is quite circular, and yet the apartments are square and well contrived. The whole art of this singularity consists in the different thickness of the walls. The top of this structure affords a prospect as far as the city of Rome, which may be perceived, though at twenty-eight or thirty miles distance. In this palace is a most superb stair-case, and it is likewise famous for a whispering-hall, in which four persons standing close to the wall, opposite to each other, may converse without being heard by a fifth standing in the center. A stamp with the foot on the floor of this hall, sounds to those who are without, like the report of a pistol. Several apartments have their ceilings and friezes painted by the two Zuccaros, who, particularly in the cardinal's bed-chamber, have shewed their admirable skill and judgment.

The gardens of Caprorola are also elegantly designed, and finely embellished with proper ornaments.

S E C T. XIII.

The CAMPAGNA DI ROMANA, or CAMPANIA of ROME.

Its Situation, Extent, and fertile, but desolate soil, with a particular Description of the City of Rome, and the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants.

THE Campania, or territory of Rome, anciently called Latium, is bounded on the north by Sabina; on the east by Abruzzo; on the south by Terra di Lavoro; on the south-west by the Mediterranean; and on the west by the Mediterranean and the Tyber; extending sixty miles in length on the Mediterranean, to the frontiers of Naples.

It is divided into Campania Proper, which lies on the north side between the river Anio, and the ridge of the mountains of Segni, and is a very mountainous tract, and into the southern or maritime side, called la Marina; which extends from east to west, between those mountains and the sea-coast.

The waters of this territory are generally very good, especially those of the Tyber. Here are also two other rivers, the Numico and Astura, and several lakes.

This country is blessed with a very fertile soil, but for want of cultivation the inhabitants are wretchedly poor. It has delicious plains of considerable extent with scarce so much as a village, so that the few inhabitants are obliged, in order to get in their harvest, to employ the peasants of Viterbo, Perugia, and other hilly parts of St. Peter's Patrimony. It is, however, observable, that, in general, the plains are not the places chosen for building; but rather the hills, for the sake of coolness. The air is here very unwholesome, which is partly occasioned by the fens and lakes, the indolence and sloth of the inhabitants, who take no pains either to drain the marshes or to cultivate the dry lands, which are in a manner deserted, to which may be added, the many towns and villages that lie in heaps of rubbish, and harbour great quantities of stagnated water, which

contributes to corrupt the air. After the wind has been a long time in the north, and suddenly shifts to the south, or when a strong south wind blows, attended with cloudy weather, the season is very sickly at Rome; this is, however, an observation not peculiar to Rome, but to all Italy. That Rome itself is not remarkably unhealthful, may be concluded from the great number of its inhabitants, who live to a great age; and even one third of the cardinals are computed to arrive at their eightieth year.

Rome is a very ancient city, situated in the forty-first degree forty-seven minutes north latitude, and in the third degree five minutes east longitude, seventeen miles from the Tuscan sea. It was formerly considered as the capital of the whole world, and revered as the residence of its mighty emperors. Indeed, it may still be said to be the most remarkable city upon earth for pomp, noble edifices, antiquities, curiosities, the constitution of its court, and the importance of its history. In short, it is the center of all that is fine in sculpture, painting, and architecture.

The origin of Rome is dated 753 years before Christ, at which time Romulus first built on mount Palatine. Its figure and situation have been several times changed, especially since the seven principal sieges it sustained, in which it was sacked by the Gauls, Vandals, Herulians, Ostrogoths, the Visigoths, and the German armies, particularly in 1527, under the command of Charles of Bourbon. At present the seven hills on which it was originally built are scarce distinguishable, it standing rather on twelve, and being enlarged on one side, while other parts lie in ruins. Indeed modern Rome stands higher than the ancient, the present city standing upon the ruins of the former; and the earth being washed from the hills, the very cause that has raised the low grounds, has contributed to sink those that were higher.

It is environed with a brick wall, which probably is not of a more ancient date than the time of Belisarius, and is computed to be about ten Italian miles in compass; but not one half of this space is built upon, the places which once boasted the noblest structures being now wastes, gardens, fields, meadows, and vineyards. The greatest part of the ruins of ancient Rome is seen behind the Capitol. In the year 1714 the number of inhabitants, according to a list taken by order of Clement XI. was found to be one hundred and forty-three thousand.

In the beauty and magnificence of the religious buildings and palaces, modern Rome far surpasses the ancient. The parish churches alone amount to eighty. Most of the houses are of brick; but those of the better sort have the doors, windows, and supporters of free-stone. Upwards of two-thirds of the houses are the property of the churches, convents, and alms-houses, to which new purchases are continually annexed. The streets are well paved, and some of them with brick; but they are neither kept clean nor illuminated.

No place in the world is so well provided with fountains as this city, it having not only very good springs, but being supplied with water by means of some superb and stupendous aqueducts, the principal of which at present are those of Aqua Felice and Aqua Paulina; the former is conveyed thither from the district of Palestrina, at the distance of twenty-two Italian miles, and does honour to pope Sixtus V. its founder. It discharges itself at the Fontana di Termine, which was also built at the expence of Sixtus V. and consists of three arches, supported by four Corinthian columns, and the water gushes out at three apertures. Over the middle arch stands a beautiful statue of Moses striking the rock with his rod; over another arch is a basso relievo of Aaron leading the people to a miraculous spring in the wilderness; and the third shews Gideon trying his soldiers by their drinking at a river. Round it are four lions, two of which are of marble, by Vacca; the other two of oriental granate, and are said to be brought hither from a temple of Serapis; all the four lions eject water.

The Aqua Paulina, so called from its restorer pope Paul V. is conveyed the distance of thirty miles, and divides itself into two main channels, which supply different parts of the city.

These pure limpid streams are of singular benefit to the city, as the water of the Tyber is generally so thick and muddy, that even horses are not watered at it; but after two or three days standing, it works itself clear, and becomes fit for drinking. The bed of this river being raised by the many ruins of houses that have fallen into it, and its mouth much choaked up, it frequently overflows, especially with a strong south wind.

The academies and learned societies for the promotion of arts and sciences are very numerous, and among them are the academies of geography, history in general, the Roman history, church history, Roman antiquities, liturgical or old ecclesiastical rites and councils, which four last were instituted, or rather revived, by the late pope Benedict XIV. also academies of painting, sculpture, architecture, &c. some of which have whimsical titles, as, *li Fantastici*, *li Parthenici*, *li Lyncei*, *li Congregati*, *li Infecondi*, the Arcadians, &c.

It would be difficult to enumerate all the convents, chapels, oratories, hospitals, seminaries, &c. in Rome, we shall therefore only mention the principal.

St. Augustine's church is small and dark, but adorned with some fine paintings, among which is a picture of the prophet Isaiah, by Raphael, which is exceedingly admired. In the Pamphilii chapel is a statue of St. Thomas of Villa Nova, in white marble, who is represented giving alms to a poor woman suckling an infant: the drapery is esteemed inimitable, as is also the woman's face. The tabernacle on the high altar is made of amethysts, agate, jasper, and a variety of other gems, with fine pillars of alabaster, beautifully variegated with red and white, resembling flowers. On the high altar is a Madonna, said to be done by St. Luke; but Mr. Keyser observes, that he has seen so many of his pieces in different places, that it is difficult to conceive how that evangelist could find time for any thing else, and adds, that though people of a certain devotional taste place an inestimable value on these spurious pieces, he never met with a connoisseur who did not greatly prefer those of Raphael, Rubens, and Vandyke, to them. Even the famous painter Carlo Maratti, who was a sound catholic, made no scruple of declaring, that had he lived in St. Luke's time, he could have given him some necessary instructions for mending his hand.

St. Agnes's church, within the city, on the Piazza Navona, though not very large, is superbly embellished; and the palaces on both sides being alike in symmetry and architecture, add greatly to its outward appearance. It is of an oval figure, and within it are eight large Corinthian columns, of red and white marble, many bas-reliefs, of which those over most of the altars are of one block of marble, though very large. That on the high altar is a representation of the birth of John the Baptist, and contains a group of twenty figures, twelve of which are in alto-relievo. From this church you descend to the Loci Turpitudinis, as it is called, where St. Agnes was in danger of being ravished by two soldiers, when they were restrained by a sudden effulgence of light, and the hair of her head grew to such a length as to shroud her whole body and conceal her nakedness; which is represented in a marble basso-relievo, at an altar said to be erected on the spot. In this piece the beauty of the martyr's face is much heightened by her fear and modesty. The cupola of this church is finely painted; but is thought to be too much crowded with saints and angels.

The church of St. Andrea della Valle is famous for its fresco painting, especially the cupola, by Lanfranco, which represents the felicity of the saints and the glory of heaven, and passes for the noblest piece of the kind in the whole world. The finest chapel in this church is on the right hand, just at the entrance. Beside the rails of the altar of red and yellow marble, one sees every where a profusion of verde and nigro-antico, jasper, agate, and lapis-lazuli. The basso-relievos, and six marble statues representing so many virtues, are well worth seeing. Some of the other chapels are not inferior to this.

The front of St. Bibiana's church was designed by the chevalier Bernini, who also made the incomparable marble statue of this saint, which stands upon the high altar,

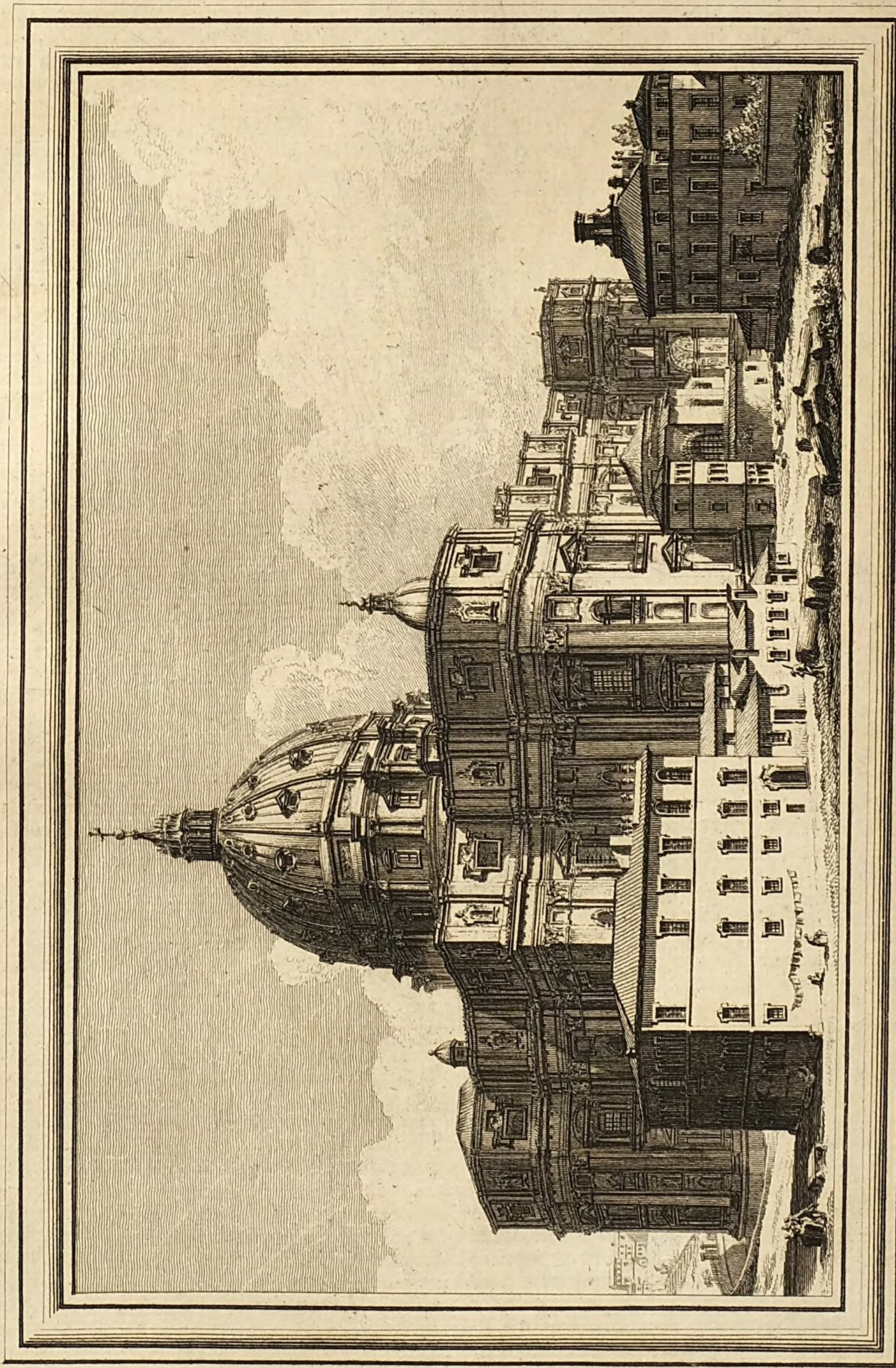
and is admired as the master-piece of that artist. Under this fine statue lies the saint's body in a sarcophagus, or coffin, of oriental alabaster; and near the church-door is a red pillar of Egyptian marble, with a Latin inscription, that to this pillar St. Bibiana was bound, when she suffered martyrdom, being whipped to death with thongs charged with lead.

St. Constanza fuori di Porta Pia is of a round figure, and the roof is supported by twenty-four pillars of oriental granite standing in pairs. The ceiling is of ancient Mosaic work, representing birds, grapes, and the pressing of them, from whence some conjecture that this was anciently a temple of Bacchus; while others maintain, that Constantine the Great erected this structure in imitation of the Lateran Baptistry, for the solemnity of baptizing the two Constantias, his daughter and sister. But what is most remarkable here, is a large coffin of a single piece of porphyry, four feet in depth, eight feet and an half in length, and above five broad. On the sides are carved wreaths, garlands, and boys with bunches of grapes, which is the more curious from the difficulty of working porphyry, on account of its hardness. The lid is also made of one piece, but damaged. Some think this to have been the tomb of Tulliola, Cicero's daughter; and others will have it to be that of Tullia, the wife of Tarquin the Proud.

The Jesuits church is one of the finest in Rome; the front is of a kind of free-stone found near Tivoli, adorned with Ionic and Corinthian columns. It has several magnificent chapels, the most noble of which is that of St. Ignatius Loyola. The pavement about the altar is inlaid with festoons and flowers of the finest gems; the steps are of porphyry and other costly marble; and the place where the priest stands before the altar, is of inlaid work of polished gems. Under the table of the altar lies the body of St. Ignatius, in a coffin of brass gilt, and by means of a lamp burning behind it, the name of JESUS of inlaid crystal in the front emits a great lustre. The front of the altar on festivals is covered with solid silver, but has an aperture through which the coffin and radiant name may be seen. A little above the table are two gilded angels, holding St. Ignatius's motto, *ad maiorem Dei gloriam*, that is, "To the greater glory of God," of lapis-lazuli. On the altar-piece are four fluted columns, which, exclusive of the pedestals and capitals, which are of brass gilt, are twenty-eight feet in height, inlaid with lapis lazuli. Over the altar is a picture painted on wood, which may be lowered, and then exhibits a silver statue of St. Ignatius Loyola, which stands behind it, the drapery of which is gilt and enriched with pearls and diamonds. On each side of the altar is a fine group of statues in Carrara marble; one represents the Christian religion destroying idolatry, which is represented by a serpent blasted with lightning, and near it is the king of Bungo in Japan, submitting to the Christian faith. In another group Religion is seen treading on a Fury and Heresy, who has a snake in her hand, and near her lie three books marked with the following titles: Martin Luther, John Calvin, Huldreich Zwingli.

St. Peter's in the Vatican, both for size and beauty, may be called the metropolitan church not only of Rome and Italy, but of the whole world. Here may be seen to what an amazing pitch the Romish church, which is so fond of external pomp and splendor, has within two centuries carried its favourite scheme of captivating the senses, and inspiring the minds of the ignorant with awe and submission to the clergy. Fontana computes that in his time it had cost above eighty millions of Roman scudi, about two millions sterling.

Nothing can be imagined more grand and superb than the area before the church. The oval colonnade round it has four rows of columns, forming three separate walks. This colonnade consists of three hundred and twenty columns made of Tivoli free-stone, so large that three men can scarce grasp them. On the roof, which is flat, stand eighty-six statues of so many saints, twice as big as the life, all designed by Bernini. The area is adorned with two stately fountains, and in the center stands the vast granite obelisk which formerly belonged to Nero's Circus, and in Caligula's time was brought



Hooker Sculp.

A View of St. Peters at Rome.

brought from Egypt to Rome, though it is said to weigh nine hundred and ninety-two thousand seven hundred and eighty-six pounds, and the height of it is eighty feet, exclusive of the base, which is thirty-seven. Four lions which support the obelisk are placed on the pedestal, and are of gilt bronze. The cross on the top, which is seven feet high, and is of gilt brass, is said to have in it a piece of the cross on which Christ suffered; and whoever, in passing by it, says a Pater Noster, and Ave Maria, for the prosperity of the see of Rome, is entitled to an indulgence for ten years, and ten times forty days. The steps from the area up to the church have at the bottom on each side the statues of St. Peter and St. Paul. At the top of these steps is a grand portico two hundred and sixteen feet in length, and forty in breadth. Eight columns scarcely to be grasped by five men, together with several others of fine Teverino stone, support the architrave. On each side of the five entrances into the portico stand two Ionic columns of purple marble. The portico itself is paved with the finest marble, and the ceiling is embellished with stucco-work and gilding. On the right hand near the steps is an equestrian statue of Constantine the Great, whose joy and surprize at the appearance of the effulgent cross in the sky is admirably expressed. Opposite to this on the other side is an equestrian statue of Charlemagne cut out of a single block of marble. From the portico four doors open into the church, of which the farthest on the right hand is walled up and opened only once in twenty-five years, that is at the jubilee, and then the ceremony is performed by the pope himself with a hammer.

This incomparable church is built in the form of a Latin cross, and the proportion is so exactly observed in the length, height, and breadth, that the eye cannot perceive any thing extraordinary large in any of the three dimensions, though the whole taken together be of an uncommon bulk and extent. The breadth of the middle isle, which runs the whole length of the church, is eighty-six English feet; but the whole breadth of the church, exclusive of the thickness of the walls, is two hundred and ninety-one feet. Its length to the cross isle is four hundred and thirty-eight feet, and its breadth seventy three. The height of the church, from the pavement to the roof, is one hundred and forty-four feet. It is universally agreed, that the cupola is a work of astonishing art and grandeur. The height from the pavement of the church to the top of the cross, is four hundred and thirty-two feet. The outward circumference of the dome is six hundred and twenty feet, and the inward diameter a hundred and forty-three. This dome was built under the pontificate of Sixtus V. The honour of the undertaking and the design is owing to the great Michael Angelo, who hearing some persons crying up the Rotunda as a work of antiquity never to be paralleled, said he would not only build a dome equally large, but build it in the air. Giosoppe d'Arpino drew the designs for the Mosaic ornaments of the cupola, among which the four Evangelists, in four large oval compartments, are particularly admired. This amazing structure rests on four pillars, each of which is adorned with a white marble statue, over which is a gallery, from whence several times in the year the relics, which are kept in a particular chapel, are exposed to public view.

To return to the entrance, at the two first pillars, which stand opposite each other, are two shells or basins of yellow marble for holy water, held out by two angels of white marble. This work is large and beautiful. The high altar, at which the pope alone is to officiate, stands in the middle of the cross isle, and directly under the center of the cupola, and first attracts the eye. Over this altar is a canopy of gilt bronze, embellished with four angels and a crucifix, and resting on four large twisted brass pillars. There are a great number of chapels finely ornamented with sculpture, painting, and the most beautiful Mosaic work.

The farther end of the church is taken up with the altar of St. Peter, where they pretend to have the wooden pulpit of that apostle inclosed in another of gilt bronze, and supported by the statues of St. Chrysostom, St. Athanasius, St. Augustin, and St. Ambrose, all four very large and of gilt bronze, standing on four stately marble pedestals. Over the pulpit is a glory of the same metal.

and in the center the Holy Ghost in the form of a dove. Before this altar stands a large bronze lamp made by order of Clement XI. who granted to all the religious orders the privilege of having the image of their founders placed here. The statue of St. Dominic is cut out of a single block of marble, which, before it came into the sculptor's hands, cost two thousand crowns. His countenance and attitude express the vehemence and rigour which influence his disciples in the proceedings of the inquisition; and at his left side is a dog, with a flaming torch, which is the arms of that dreadful tribunal. Opposite to it is the statue of St. Francis; but the other orders have not yet taken advantage of the pope's grant.

In short, the altars of this church amount to twenty-nine. The pavement is entirely of marble, and there are in this church about a hundred and eighty large marble pillars; the square pilasters are incrustated with red marble, adorned with white medallions and busts of the popes. Every thing is kept with such neatness and order, that it looks like a new-built church, and upon the least appearance of any dust on the walls and ceiling, people are drawn up in machines, who wipe it off with linen cloths.

Adjoining to St. Peter's church, on the north side, is the spacious palace of the Vatican, in which are said to be twelve thousand five hundred and twenty-four rooms. But this palace having been built and enlarged at different times, there is not the least symmetry observed in its several parts, and, to avoid damaging the fine area of St. Peter's church, it has not so much as a portico in front. Over one of the doors is a Mosaic work of the Virgin Mary, with St. Peter and St. Paul. From hence, by ascending a pair of stairs, which lead to the grand apartments of the palace, you have a view of three galleries over each other, in which Raphael immortalized his name by his amazing skill. The middle gallery leads into an apartment called Raphael's Bible, from the histories of the Old and New Testament, painted by that great artist. This gallery is divided into several vaulted compartments, each filled with exquisite painting in fresco. Among these pieces the portrait of Eve, by Raphael, is much admired. The Judgment of Solomon is a capital piece, as is also the Lord's Supper.

But the place where Raphael's skill shines in its greatest glory, is the Camera della Signatura, and the three adjoining rooms. The first of these apartments has four large emblematical pieces. The first contains the chief articles of the Romish faith, the Trinity, Transubstantiation, &c. the second the Sciences, with the progress of the human mind in philosophy, mathematics, and astronomy, on which account this piece is usually termed *The School of Athens*: the third is of poetry; and the fourth of justice, prudence, and other moral virtues.

Over the door of the Sala Ducale is an angel holding the keys, and another the papal crown. In this apartment, which was designed by Bernini, the pope on Maunday Thursday washes the feet of thirteen poor priests of different nations. The stucco curtain, which seems tied to the ceiling, is so happily executed, that it has all the appearance of white silk, embroidered and fringed with gold. Here the pope also holds consistories, and gives audience to the ambassadors of crowned heads.

The Sala Regia opens into the chapel of Sixtus IV. and is a spacious room, with a beautiful pavement of inlaid marble. The hangings are very fine, and the prophets, sybils, and other paintings in fresco on the ceiling, are by Michael Angelo; but the piece most admired is that of the last judgment by that admirable artist, who has introduced such a multitude of figures, with their limbs and attitudes so accurately delineated, that one would imagine his chief intention was to display his exact knowledge in anatomy. But on this solemn occasion he has ridiculously introduced the heathen fables of Charon and Minos.

The summer apartments of the pope are usually hung with crimson silk damask, and those for winter with velvet. In most of the rooms are to be seen several wooden chairs and benches painted green and varnished, which under all the revolutions of the state remain unaltered, only on the accession of a new pontiff to the papal chair the name and arms of the deceased pope are taken away to make room for those of his successor. The cardinals and ambassadors at an audience sit on chairs, and princes

on the like occasion sit upon three cushions laid upon one another; whilst persons of an ordinary class kneel. In the audience-chamber on each side of the papal throne is a red stool for kings; but for these two last centuries crowned heads have not been ambitious of that honour: even the pretender to the British crown never had any other than private audiences of the pope, and then sits in an arm-chair.

It is observable, that several of the stair-cases of the Vatican, if they may be so called, are either without or with very low steps; so that wood, water, and other necessities may be carried up and down by asses.

The Vatican library is extremely famous. It is not indeed very remarkable for printed books, the whole number scarce amounting to more than twenty thousand volumes; but in excellent manuscripts, of which it is said to contain above twenty-five thousand, it is esteemed the most valuable in all Christendom.

Directly under the library is the armoury, built by Urban VIII. and is said to contain arms for forty thousand men; but being chiefly such as were used in antient times, they are now of little use.

In the middle of the palace is a spacious square surrounded with orange trees and antique statues, the most famous of which is that of Laocoon, which is said to have been performed by those excellent artists Agasander, Polydorus, and Athenodorus, natives of Rhodes. In this group Laocoon is represented in the greatest agony with his eyes lifted up to heaven: near him are his two sons, with serpents twined about them, who are at some distance from their father, and expiring when he comes to their relief.

As the Vatican joins on one side to St. Peter's church, on the other a colonnade leads to the castle of St. Angelo. This castle was formerly the burial-place of the Roman emperors, and a large round tower in the center of the edifice was once adorned with a considerable number of marble columns and statues; but most of them were broken by the Romans, who made use of them against the Goths, when they assaulted the city. When Rome was visited with the pestilence in the reign of Gregory the Great, in a general procession, where the pictures of the Virgin Mary, painted by St. Luke, were carried, the pope, it is pretended, saw an angel directly over the castle; who, upon the pope's looking up, sheathed his flaming sword. This Gregory supposed to be a sign of the cessation of the divine wrath, and therefore built a chapel in honour of the angel, ordering the place itself to be called *Castellum St. Angeli*, or the Castle of the Holy Angel. Rome being without a citadel, or any regular fortifications, this castle has been rendered a place of security, and fortified in the modern way, with five regular bastions, ramparts, moats, &c. The governor is appointed by the pope, and is generally a prelate, who enjoys other considerable offices; the garrison consists of two hundred regulars, and some hundreds of citizens. In this castle is a handsome hall adorned with gildings, fine paintings, and Adrian's statue. The apartment to which Clement VII. withdrew, amidst the disturbances which he had brought upon himself, by provoking the emperor Charles V. is at present a state prison for persons of rank, who, through a small window, may look into the chapel and hear mass. On the top of this structure stands an angel of white marble about twelve feet high.

The church of St. John de Lateran is so called from its chapel of St. John the Baptist, and the Roman martyr Plantius Lateranus, put to death by Nero, who had a garden in this place. It is of an octangular figure, and bears the title of the head and mother of all churches; and as it is one of the four churches enjoined to be visited every jubilee year, it has a gate walled up, which at the commencement of that year is opened by the cardinal arch-priest. On the feast of St. John the Baptist here are plenary indulgences for twenty-nine thousand years. The pavement of this church is of fine inlaid work, interspersed with circular pieces of porphyry. Both here and at St. Peter's are confessionals for different nations; and, by proper inscriptions over them, every one may know where to apply to a priest who understands his language. The roof is very richly gilt, and the cupola is adorned

with eight pieces of painting, by Andrea Sacchi, and the painting in fresco in the church by Carlo Maratti, Gimignani, Camassei, and Magnoni. Along the middle aisle are twelve large statues of the apostles, each cut out of a single block of white marble, and done by the best masters. There are two pillars of verde antico between every two of these statues. Over them are basso-relievos; and above these are the pictures of as many of the prophets.

Before this church is a beautiful fountain, and the largest obelisk in Rome, it being, exclusive of the pedestal and the iron cross on the top, a hundred and twelve feet in height, and two of the sides ten feet and a half, and the other two eight feet in breadth near the base. At first it consisted of a single piece of Egyptian granite, and stood in the Circus Maximus; but amidst the subsequent wars and commotions it was broken into three pieces, and lay on the ground till the year 1588, when Sixtus V. gave directions to his architect Fontana, to remove it thither, and set it up again. The Egyptian hieroglyphics upon it have afforded the learned a large field for exercising their skill. The vestry of the Lateran church leads to the cloisters of the convent, which, on the side towards the inward court, have an elegant variety of small white marble pillars. Both here and in the church are a multitude of fictitious relics not worth describing.

On the other side of this piazza, or square, is the Lateran hospital, a handsome and well contrived building, where some hundreds of patients of both sexes are carefully attended, and commodiously lodged. In this square is also to be seen the *Scala Santa*, or holy stairs, said to be those of Pilate's house, which Christ frequently ascended, before he was led to be crucified, which nobody are permitted to ascend but on their knees: however, there are stairs on each side, by which men are allowed to walk up to the *Sanctum Sanctorum*, or Holy of Holies, a small chapel at the top, in which are abundance of reliques belonging to the Lateran palace. The most remarkable of these is a picture of Jesus Christ, begun, as it is pretended, by St. Luke, and finished by an angel. Any person scrupling to pay the required adoration to this picture, are not admitted to see it; nor are women ever admitted beyond the gate where it is kept.

The Pantheon, from its circular figure called the Rotunda, dedicated by Boniface IV. to the Virgin and all the martyrs, and by another pope to all the saints as well as the martyrs, is one of the most beautiful and entire pieces of antiquity in Italy, and several of the niches are still remaining that antiently contained the statues of the gods. The outside of the building is of Tivoli free-stone, and within it is incrustured with marble. The roof of the Pantheon is a round dome, without pillars, the diameter of which is a hundred and forty-four feet; and though it has no windows, but only a round aperture in the center of the dome, it is very light in every part. The pavement consists of large square stones and porphyry, sloping round towards the center, where the rain-water falling down through the aperture on the top of the dome, is conveyed away by a proper drain, covered with a stone full of holes. Eight altars are placed round this church, among which the high altar is of porphyry. The colonnade in the front, which consists of sixteen columns of granite, thirty-seven feet high, exclusive of the pedestals and capitals, each cut out of a single block, are of the Corinthian order, and cannot be viewed without astonishment. The entrance of the church is adorned with columns forty feet high, and the architrave is formed of a single piece of granite. On the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large antique vase of Numidian marble; and in the area before the church is a fountain, with an antique basin of porphyry.

The Campidoglio is a superb structure, built on the spot where the antient Capitol stood, by the great Michael Angelo. The steps that form the ascent are low and of an extraordinary breadth, and at the bottom on each side is a sphynx of Egyptian marble ejecting water. On the top of the ascent are two large antique statues of Castor and Pollux on horseback, facing each other; these are antient trophies, generally thought to have been raised for Caius Marius, fixed on new pedestals. Farther on

on is an antient mill stone, and opposite to it, for the sake of regularity, is another antique pillar, with a globular urn on the top, in which Trajan's ashes are said to have been deposited. In the middle of the area Paul III. erected an equestrian statue of the Roman emperor Marcus Aurelius Antonius, which formerly stood in the church of St. John Lateran. The pedestal is very grand, it being the work of Michael Angelo. The owl on the horse's head is an emblem of the emperor's wisdom and vigilance, that bird being sacred to Minerva. These statues, with the steps up the ascent, all placed there by different popes, give this place a grand appearance.

In the place where the antient Capitol stood is a very magnificent palace, the roof of which is flat, and adorned with many statues of illustrious persons among the Romans. In the front of the building is a high tower, with the statue of Religion erected on the top. The double flight of steps at the entrance of this palace is the work of Michael Angelo; who likewise added to the beauty of the front by a superb fountain, adorned with two statues, representing the Nile and the Danube in a reclining posture. In the center is a porphyry statue of Rome, in the habit of Minerva, represented sitting. This is a piece of great antiquity, and is universally admired by connoisseurs. In the rooms are great numbers of curious antiquities, with the noblest antique statues, and paintings by the greatest masters. In the main building resides the senator of Rome, who daily administers justice there; and in the wings are the apartments of the conservators of the city.

As the churches of Rome are remarkable for their architecture, painting, and sculpture, these also distinguish the palaces of the princes and nobility of this city; for an Italian prince setting little value on equipages, liveries, entertainments, and the like, places his grandeur in adorning his palace with the most noble decorations.

The Barbarini palace is exceeded only by the Vatican, and contains four thousand rooms, adorned with an amazing number of statues and paintings, and among the former is a remarkable statue of the consul Brutus holding in his hand the head of his son, whom he had sentenced to die. Severus Septimus in bronze is highly esteemed, and a Narcissus in marble is much admired.

At the palace Justiniani, the catalogue of the antiquities amount to eighteen hundred and sixty-seven pieces, of which six hundred and thirty-eight are curious pictures: the most excellent of them are, Nero's head, Minerva, Venus coming out of a bath, and three little Cupids sleeping, and leaning one upon another.

Cardinal Chigi's palace is scarce inferior to any in Rome. The gates are crusted over with old green marble: the statues of the two Venuses, of Marsyas slayed, and the dying gladiator, are admirable pieces.

The Farnesian palace was begun by Antonio de St. Gallo, and brought to perfection by Michael Angelo. The front is a hundred and eighty feet in breadth, and ninety feet high; but all the principal stones of this beautiful structure were the spoils taken from the Great Coliseum, which admirable monument of antiquity has also furnished materials, not only to the palace of the chancery, and St. Laurence's church, but also to some part of the city walls. Thus Innocent VIII. destroyed the Gordian arch to build a church, and Alexander VI. that most beautiful pyramid of Scipio, to pave the streets with the stones. The Hercules and bull in the Farnesian palace are celebrated throughout the world, and the gallery by Caraccio, the hall by Sabriati, and the Venus and Adonis painted by Titian, are finely performed. But we have not room to mention the thousandth part of the beauties of the many palaces of this city, and shall therefore proceed to its celebrated antiquities.

Three brick arches of extraordinary size are still standing of the temple of Peace, built by the emperor Vespasian, which before it was demolished was esteemed the largest and most beautiful in Rome. Here the emperor Titus deposited the utensils he had taken out of the temple of Jerusalem after his conquest of that city.

The triumphal arch of white marble erected in honour of the same emperor, on account of his success in the Jewish expedition, is indeed much damaged; but the in-

scription on one side is still entire, and on it are represented the golden candlesticks, with seven branches, two jubilee trumpets, the table of shew-bread, and other utensils belonging to the temple of Jerusalem.

The triumphal arch of the emperor Constantine the Great of white marble is the best preserved of any from the injuries of time.

The columns of Trajan and Aurelius are magnificent monuments of antiquity, adorned with most excellent basso relievos, ascending in a spiral line from the base to the capitals. Aurelius's column is a hundred and eighty feet high, and exhibits a great number of basso relievos, representing the most remarkable actions and achievements of Marcus Aurelius. Within this column a stair-case, consisting of a hundred and ninety-two steps, winding in a spiral line, leads to a square gallery surrounded with an iron balustrade, from whence there is a most delightful prospect. The light is admitted into this pillar through fifty-two small windows. About fourteen feet higher than this gallery is a statue of St. Paul of brass gilt erected by Sixtus V. who caused the whole column to be repaired. The imagery in the upper part of the column is bigger than the lower; and this is almost the only instance of antiquity where the rules of perspective, with which the antients were but little acquainted, have been attended to. This pillar indeed is falsely called the Antonine; for from the basso relievos, among which are intermixed some circumstances of the Marcomanian war, it is evident that this monument was erected in honour of Marcus Aurelius, and not by him to his father Antoninus Pius. This error, however, passed current, till the genuine pillar erected to Antoninus Pius was found in 1704, half buried in rubbish. This last is of a red oriental granite, forty-four feet three inches high, and five feet eight inches in diameter. It is without ornaments; but the pedestal, which is of Parian marble, twelve feet long, and eleven broad, is an exquisite piece of work. On one side is the inscription, and on the other basso relievos representing the apotheosis of Antoninus and his empress Faustina, and likewise some horse-races.

Trajan's pillar is not only of a much larger size, but is adorned with bolder reliefs than that of Aurelius, and makes a very superb appearance. The grandeur of this column is still heightened by a noble pedestal representing a mass of huge rocks embellished with trophies of coats of mail, shields, &c. The basso relievos are carried round, and from the bottom to the top form twenty-three spiral circumvolutions. The subject is Trajan's expedition against Decebalus king of the Dacians, and they contain near two thousand five hundred figures, but with so little regard to perspective, that those in the rear of a corps appear as large, and as full in view as those in the front. The stair-case within consists of one hundred and eighty-four steps, and is very light by means of forty-three apertures or windows properly disposed. Anciently stood either Trajan's statue, or an urn with his ashes on the top; and "where, says Mr. Addison, could the ashes of an emperor have been so nobly lodged as in the midst of his metropolis, and on the top of so exalted a monument, with the greatest of his actions underneath them? or, as some will have it, his statue was on the top, his battles in the midst, and his urn at the foundation." However, whether it was his urn or his statue which was on the top, it has been obliged to give place to a brass gilt statue of St. Peter. This pillar is of marble, and the whole, including the pedestal, consists of thirty-four pieces.

The amphitheatre of Titus, notwithstanding it has greatly suffered by the injuries of time, is not to be beheld without astonishment. The whole edifice is of Travertine stone, with four galleries over each other, adorned with columns of the Doric, Ionic, Corinthian, and Composite orders. This structure was one thousand six hundred and twelve geometrical feet in circumference, and its external figure circular; but the inside was oval. A great quantity of stone has been taken from this ancient edifice, for building several palaces; but some say that only such stones were carried away as had been thrown down by the weather or by earthquakes. However, not the least care is now taken to preserve this noble structure,

ture, and the area within it is overgrown with grass and weeds. According to the most exact computation, this amphitheatre was capable of containing thirty-four thousand persons, exclusive of those in the upper gallery; and according to Dion Cassius, nine thousand wild beasts were killed within its area at its dedication.

On one side of the Porta Ostia is a pyramid designed for a monument of Caius Cestius, one of the seven Epu-lones, or officers whose business it was to furnish banquets for Jupiter and the rest of the gods. This structure is built with brick, and encrusted with marble. It is one hundred and ten feet high: each side of the base is eighty one foot and an half square, and it has several inscriptions. At the entrance of this pyramid are two fine marble pillars, and within it an apartment with a Victory painted at each corner.

Of the temple of Concord, eight oriental granite pillars of the Ionic order are still to be seen behind the Capitol towards Mount Palatine. It was erected as a memorial of the reconciliation of the people and nobility at Rome.

At a small distance are to be seen three pillars, by some thought to be the remains of the temple of Jupiter Tonans, or the Thunderer, and by others that of Julius Cæsar.

The temple of Minerva stood in Nerva's Forum, where the front, embellished with fine basso-relievos, is still remaining. In one bass-relief the goddess is herself represented.

Among the other noble remains of antiquity, we ought not to omit the temple of Peace, of which three detached parts that are roofed are still remaining. The roof is divided into a great number of octangular apartments, formerly said to have been plated with gold. This temple was rebuilt by Titus on the successful conclusion of the Jewish war, and splendidly adorned with the spoils brought from Jerusalem. Herodian gives an astonishing account of its riches, and when in Commodus's time this temple was burnt by lightning, the melted silver and gold is said to have flowed out in a stream two hundred feet broad, and three hundred in length. At present a market for cattle being kept every Friday at this place, this famous temple is parted into several divisions, and let out by the apostolic chamber to graziers, as an enclosure for their bullocks, &c.

The catacombs of Rome are not single vaults, but rather whole subterraneous cities, with turnings and windings like streets, extending under all the suburbs. They are dug out from among the rocks, each passage being commonly fifteen or eighteen feet wide, and between twelve and fifteen feet high. The hollow niches on both sides of the walls are shaped like chests of various sizes, placed in rows one above another without any coffins, and only covered with flat stones like tiles, cemented with mortar. These were the burying-places for such of the Romans as could not afford the expence of burning; and the primitive Christians, who never burned their dead, made use of them for the same purpose.

It would make a volume larger than this is intended to be, were we to describe the antiquities and modern buildings of this city. We shall therefore leave this subject, and only take notice of some noble foundations, one of the most singular of which is the Monte della Pietà, which is intended to prevent excessive usury, money being lent on pledges at two-thirds of the value, and to the amount of thirty scudi without any interest; but larger sums at the moderate interest of two per cent.

The hospital for poor children is so large, that the front towards the Tyber is an hundred paces long, and four stories high. This is a most admirable foundation for bringing up orphans, who are allowed to choose their trade; and when they are twenty years old, and able to maintain themselves, they are dismissed from the house, new clothed from head to foot, with twenty crowns in their pockets. Very good tapestry is made here, and such boys as have a remarkable genius, are instructed in drawing for two or three years, and spend about the same time to obtain a thorough knowledge in tapestry weaving. In this hospital are also admitted old disabled servants, and other persons who by age and infirmities are rendered in-

capable of earning their bread. Besides these, there are many other charitable foundations.

The court of justice is one of the noblest buildings in Rome, and in the gallery of the first floor facing the court is a marble group of a man slaying one of his own species: whether this be Marsyas, says Mr. Keyser, who was punished for his presumption by Apollo; or whether it be an emblematical representation of the miseries of a client in the hands of a rapacious lawyer and iniquitous judges, I shall not pretend to determine.

The two custom houses are also stately buildings: these most travellers are obliged to visit much against their own inclination. The contraband goods for which the greatest search is made are tobacco, prohibited books, and new linen; but a piece of money and a readiness to open one's baggage seldom fail to make matters easy.

The French academy was founded by Lewis XIV. for twelve young gentlemen natives of France, six to be instructed in painting, four in sculpture, and two in architecture, who are maintained at the expence of the French king; and when they have completed themselves in these noble arts, return to their native country. On Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday in Passion-week, a young fellow is fastened naked to a cross, who droops his head, as if he was just expiring, with several lamps placed round him, while the scholars and other artists are employed in copying from the life; some designing on paper, others working in plaster, and expressing the attitude, muscles, veins, &c. of the object before them: but when a stranger goes away, this fellow quickly leaps down from the cross, and importunes him for a piece of money. In this academy one has an opportunity of viewing excellent copies of the best pieces, both of ancient and modern artists. The statues and pieces of sculpture are mostly of plaster; and among these are the wild boar in the Florentine gallery, the wrestler, and the Venus of Medici, in the Tribuna of Florence; the hermaphrodite in the Villa Borghese; the Barbirini, Laocoon, Apollo, Antinous in the Belvedere; a faun, a centaur, busts, &c. without number: with many fine pieces of painting.

Here is also an Italian academy of painting.

With respect to the manners and customs observed in this city, the people take great care to preserve themselves from the heats, which are usually in summer very troublesome; for which purpose persons of quality have low apartments, shaded from the rays of the sun, paved with marble, and furnished with fountains and water-spouts; and besides, the doors and windows are so contrived, that they are never without a kind of cool breeze. The beds are encompassed at some distance with a curtain of gauze or tiffany, which is joined close to the boards of the floor and ceiling, to prevent their being troubled with gnats. It is also the custom to sleep two hours immediately after dinner; but they never lie down, for they have a sort of folding chairs, which have backs that rise and fall with a spring. The use of umbrellas is common every where: the evening dew in the Campagna di Roma is esteemed mortal, during three or four months in the summer, and great care is taken to avoid it; for this purpose travellers double their pace, to arrive at Rome in time, or stay at the distance of eighteen or twenty miles from it.

The way of living at Rome was never so agreeable as at present, not a day passing without assemblies of both sexes at the houses of persons of quality; but unmarried women have not the liberty of appearing in public, they generally being confined in a convent, till they are either married or grown old.

The carnival at Rome affords a more agreeable entertainment to persons of an elegant taste than that of Venice; and should a prostitute dare to appear upon the Corso, her being discovered would expose her to very severe treatment. The Corso is a fine street, which extends two thousand seven hundred and twenty common paces in length. People appear there with or without a mask, in a carriage or on foot, just as they please. The coaches follow each other two a-breast, and the principal nobility make their appearance in triumphal cars, which add great splendor to the spectacle. The *sbirri* are post-

ed up and down to prevent disturbances, and their captain rides about bare-headed, till orders are obtained for horse-races, a diversion seen no-where but in Italy and the British dominions. Most of the racers in Italy are brought from Barbary, whereas England glories in the spirit and vigour of those of her own breed. In Italy, instead of being under the management of their riders, they are trained up to run alone: on the sides and along the back they have leathern straps, stuck on with pitch, and under these are iron bullets, set with strong points like the rowels of a spur, which continually prick the horses while they are in motion; and they have the cruelty to stick another of these spiked balls under the horse's tail. The starting-place is on the square called Piazza del Popolo, where the horses, being generally from five to eight in number, shew the utmost impatience for the signal, which is given by dropping a rope that runs a-cross the course before them. Upon this they start, and fly along the Corso with incredible swiftness, the coaches being drawn up on each side of the street. The prize is generally a piece of brocade, of the value of seventy or eighty Roman crowns. The people are entertained with such a race every day during the carnival.

Notwithstanding the splendor of the buildings of this city, the people have the disagreeable custom of drying linen out of the windows, and on ropes hung a-cross the streets.

The summers at Rome are very tedious, every body keeping close at home the whole day. Hence it is here a common saying, That none but dogs, idiots, and Frenchmen, walk the streets in the day-time. The heat of the climate makes the Romans extremely fond of spring-water, iced and cooling liquors; so that great quantities are consumed of snow and ice, which are fetched from the mountains, and preserved in ice-houses.

In autumn the vintage is a time of general festivity, when the common people give themselves up to all manner of licentiousness. The favourite winter diversions at Rome are plays and operas, and, during the carnival, the latter are acted at three theatres. One of these, called Alberti, from the count of that name, its founder, has a pit which will contain nine hundred persons, and is surrounded with seven galleries over each other.

With respect to the Roman customs in other respects, every prudent traveller should be on his guard, and rather talk too little than too much; for there are several private channels of information for conveying to the government's ear every thing that is said or done in the city. However, their conduct towards travellers is very prudent, from the consideration of their annually spending great sums of money in this city. At the meeting of the Host, and other processions, the Protestants need be in no fear of those brutal insults which they sometimes meet with in other countries, from the bigotted persecuting spirit of the vulgar. Besides, in Lent, and on other fast-days, the Protestants never fail of meeting with flesh-meat at the inns and taverns, without being at the trouble of procuring a licence for eating it.

Though public prostitutes are licensed on paying a small tax to the papal treasury, here are several regulations calculated to reclaim them: they are excluded from communion, and if they die in that profession they are denied Christian burial. In some parts of Italy they are obliged several times in a year to assemble in a particular church, where their vicious lives are painted in the blackest colours in a sermon preached before them; and they who are moved by the preacher's arguments, and in token of their repentance kiss a crucifix which is handed about, are conducted to a convent founded for their reception.

The Pretender to the British crown is, by order of the pope, stiled King of England; but this is no more than an empty title, which the Italians themselves make a jest of. Mr. Keyser observes, he has an annual income of twelve thousand scudi, or crowns, out of the pope's treasury, which is only three thousand pounds sterling; and though the clandestine remittances of his adherents in England may amount to as much more, it falls very short of what is required to keep up the state required in a king. He generally appears abroad with three coaches, and his household consists of forty persons:

but at his coming into an assembly, no English Protestant rises up, and even the Roman Catholics pay him their compliments in a very superficial manner: for his pusillanimity, and the licentiousness of his amours, have lessened him in every body's esteem. His lady seldom stirs abroad, except to visit a convent; and she allows her servants no gold or silver lace on their liveries.

S E C T. XIV.

Of the other Places worthy of Notice in the Campania of Rome; with a particular Description of the Villa Borgheze, Fiescati, the Belvedere, and Tivoli.

THE country in the neighbourhood of Rome is pleasant, but, like the rest of the Ecclesiastical State, thin of inhabitants; for along the delicious plains between Rome and Tivoli, Fiescati, Velettri, &c. neither town or village is to be seen; so that, in harvest time, the peasants of Viterbo, Perugia, and the mountainous parts of St. Peter's Patrimony, resort thither to help the few wretched inhabitants to get in their corn.

In describing the principal places in the Campania, we shall begin with the Villa Borgheze, which is seated in one of the finest spots in Italy, and may be said to exceed all other country seats in the world. It stands at the distance of a quarter of a league from Rome, and was built by cardinal Scipio Borgheze, nephew to Paul III. who has here assembled every elegant and splendid object of curiosity. In the gardens are at least twenty beautiful walks, and all the vistas are terminated by statues, large heads, or dragons spouting water. Here are also several groves of oaks, limes, cypress trees, pines, and pomegranate trees. The espaliers consist of myrtle, jasmine, and orange trees, &c. In other parts of the garden are little parks for deer and hares, and a warren for rabbits. Here is also a large canal stocked with swans, and all kinds of water-fowl. In two large and lofty aviaries, with fountains playing in them, are to be seen all of the known feathered species, and the flower-garden exhibits the most beautiful flowers and remarkable vegetables. On the grand area before the palace are twenty-four stone pedestals, finely carved, for flower-pots, with six ancient statues.

The house consists of a quadrangle, the four sides of which are embellished with statues and basso relievos. The double flight of steps leading to the first floor is adorned with two cornucopias, and vases embellished with basso relievos; and in the first court are a considerable number of ancient marble statues and bustos, with several fine basso relievos. The first room one enters is adorned with twelve columns of porphyry, granite, and the most beautiful kinds of marble. On the walls on each side are fourteen marble busts, which are those of Scipio Africanus, Hannibal, and the twelve Cæsars. A statue of Bacchus lying in the posture of a river god, is a masterly piece, as are the marble basso relievos over the six doors of the apartment, and the room is adorned with many excellent pictures. In the next room, among other fine pieces, is a celebrated antique statue of Seneca expiring in the bath, of black marble. The expression is exceeding natural, and the colour of the marble gives it a more melancholy appearance. The paintings both in this and in the other apartments are by the greatest masters, and it is impossible to describe the astonishing number of fine statues that are to be found in each of them.

The avenues about the house are adorned with the statues of Augustus, Commodus, Lucius Verus, Galba, Claudius, Perseus, Narcissus, several gladiators, a great number of busts, and several pyramids and obelisks of granite, &c.

Fiescati stands on a mountain about twelve Italian miles from Rome. In the way thither are to be seen the ruins of the Claudian aqueduct belonging to the emperors Gallienus's country seat, and the tomb of Alexander Severus. Fiescati is situated on or near the spot where the ancient Tusculum stood, and derives its name from the arbours or tabernacles built by the inhabitants of Tusculum, when their city was demolished in 1191. This charming retreat is at present the summer residence of several

veral persons of the first rank, who have here not only splendid palaces and gardens, but have taken the advantage of this favourable situation among hills for making very grand water-works. Indeed the seats of the Roman nobility at Frascati have been spoken of by travellers with a contempt which they little deserve.

The villa Aldobrandini, or the Belvedere, is remarkable for its fine water-works. They form a kind of theatre, and a brass globe, supported on the shoulders of Atlas, ejects water on all sides. Near this statue are a tyger and a lion fighting, and the water issuing from the mouth and nostrils of the former exactly imitates the snarling of that animal when enraged. The column of water in the center of the fountain rises seventy-four palms high, and is attended with a noise like the whizzing of sky-rockets. Among the statues is a Faunus playing on one of the ancient pastoral pipes, consisting of several unequal reeds, and a Centaur blowing a horn, which is said to be heard four Italian miles. The water which supplies these curious works is brought hither from a spring at six miles distance. Here is a beautiful saloon paved with fine small stones curiously arranged so as to represent flowers, foliages, and birds; and in the center of the pavement is a hole, over which a light globe or ball is kept in a perfect equilibrium, at the distance of a span from the floor, only by the impetus of the air forced up by water through the hole. The cascade consists of sixty-five steps, and on both sides are tortoises, dolphins, and other aquatic animals cut in stone, and spouting water at each other. The ceilings of the apartments in the house are painted in fresco by d'Arpino.

The gardens and palaces of several other noblemen at Frascati are also extremely beautiful.

Tivoli is seated on a hill, about eighteen Italian miles from Rome; but the road to it is entirely level. This town, however, is a very mean place, except only the villa Estense. In this palace is to be seen eight rooms on the ground-floor beautifully painted in fresco. Here is also a small marble group of the Nile, and twelve boys sporting about it. Formerly in the gardens were fountains adorned with the statues of Leda, Æsculapius, Arcthusa, Pandora, Flora, Pomona, and Antinous, with the grotto of Venus, &c. but they are now in a ruinous condition. However, most of the water-works are kept up; for as they are easily supplied from the Anio, they cannot be very expensive. The large basin just before the palace, with a statue of a horse in the center, furnishes a great quantity of water. Near this basin is a long row of some hundreds of pyramids, vases, eagles, and other figures, cut in stone, and fixed on pedestals, with basso relievos of stories taken from Ovid's *Metamorphoses*, and the water is ejected from all of them. This row of figures, being some hundred paces in length, is a very elegant ornament, and at the other end of it is a ship, with its masts and rigging, as it were engaged, and vigorously defending itself by ejecting water from all parts. The Girondola, or Dragon fountain, throws up a vast column of water. The water-organ, over which is a beautiful structure, adorned with statues and basso relievos, is also a curious work, and the steep cascade where the water precipitates itself from a considerable height without steps, is also in a good taste.

In the market place of Tivoli stand two large Egyptian idols of Oriental granite, supposed to be images of Isis, which the Tiburtines brought as a monument of their victory over the inhabitants of Norcia, though some maintain that they were brought hither from Adrian's villa within this town.

Near the fall of the Teverone, are the ruins of a temple of Vesta, or the Tiburtine Sybil, or according to others of Hercules; round which was formerly a colonnade of sixteen columns; but now only ten are remaining. The base of the portico has been well preserved, so that the festoons and foliages on the basso relievos still make a very beautiful appearance. The columns are of marble; but the work within only of brick. In the niches are some paintings in fresco; but as the Virgin Mary is to be seen here, it is evident that this building has been converted by the Christians into a church.

This hill affords a delightful prospect not only of the cataract, but of the spots where the seats of Horace and Catullus are supposed to have stood. The violence of the fall of the Teverone down the precipice turns the water entirely to foam, and has considerably excavated the rocks beneath. Tivoli has in all ages been celebrated for the great salubrity of its air, as appears from ancient authors, and it also seems to have been a favourite retreat of Horace. This city is also famous for its containing the ruins of the villas of the ancient Romans, and for its quarries of stone, which have been frequently mentioned under the name of Travertina, or Tivoli stone.

Four Italian miles from Tivoli lies the lake of Solfatara, in which are sixteen floating islands, the largest of which is not above fifty or sixty feet in circumference; so that it is not difficult to push them from the shore with a pole. The water of this lake, and the little stream of Solfatara, is impregnated with chalk and sulphur; so that the grass and other vegetables growing on its banks are speckled with white incrustations, exactly resembling, both in shape and colour, the comfits made of coriander, aniseeds, &c. hence they are called Tivoli comfits. The water of the lake and rivulet has still the reputation of curing the asthma, and all cutaneous diseases.

Piperno is a small town, seated on an eminence, fifty miles to the south-east of Rome, and contains some palaces. Its neighbourhood abounds with the cork-tree, which is an ever-green; the leaves are stiff and hard, and not unlike those of the plum or pear tree, and the fruit, which makes good mast for hogs, resembles small acorns. When the tree is stripped, it recovers its coat in about two years.

Veletri, the antient Velletræ, is a small city, pleasantly situated on a hill, twenty-two miles to the south-east of Rome, in the great road to Naples. It is the see of a bishop, and has twenty-four churches and convents. The only palace in this city belongs to prince Lancelotti, and is a magnificent structure. The great stair-case is built with white marble, and is so magnificent and well contrived, that it passes for the finest in all Italy. In the apartments are a great number of fine statues, bustos, basso relievos, and paintings. The most remarkable among the first are, a Venus with a Cupid. The prospect from the gardens is extremely beautiful, and they are ornamented with fine pieces of sculpture.

In the market-place, near the palace, is a superb bronze statue of Urban VIII. who is represented in his pontifical habit pronouncing the benediction. It was designed by Bernini, and stands on a marble pedestal.

The last place we shall mention in the Campania is Albano, the antient Alba Longa, a well-built town, much celebrated for its antiquities, and serving as a summer recess for the Roman nobility. It is one of the six bishoprics conferred on the oldest cardinals. At the distance of a mile from it stands Castello Gandolfo, the favourite residence of pope Clement XI.







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Mount Vesuvius

C H A P. XXV.

The Lower Part of ITALY, containing the Dominions of the King of the TWO SICILIES.

S E C T. I.

Of the Kingdom of NAPLES.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, and Produce; with a particular Description of Mount Vesuvius, and of the most remarkable Animals of that Kingdom; among which is given a circumstantial Account of the Tarantula.

THE kingdom of Naples is bounded on the north-east by the Ecclesiastical State; but on all other parts by the Mediterranean and Adriatic. Its extent from the south-east to the north-west is two hundred and eighty miles, and from the north-east to the south-west from ninety-six to a hundred and twenty miles.

This country is extremely hot, which subjects foreigners, unless they take great care of themselves, to a sickly habit of body; and particularly they must forbear travelling in July, August, and September. In the lower part of the kingdom little of winter is felt, and in the plains it is very extraordinary to see ice or even snow. The snow that sometimes falls in the mountains is gathered, and kept for cooling liquors in summer instead of ice. Even so early as April, the heat of the sun is very great; but the nights are cold.

The fertility of the soil is very extraordinary, it producing an exuberance of all kinds of grain, the finest fruits and culinary vegetables, which may be raised any time of the year. Their oil, wines, rice, and flax, are equal to the finest of other countries.

Calabria affords great quantities of manna, and both there and in other parts of the kingdom saffron grows, and is esteemed as good as that brought from the East. Here are also allum, vitriol, sulphur, rock-crystal, quarries of marble, and a variety of minerals. The Neapolitan horses are much esteemed. The wool of the sheep is fine and good, and great quantities of silk are exported.

Of the filaments, or a kind of hair or wool, of an olive green, growing on some shell-fish, are made waistcoats, caps, stockings, and gloves, much warmer than wool; and though not so fine and soft as silk, yet always retain a peculiar gloss. These shell-fish are also to be met with at Malta, Sardinia, Corsica, and in the gulph of Venice. Among the natural curiosities of this country the Phrygian stone may be classed. It has neither the hardness of stone, nor the properties of earth, but consists of an indurated mixture of earth, rotten beech wood, and fibres of several plants. From this stone, laid in a shady and damp place, grow in a few days, according to its bigness, mushrooms, each often weighing twenty pounds. The seed lies in the substance of the stone, and is distinguishable only by a good microscope. The growth of the mushrooms is greatly forwarded by pouring warm water on the stone. Some other natural singularities will be taken notice of in the description of the several parts of this kingdom.

The Appennine mountains extend the whole length of the country, and terminate at the Straights of Sicily. Mount Vesuvius, so famous for its fiery eruptions, lies five Italian miles from the city of Naples, but separate from the Appennine mountains.

The declivity towards the sea is every where planted with vines and fruit-trees, and is equally fertile towards the bottom. The circumjacent plain affords a delightful prospect, and the air is clear and wholesome. The wine produced on this side and the lower part is of three sorts, all very delicious. Two of them, which seem most in request, are the *Vino Greco*, a yellow muscadine, and a red wine impiously called *lachrymæ Christi*, or the tears of Christ. Of the latter, the little that is produced is re-

served for the cellars of the king, who makes presents of it, though indeed a great deal of wine is disposed of as the genuine *lachrymæ*.

The south and west sides of the mountain form a very different view, being, like the top, covered with black cinders and stones. Mount Vesuvius, or Vesuvio, as it is called by the Neapolitans, like Parnassus, consists properly of two summits, though at present only that on the right hand as you come from Naples emits fire and smoke. The valley between these hills is about a mile long, and extremely fertile. The height of the burning summit is computed to be eleven hundred fathoms above the surface of the sea. From Resina, a village within three miles of the city of Naples, the acclivity of the mountain increases; yet one may still ride on horseback. Here are several large stones half calcined, scattered in different places, and left as memorials of former devastations; the greatest part being used by the peasants living on the mountains for inclosing their vineyards. It is astonishing to think of the impetuosity by which huge masses of four or five hundred weight have been thrown to the distance of several Italian miles.

At last the steepness of the ascent, especially as it is all over covered with ashes and cinders, will not admit of riding, when the horses are left to be taken care of by the servants, and it is adviseable for the traveller here to change his boots for shoes. Hereabouts, says Mr. Keysser, (one of the latest authors who has given an account of this mountain, which he ascended in 1730) a hermit has built a mean dwelling; and such is his fortitude, that Vesuvius must rage with uncommon vehemence before he removes his quarters. As travellers are apt to be fatigued with climbing up this uncommon ascent, he stands ready with some wine to refresh them at their return; and as the rules of his order do not prohibit his touching money, he thankfully receives any little acknowledgment made for his seasonable civility.

At this hermitage the attendance of the peasants, who follow travellers from the neighbouring villages, become necessary; but as they are apt to quarrel with one another, and are even trained to rob and murder, a traveller should always carry fire-arms with him. All they do is to go before with leathern belts round their waists, by which travellers hold, that they may climb with the greater ease; and if the two peasants that go before every traveller are not sufficient, others help by shoving him behind. These men, who are at best very troublesome by their exactions and their numbers, stile themselves *Ciceroni*, the proper title of learned antiquarian, who shew and explain to foreigners the antiquities and curiosities of the country.

The ashes giving way causes a man to slide several steps downwards; and in places free from the ashes, the ruggedness of the melted matter puts you to no less trouble: for from this volcano too often issues a lava or mixed floods of melted sulphur and metallic ore, to the inexpressible damage of the neighbouring country. The scoria of this ejected matter still lies stratum upon stratum, with large stones projecting from them, which, in their course along the sulphureous stream, were stopped by their inequalities, and fixed as the melted matter gradually hardened. By chemical experiments it appears, that the stones ejected by Vesuvius contain sulphur, vitriol, allum, antimony, marcasite, arsenic, and iron; small quantities of gold, silver, copper, tin, lead, and other minerals, have also been extracted from them, whence the difference to be found in the colour and substance of the scorix are not at all surprising.

“Near the summit of the mountain, says Mr. Keysser, “we met with stones at least of a hundred weight
“glowing

“ glowing hot, and, when broken, exactly resembling
 “ red hot iron; and, if our guides may be relied on,
 “ they had been but just ejected from the abyfs. As
 “ we still advanced, our ears were frequently assailed
 “ with a horrid noise, like that of the explosion of a whole
 “ battery of cannon; and under our feet we had a con-
 “ tinual noise, not unlike the boiling of a large cauldron.
 “ Upon making a hole with a stick in the ashes but a
 “ few inches deep, a heat was immediately felt, which
 “ in some places was hotter than our hands could bear, and
 “ we perceived the smoke to issue out, as it were, in
 “ several places through small fissures.

“ At length, after many weary steps, we came to the
 “ place where formerly the largest mouth of the moun-
 “ tain was; but this has undergone such changes, by
 “ the frequent eruptions, that at present it is not only
 “ choaked up, but covered by a round hill of ashes and
 “ cinders. In Addison's and Milson's time there was a
 “ plain of near three hundred paces to cross before they
 “ came to the skirts of this round hill, or new mountain;
 “ but such great eruptions have so enlarged the circum-
 “ ference of the hill, that here is in most places no
 “ more than a kind of trench seven or eight feet deep,
 “ and about thirty paces wide. The lower, or old
 “ mountain, is of such a height, that at the foot of it
 “ the trench is not perceived from the bottom. Here
 “ we felt a very sensible increase of heat; and especially
 “ at every explosion of the mountain, which made the
 “ ashes fly against our faces, so that some of the company
 “ were obliged to cover their eyes. The ground also
 “ was almost insupportably hot under our feet; for the
 “ embers, or slag, burnt the very soles of our shoes.
 “ Here indeed we were not terrified with the horrid
 “ noises we had heard below; but every discharge was at-
 “ tended with a whizzing like that of a great number
 “ of rockets flying up at once; the multitude of stones
 “ and other matter ejected, together with the clouds of
 “ smoak with which the sky is totally obscured, resembling
 “ the springing of a mine. Most of the stones, espe-
 “ cially the largest, returned perpendicularly into the abyfs
 “ from whence they were thrown up. Great quanti-
 “ ties, however, fall on the sides of the hill, and the noise
 “ they make in rolling down is indeed somewhat terri-
 “ ble. As the wind generally drives the ashes, smoke,
 “ &c. one way, it gives the spectator an opportunity of
 “ choosing the most favourable station; yet if the erup-
 “ tions happen to be violent, there is danger of approach-
 “ ing on any side. It being a bright day, we could
 “ perceive no flame at the mouth of the hill; and the
 “ great increase of the heat felt at every discharge, might
 “ proceed from the melted matter and ignited stones
 “ thrown into the air, which in the night appear like
 “ red-hot bullets: but the phenomena exhibited by
 “ volcanos are not constantly alike.

“ We had still about eight hundred paces to ascend
 “ among hot stones and ashes; but the eruptions fol-
 “ lowed so thick upon one another, that before we could
 “ have reached the summit, we must have stood at least
 “ eight shocks more; and as the danger every minute
 “ became manifestly greater, and our faint-hearted guides
 “ grew excessively out of humour, we all agreed to re-
 “ turn.”

Mr. Addison ascended to the top when there were no
 eruptions, and thus describes the inward cavity, as it then
 appeared. Having, with much difficulty, conquered the
 last hill, he and his companions saw in the midst of it
 the mouth of Vesuvius, which went shelving down on
 all sides, till it reached above a hundred yards deep;
 the mouth itself seeming perfectly round, and about three
 or four hundred yards in diameter. This vast hollow
 was generally filled with smoke, but having the advan-
 tage of the wind, they had a very distinct sight of it.
 The sides seemed all over stained with mixtures of red,
 green, yellow, and white, with several rocks projecting
 out of them, like pure brimstone. The bottom was en-
 tirely covered, and, though they looked very narrowly,
 they could see nothing like a hole in it, the smoak in
 many places breaking through several imperceptible
 cracks. In the late eruptions, this gentleman informs us,
 this vast hollow was like a prodigious cauldron filled with
 melted and glowing matter, which, on its boiling over

in any part, ran down the sides of the mountain, forming
 five rivers of liquid fire; and adds, as the heat slackened,
 this matter must have subsided within the bowels of the
 mountain, and sinking very leisurely, had time to cake
 together, and form the bottom which covers the mouth
 of that dreadful vault that lies underneath it. The whole
 mountain, shaped like a sugar-loaf, has been formed at
 several times with a prodigious quantity of earth and cin-
 ders, that have been thrown up out of the mouth that
 lies in the middle of it, and increases in bulk at every
 eruption, the ashes falling down its sides like the sand
 in an hour-glass; so that in length of time it will cover the
 whole plain, and make one mountain with that on the
 top of which it is placed.

Though mount Vesuvius, says Mr. Keyser, often fills
 the neighbouring country with terror, yet as few things
 in nature are so absolutely noxious as not to produce
 some good; even this raging volcano, by its sulphureous
 and nitrous manure, and the heat of its subterraneous
 fires, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of
 the country about it, and the profusion of fruit, herb-
 age, &c. with which it is every where covered. Those
 are observed to be the most fertile spots which abound in
 sulphur, salt-petre, &c. and if such igneous and inflam-
 mable substances were pent up, their fermentation and
 ebullition would be productive of the most calamitous
 effects; whereas they find a vent through these volcanos.
 Experience shews, that earthquakes, after any continued
 eruptions of Vesuvius, are neither so frequent, nor pro-
 duce such fatal effects, as at other times. Hence the in-
 habitants are far from being alarmed at this mountain's
 vernal eruptions, when they are not violent; and the air
 is so far from being rendered unhealthful by them, that
 Barra, a village at the foot of Vesuvius, near the sea, is
 remarkable for its healthfulness.

In the sea near the foot of the mountain, is sometimes
 found petroleum, a very fragrant oil, which is sold at a
 very high price, and makes a rich perfume. During the
 time that it rises, the surface of the sea is for a little space
 covered with its bubbles, which they skim off into their
 boats, and afterwards set a separating in pots and jars;
 but its sources are said never to run but when the wea-
 ther is warm and calm. Perhaps they may be hindered
 from discovering them by the agitations of the water.

Notwithstanding the advantages arising from these
 vents given to the inflammable matter contained in the
 bowels of the earth, earthquakes have been of no small
 detriment to this kingdom, and are chiefly felt in the
 lower parts, where are seen the ruins of many celebrated
 cities, of which now scarce the name is preserved.

Another inconvenience, but common to all Italy, is the
 swarms of lizards, especially of the green kind. In spring
 hundreds of these little animals are seen basking on the
 flat roofs, and as they crawl up and down the walls, if a
 window or door be left open, they make their way into
 the houses. The green lizards, which are very nimble,
 have very beautiful eyes, a fine glossy skin, and are quite
 harmless. About Fondi, Capua, and Gaeta, there is a
 noxious species of lizards, improperly called Tarantula,
 whose bite is attended with danger: these are brown,
 larger than the green sort, and, when the tail is cut off,
 resemble a toad.

The scorpion, which is a much greater nuisance, not
 only harbours in old buildings, and under large stones,
 but infests the houses in this country; so that it is not
 unusual in some places to make the bedsteads of polished
 iron, and to place them at some distance from the walls,
 to prevent their getting into the beds. It is true, they
 seldom hurt, unless they are first assailed, or accidentally
 injured, which may be easily done by a man's turning
 himself, or moving a leg or an arm in a bed where these
 noxious animals harbour. The surest remedy against the
 sting of a scorpion is to bruise that animal, and bind it
 fast on the wound. In the northern parts of Italy this
 creature has little or nothing of that rage and venom
 which appear in those of hotter climates. Scorpions
 yield a salt and oil, which are a part of the materia me-
 dica. They are caught in great numbers among ruins,
 or in stoney places, and being taken hold of with a pair
 of pincers, are dropped in narrow-necked glass vessels,
 which are too slippery for them to climb out.

Another

Another plague almost peculiar to the kingdom of Naples, especially the southern parts, is the tarantula, a kind of spider, so called from the city of Tarento, in the neighbourhood of which they abound, and are the largest and most venomous. The persons bit by this insect are called by the Italians Tarantolati. Few of such unhappy persons can bear the sight of black or blue; but seem delighted with red and green objects. They are also seized with an aversion to eating fruit or vegetables. A melancholy silence and a fixed eye are the first symptoms by which the bite of the tarantula discovers itself, and then music is immediately called in to rouse the patient to a violent motion, and by that means to promote perspiration, and a copious sweat. But neither the same tunes nor the same instruments answer this end with regard to different patients; several trials are therefore made, and chiefly with the guitar, hautboy, trumpet, violin, and Sicilian kettle-drum.

In some parts of the kingdom of Naples, particularly in Apulia, the venom of the scorpions is so subtle, that their sting produces the like effects as the bite of the tarantula; and though the same tunes have a proper effect on these patients also, yet they require softer instruments, as the flute, &c. accompanied by a brisk beat of the drum. The country people, who are more or less skilled in all these instruments, enforce the operation of their music with grimaces and odd gesticulations. The Tarantolati, on their side, vigorously exert themselves, regulating their motions according to the music, till the venom is quite expelled; this exercise and cure sometimes takes up five or six days; not that they are kept continually dancing all that time, but when nature seems to be exhausted, the music is suspended, and the patient put to bed well covered, and a sudorific cordial given him to promote perspiration. It is remarkable that the patient on his recovery remembers nothing of what passed during his disorder, and that if the cure be not perfectly effected, and the poison entirely expelled, the same symptoms return the succeeding year, especially during the summer heats; and some have laboured under this terrible disorder, at intervals, for ten, twenty, or thirty years.

The bite of a tarantula at first occasions only a small red tumour, like that occasioned by the sting of a wasp, and there are above eight species of them differing in size, colour, and form, but producing the same mischievous effects by their venom. The tarantula is most dangerous in the dog days, and during the violent heats, especially on the plains, as if they were incited to greater rage by the sun: for those of Tuscany never occasion such deplorable disorders as the malignant kind found in Apulia; and even in these, when carried to the northern parts of the kingdom of Naples, or to Rome, the venom is rendered less noxious, so that their bite is attended only with a slight transitory pain.

The tarantula's chief haunts are holes in the earth, old walls, and hollow trees, and the cobweb it makes is stronger and coarser than that of a common spider. The poison is contained in two small vesicles within the gums, near two fangs, with which they are armed, besides lesser teeth.

S E C T. II.

The Manners and Customs of the Neapolitans; their public Entertainments; the State of Religion; with an Account of the Procession of the penitent Prostitutes. The Form of Government and History of the Country. Its Army; an Account of the Order of St. Januarius, and its Forces.

IT has been said by some authors, that the worst creatures in this delightful country are the inhabitants themselves, who, besides their unnatural lusts, are of a vindictive, treacherous, and bloody disposition. National reflections, indeed, generally imply ignorance, narrowness of soul, and want of charity; but it must be confessed that the history of Naples abounds in instances which disgrace human nature. Mr. Keysser observes, that when he was there, Tophana, the noted female poisoner, who first invented the *aqua Tophania*, was still living in prison, and that few foreigners left Naples

without seeing that infernal monster. She is a little old woman, says he, who had entered into a kind of religious sisterhood, and on this account, if not a worse, her life has hitherto been spared. She is said to have poisoned some hundreds of people, and was remarkably liberal of her drops, which she gave by way of alms to wives, who, from several intimations, she knew would not be inconsolable for the death of their husbands. Five or six drops of this liquid, it seems, answer the horrid purpose, and may be lowered or tempered so as to take effect in any determinate time. This water even still continues to be privately made at Naples.

The inhabitants of this kingdom have always been remarkable for their voluptuousness, and in no city in Europe are prostitutes so numerous or so abandoned: these are said to amount to eighteen thousand in the city of Naples, and in one particular part of it, is a receptacle for two thousand of them; and yet it is no uncommon thing for even ecclesiastics to lodge in those infamous parts of the town. This has an unhappy effect, and the clergy being exempt from the civil jurisdiction, and connived at by their superiors, set the worst examples; and any complaints against them from laymen are considered as the height of insolence.

Great numbers of the peasants are so slothful, as to prefer begging and robbing to labour and industry; but in the city of Naples there are several flourishing manufactures, and something of a spirit of industry.

Among their public entertainments one of the most extraordinary is the procession with four triumphal cars, on the four Sundays immediately preceding Lent; the first with bread, the second with flesh, the third with vegetables, and the fourth with fish. These provisions are piled up very high, with musicians placed at the top, and guarded by armed men, till they are given up to be pillaged by the populace. But that which draws the greatest concourse to Naples is the castle built according to the rules of fortification, and faced all over with pieces of beef, bacon, hams, geese, turkeys, and other provisions. This welcome spectacle is exhibited once a year, and on each side of the castle is a fountain running with wine during the whole day. A party of soldiers is posted to restrain the ardour of the populace till the viceroy appears in his balcony, which is the signal for the assault.

It is usual for the Neapolitan nobility to spend some years in a parsimonious retirement on their estates in the country, that they may cut a figure for a while in the city, by living in profuse magnificence; thus they are generally running into extremes: their fortunes, however, are not very considerable, which is a natural consequence of there being a great disproportion in their number to the small extent of the country; for there are in this kingdom a hundred and nineteen princes, a hundred and fifty-six dukes, a hundred and seventy-three marquises, forty-two counts, and four hundred and forty-five barons, all vassals of the crown; and as many spots of land that are not worth above fifty dollars a year, give the owners the title of marquis, they are consequently very poor.

Religion, as we have already hinted, is on a very bad footing; and the best that can be said of the ecclesiastical constitution is, that the Neapolitans have always resolutely opposed the introducing of the inquisition. The number of monasteries and convents is astonishing, and the clergy are as remarkable for their wealth as the laity for their poverty. Such is the power and opulence to which the clergy have arrived, that they have more than once been ready to seize the civil power, and to arrogate to themselves a decisive authority in matters quite foreign to their pastoral care, nor can they bear the least controul or censure on this account. Some who are well acquainted with the state of the kingdom affirm, that the clergy are possessed of near two-thirds of its whole produce, without the people's having any hopes of recovering the least part, all alienations being prohibited by express laws. The laity have often, in the strongest manner, petitioned their sovereigns, that the clergy might be no longer allowed to purchase lands and houses; but all endeavours were fruitless, till at length, in 1751, measures were concerted, with the pope's consent, for lessening the number of convents.

The devotion of the Roman catholics is not here, however, so outrageous as in several parts of Germany. At the elevation of the host in the churches, or when it is carried along the streets, no traveller is compelled to kneel; and so little difficulty is made about strangers eating fish and fowls in Lent, that the inn-keepers readily provide for them whatever they please. Since the government came into the hands of the Austrian line of the house of Hapsburg, the statue of St. Nepomuk has been erected on several bridges; but crosses are not very numerous in the streets; nor public processions, even in the capital itself, so frequent as in most other popish cities.

The most common procession, which is exhibited almost every day, is less intended to excite devotion than to raise a fund for penitent prostitutes, who have quitted their abandoned way of life for a convent. In order the more effectually to move the spectators to charity, the youngest and most beautiful of these penitents are selected, who walk bare-footed through the city two abreast: at particular places they kneel down, acknowledge their past wickedness, and sing penitential hymns, while an ecclesiastic and a lay-assistant receive the contributions of the people in a purse fastened to the end of a stick. Their habit on these occasions is a violet coloured gown, tied round the waist with a cord of the same colour. Their heads are shaved, and they wear a blue veil; but it is so thin as to afford a sight of the charms of youth and beauty, which are found to be powerful incentives to a liberal contribution.

The Neapolitans are far from being deficient in their intellects; but, notwithstanding all their schools, universities, and academies, their religion is a perpetual bar to the improvement and increase of solid literature.

The silk, woollen, and other manufactures, together with the improvement of the arts, owe their first establishment to Ferdinand of Arragon, who patronized them in a very liberal manner. These manufactures, joined to the produce of the country, are the source of their trade.

In this kingdom are only two states, consisting of nobles and commons, the clergy not making a distinct class, but being intermingled with the other two: but in the city of Naples there are several noble and illustrious families which make no part of either of the two states, but are in some sense considered as foreigners. The general assembly of the states is summoned every two years to meet at the capital, where the sessions are held in the Minorite convent near St. Laurence's church, where their chief business is to deliberate on the customary free gift to the king, which has often amounted to upwards of one million five hundred thousand crowns.

The provinces of which the kingdom of Naples consists were formerly a part of the dominions of the Roman republic, and afterwards of the emperors. In the fifth century they were over-run by the Visigoths, Ostrogoths, and Herulians. Belisarius, the general of Justinian, emperor of the East, took Sicily and the provinces of the present kingdom of Naples; but these provinces were soon again dismembered, one part still remaining under the Grecian emperors, and the Longobardi seizing on the other. At last the Saracens took Sicily, and frequently committed great ravages in Italy. After several revolutions it was conquered by the Normans, Constantia, the wife of the emperor Henry VI. the last of the legitimate descendants of Roger, the first king of the Norman race, dying in 1198, the succession devolved on her son Frederic II. emperor of Germany; and thus the kingdom fell to the house of Swabia. On the death of his son Conrad IV. his natural son, Manfred, having made himself master of the kingdom, pope Urban IV. and afterwards Clement IV. being strenuously bent on the expulsion of the house of Swabia, offered the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily to Charles of Anjou; and, to give the greater sanction to the enterprize, crowned him king. Manfred lost his life in an unsuccessful battle, and Charles's severity so alienated his subjects, that Conradine of Swabia, the son of Conrad IV. the only lawful heir to the kingdom, was invited to assert his claim to the hereditary dominions of his father; but this young prince being so unfortunate as to be taken pri-

soner, was beheaded; and thus Charles was secured on the throne. In 1277 this prince became king of Jerusalem, but lost Sicily; for the inhabitants, exasperated by the insolence and tyranny of the French, having a nobleman called John de Procida at their head, on Easter-day, 1312, when the bells chimed for vespers, rose and massacred all the Frenchmen in the island. Upon which Peter of Arragon was chosen king, and his descendants reigned over Sicily till the beginning of the fifteenth century, when it was again united to Naples. At length Ferdinand the Catholic, king of Spain, and Lewis XII. king of France, seized the kingdom; but Ferdinand maintaining that the entire kingdom belonged to himself, and making good his claim by force of arms, Naples continued to be governed by Spanish viceroys till the beginning of the present century. During the long and bloody war for the succession, count Daun, in 1707, conquered this kingdom for Charles III. afterwards emperor, by the title of Charles VI. who in 1720 also acquired Sicily. In 1734 the Spaniards made themselves masters of both kingdoms for the infant Don Carlos; and in 1736 the emperor, by a formal instrument, ceded the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily to him and his heirs, and in default of issue to his younger brothers and sisters; but Don Carlos, on the death of his father, being placed on the throne of Spain, was succeeded by Ferdinand IV. his third son.

The arms of the kingdom of Naples are a field azure, interspersed with lilies or, with a tournament collar of five lapets gules.

There is here an order of knighthood, which is that of St. Januarius, instituted by Don Carlos, in the year 1738. Its badge is the image of this saint, appendant to a watered carnation ribbon, passing from the right shoulder to the left side, and on the left breast of the coat a silver cross. The principal offices under the government are the council of state, to which belong the secretaries of state, the king's privy-council, the treasury, the Sicily council, the treasury of Palermo, the council of war, &c.

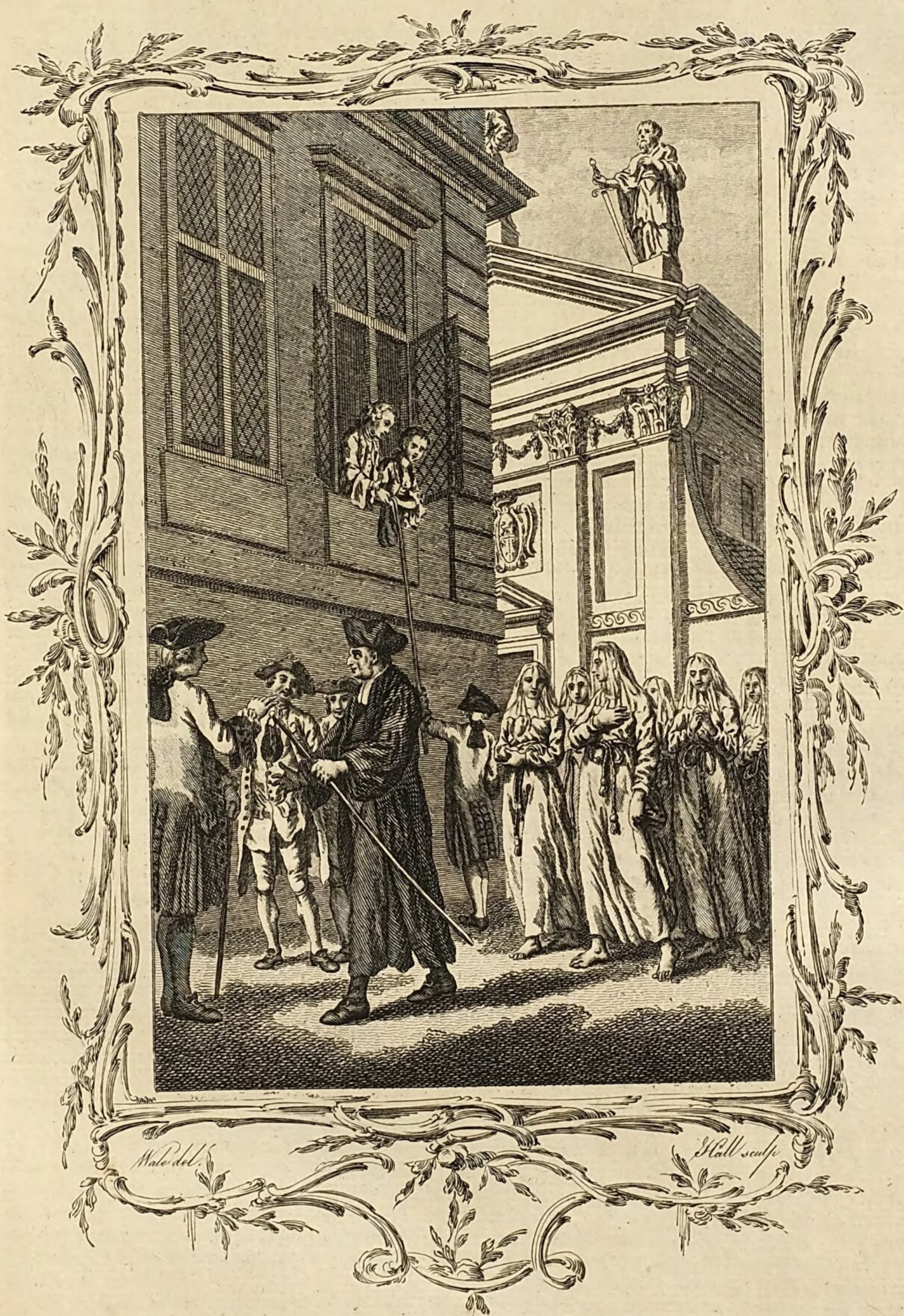
The standing forces throughout the kingdom do not exceed thirty thousand men, of which the Swiss regiments are the best.

The kingdom of Naples is divided into twelve provinces: these are Terra di Lavoro, the Hither Principality, the Farther Principality, the Basilicate, Hither Calabria, Farther Calabria, and Apulia, under which last are included the territories of Otranto, Barri, the Capitinata, the Molise, and the provinces of Hither and Farther Abruzzo.

SECT. III.

Of the Province of Naples called Terra di Lavoro, or the Territory of Lavoro; its Situation, Extent, and Rivers; with a particular Description of the City of Naples.

TERRA di Lavoro, in Latin Terra Laboris, is esteemed the principal district in this kingdom, on account of the number of its towns, the richness of its soil, and its containing the capital of the kingdom. It comprehends a part of the antient Campania Felix, and was so called on account of its amazing fertility, and in the middle ages the Castellany of Capua; but received its present appellation in 1091 from Richard II. prince of Capua, and the Normans, who in the beginning of the same year were driven by the Longobardian inhabitants out of the city of Capua, and instead of the principality of Capua used to term it Terra di Lavoro, from the fitness of the soil for all manner of culture. Its coast extends along the Mediterranean about a hundred and twenty miles, including the windings and creeks, and it is about thirty-three in breadth, where broadest; but its greatest length, from the Ecclesiastical State to the Hither Principality in a direct line, does not exceed seventy-four miles. It is bounded on the north by the Hither and Farther Abruzzo, on the east by the county of Molise and the Farther Principality, on the south by the Hither Principality and the gulph of Naples, and on the west by the Campania of Rome.



Procession of the Penitent Prostitutes at Naples.

The chief rivers which water this fine territory are the Carigliano, the antient Liris, the Saone, or Novigliano, the Voltorno, which receives the Sabato Calvi, and some others; the Clanio, or Patria, and the Sarno, or Scafati. The principal lakes are the Mare Morto, or Dead Sea, which is rather a gulph, the Averno, and the Collucia, the antient Acherusius.

The city of Naples, in Italian Napoli, the antient Parthenope, afterwards Neapolis, the capital of the kingdom, is seated in the forty-first degree twenty one minutes north latitude, and in the fourteenth degree forty-five minutes east longitude, standing partly on a mountain, and partly towards the sea. Its walls, which are mostly faced with a hard black stone called piperno, are nine miles in circuit; but including the suburbs, the entire circumference cannot be less than eighteen or twenty Italian miles. Most of the streets are admirably well paved with free stone; but the fault is, they have no slope or gutters to carry off water. That of the greatest length and breadth is called the Strada di Toledo, which is about twenty-three common paces broad; and, after running in a direct line fifteen hundred paces, it is continued some hundreds more in an easy curve. This street indeed has not one eminent palace; but though Naples has not such magnificent structures as are to be seen at Rome and Genoa, it has very few of those mean buildings which in other cities disgrace their finest streets. The houses in general are lofty and of stone, with paved flat roofs, surrounded with elegant balustrades: but the great number of stalls on which eatables are exposed to sale, and of balconies with lattice windows, are a great impediment to the streets appearing to advantage; besides, they are left destitute of the convenience and ornament of being illuminated at night, and few cities are more dangerous after it is dark.

The harbour is very spacious, and has a grand light-house, with a mole near five hundred paces in length, which separates the main harbour from the basin. The latter lies behind the Castello Nuovo, and has generally in it four galleys, the crews of which, both rowers and soldiers, are obliged every Lent to come to a formal confession, and to receive the sacrament. The devotions of the first galley are followed by a day of rest, the second by a like interval, and so on. In the evening, at the close of the procession usual on such solemnities, the host is exposed, and all the galleys give it a salute.

The great number of fountains are very elegant ornaments of the city, though in many of them the water is but indifferent. The finest of these fountains is that of Medina facing Castello Nuovo, or the New Castle: the upper basin is supported by the three Graces, and on the top stands a superb Neptune, attended by several other figures, all ejecting water, which make a very grand appearance. Several of the other fountains are of elegant architecture, adorned with good pieces of sculpture. A very fine aqueduct supplies the city with a vast quantity of water from the foot of Mount Vesuvius, by means of which Alphonsus II. in 1442 made himself master of the city. The place where formerly was the greatest reservoir of these waters is at present known by the name of Seggio di Nido, or Nilo, where there is an antique statue of the river Nile, represented under the figure of an old man sitting on a crocodile, with boys playing about him.

The number of the inhabitants is at least three hundred thousand, and as the commerce of the city occasions a great bustle, Rome, in comparison of this city, has by some travellers been looked upon as a kind of desert. Here are swarms of princes, dukes, marquises, and other nobility, to whom are appointed five large squares, called Capuana, Nido, Montagna, Porto, and Porta Nuovo. The commonalty have also their peculiar district. Each of these six districts chooses its deputies, who superintend the police of the city, and hold a court for the examination of such public concerns as fall under their cognizance. The nobility of the five piazzas, as they are called, also name their syndics, who, in the parliaments and other solemn assemblies, represent the city, and the whole kingdom.

Of all the palaces that of the king is the most august, and of the newest architecture. It was the work of the

famous Fontana. The great *perron*, which is divided into two flights of steps, is of white marble, eleven common paces in breadth, and has a magnificent appearance. At the foot of the steps on each side is the statue of a river, that on the right representing the Ebro, and that on the left the Tagus: but the eye of a connoisseur, on entering the palace on this side, must be offended at the disproportionate narrowness of the court. In the audience-room are finely painted the most remarkable actions of the Spanish nation, among which is placed the expulsion of the Jews out of Spain. The Sala Regia, where the carnival entertainments are held, is hung with the pictures of all the viceroys at full length, and a particular gallery is taken up with the exploits of the duke of Alva. In another saloon is represented the war carried on by Charles V. with John Frederic, elector of Saxony. Indeed all the apartments abound in fine paintings and beautiful tapestry. In the palace chapel are surprising quantities of plate, and behind the altar stands a most admirable white marble statue of the Virgin Mary.

The monasteries and convents of both sexes in this city are computed at a hundred and forty-nine; besides which are thirty-four houses for poor boys, girls, and women; eleven hospitals, five seminaries for ecclesiastics, four capital churches, thirty-two parish-churches, seventy other churches and chapels, and upwards of a hundred and thirty oratories or chapels of religious fraternities. Most of the churches are deficient in good paintings and a fine front, and their marble monuments are not of those magnificent large dimensions that strike the eye with such surprize, as the far greater part do in Rome; but every thing else, in beauty and richness, surpasses all of the kind in other Catholic countries, the value of the jewels and utensils of the altars being alone estimated at several millions of dollars.

For the defence of the city, and at the same time to keep it in subjection, are five castles, which, according to the old method, consist chiefly of very strong walls. The Castello Nuovo has a communication by a covert-way with the king's palace, and one side is contiguous to the sea. Its subterraneous works and mines are admirable. At its entrance stands a triumphal arch of very curious sculpture. Near it is a brass gate, decorated with fine basso relievos, representing some of the achievements of the kings of Arragon. The castle church is handsomely decorated with gilding and stucco-work, and a Pieta, in a room adjoining to it, is greatly admired. Facing the armoury, which it is said can compleatly furnish fifty thousand men, stands a marble antique statue of a young soldier, or, according to some, of the emperor Nero.

The Castello del Uovo, or Egg Castle, so called from its oval form, stands on a rock in the sea, which is joined to the continent by a bridge two hundred and twenty paces in length: it is supplied with fresh water by means of a stone conduit, embellished with a variety of marble figures of animals, and conveys the water from the city under the bridge to the castle, where are two reservoirs.

The third check upon the city of Naples is the castle of St. Elmo, or St. Eramo, thus called from a church dedicated to that saint, which formerly stood on this spot. It is situated on an eminence towards the west, and is in the form of a star with six rays. The subterraneous works are very spacious, and hewn out of the rock to such a depth as to be bomb-proof, on which account a great quantity of military stores are kept here. This castle may be supplied with provisions from Castello Nuovo, by means of a subterraneous communication. In the upper part of St. Elmo's castle are seven cisterns for water, and under the vaults and mines is a reservoir large enough for two galleys to sail on. The water, which is always extremely cold, is drawn up by buckets. The two other castles are of little note.

The most remarkable houses at Naples are those of the prince di St. Agata, the dukes of Gravina and Mataloni, and a few others.

The most remarkable churches and convents in this city are the following:

The cathedral is dedicated to the Assumption of the Virgin Mary, and, though a Gothic structure, is very fine. On the high altar is the Assumption of the Virgin Mary,

Mary, by Pietro Perugino, a painter, who was Raphael's master. Fronting the altar are two pillars of red jasper, twelve feet high, without the pedestals, which are of verde antico. In the chapel under the high altar are some curious works in marble, as festoons, foliages, birds, children, and angels, which are by some attributed to Michael Angelo, who also cut the transparent alabaster statue of cardinal Oliverio Caraffa, the founder of this chapel, placed behind the altar. The pavement is inlaid with verde-antico, jasper, giallo-antico, and porphyry. The remains of St. Januarius have been removed from the church dedicated to that saint, without the walls, to this subterraneous chapel. The late emperor offered at his shrine twelve silver eagles, in the heads of which are twelve lamps kept continually burning, and one hundred scudi a year are appointed for supplying them with oil.

The most remarkable chapel in this cathedral is that called il Tesoro, on the right hand on entering the church, the architecture of which is extremely beautiful. In it are the statues of St. Peter and St. Paul finely executed by Finelli, and two pillars of black marble most beautifully spotted; the door is of brass curiously wrought with festoons and foliages. The chapel is of a round figure, and contains seven altars of the finest marble, and forty-two pillars of broccatello. Twenty-one large bronze images of saints, each valued at four thousand scudi, stand round the upper part of the wall, and under them are sixty silver busts of so many saints. The cupola was painted by Lanfranco, Domenichino, and Perme-giano; but their work has suffered much by earthquakes that have damaged the cupola. Behind the high altar, which is detached from the wall, and entirely of red porphyry, is the shrine with silver doors, where they pretend to keep St. Januarius's head, with some of his blood, contained in two crystal phials, and said to have been gathered by a woman at the time of his martyrdom. Besides the three stated times in the year for exposing these relics to the public view, the like is done with the deepest humiliations on account of famine, pestilence, earthquakes, or any other public calamity, which is supposed to require the interposition of this saint. The pretended liquefaction of the coagulated blood in the phials, when placed near the head, is known to all the world. This farce is acted the first Sunday in May, and on the success or failure of this miracle the prosperity or calamity of the succeeding year is supposed to depend. As the former occasions great public rejoicings, so if the blood remains coagulated, recourse is had to processions, public flagellations, &c. to avert the impending danger.

That accurate naturalist and philosopher Mr. Key-
fler observes, that the substance in the phial is of a brownish red, and looks like balsam of Peru, which may be very easily liquefied. On the day when this miracle is to be exhibited, the phial containing the supposed blood stands surrounded by a great number of lights: it is about three inches long, and is applied to the mouths and foreheads of an innumerable multitude of people who throng to partake of such a blessing, the priest all the while turning it every way; so that by the continual agitation, the warmth of his hand, the heat from the lights, the effluvia from such crowds, the sultriness of the weather, &c. it is not unreasonable to suppose a condensed fluid may be gradually restored to its liquidity. At length the priest cries out, *Il miracolo è fatto*, "The miracle is performed," which is immediately answered by a *Te Deum*, amidst the acclamations of the people, and the discharge of cannon. This pretended miracle is not however peculiar to the blood of St. Januarius, for that of St. John the Baptist, St. Stephen, St. Pantaleon, St. Vitus, and St. Patricia, exhibit the like spectacle in other churches at Naples, where such relics are kept, and generally on the days dedicated to those saints.

In the area before the cathedral stands a fine marble obelisk, on which is erected a brass statue of St. Januarius, with a Latin inscription to the following purpose: "Erected by the city of Naples, out of gratitude to St. Januarius, the ever propitious and powerful protector of his native city and the whole kingdom." This obelisk is annually illuminated on the nineteenth of September, with a splendor hardly to be conceived, while a

numerous band of music play by it, and all the guns in the several forts are fired on the occasion.

The church of the Holy Apostles is almost covered with gilding and painting; but it wants a beautiful front. Over the entrance is a piece of painting by Lanfranco, representing the angel descending to stir the waters of Bethesda, and he also painted the roof. The cupola is likewise finely painted, and the tabernacle on the great altar is a most admirable piece, consisting of eight pillars, and other decorations of amethysts, emeralds, lapis-lazuli, agates of several colours, a topaz of the size of a walnut, and other gems. On the altar piece is a fine painting of Christ's head, with a crown of thorns. The altar is of flowered marble, and the balustrade before it of red and white marble. The other chapels of this church are also exceeding beautiful.

In the convent belonging to this church are three galleries, one over another; but that on the ground-floor is by much the finest. The stair-case runs in a spiral line, and the steps are very low, for the convenience of asses carrying up corn to the granaries. The library is elegant, well furnished with books, and affords a delightful prospect.

Near this convent is held a weekly meeting of the heads of a society consisting of two hundred gentlemen of the law, to examine the private grievances of the poor; and in case any pauper is found to be oppressed, and can make good his complaint, a member of this society is nominated to undertake his cause: but neither this member nor the society are at any expence, the law charges being defrayed by the Theatine convent, which has large endowments for that particular purpose.

The Jesuits college, as usual, is one of the finest structures in the city: the refectory, the library, the great stair-case, the dispensatory, and the church belonging to this college, will afford entertainment to a traveller of taste. The cupola, which is admirably painted by Lanfranco, was damaged by an earthquake in 1688; so that the only remains of that eminent pencil are the Evangelists, the rest being painted by Paolo de Mattheis, a Neapolitan. The altars are extremely rich, and in the treasury, besides several statues and busts, is St. Cyr, as big as the life, of silver, enriched with emeralds. The Jesuits have also several other churches in this city.

St. Dominico Maggiore belongs to the Dominican monks, and contiguous to it is a convent, where there are generally a hundred and forty monks. This church was built by king Charles II. whose heart is kept here embalmed in a small ivory urn. In the chapel of the Holy Crucifix is the crucifix, which, it is pretended, expressed its approbation of the writings of Thomas of Aquinas on the real presence of the body and blood of Christ in the Sacrament, and on certain days this crucifix is annually exposed to public view with great pomp; but at all other times it is not to be seen. In the Capella di Stigliano is an exquisite image of the Virgin Mary, and in the chapel of St. Joseph are two fine pictures by Guido. The vestry is very lofty, and finely painted by Solimene. In the gallery are seven coffins, richly covered, in which are the remains of the kings and queens of Naples, and other great personages.

The church of St. Francisco di Paola, which faces the viceroy's palace, is remarkable for a beautiful pavement, a roof finely carved and gilt, and several marble ornaments, especially at the high altar. The tabernacle is embellished with eight incomparable pillars, two of lapis-lazuli, and the other six of green jasper. In the middle of this altar is an excellent piece of perspective in enamel, and it is profusely enriched with gems. The painting about the altar, and of the whole choir, is by Luca Giordano. Among its relics are two small phials, which they pretend are full of the Virgin Mary's milk, that resembles white terræ sigillatæ, but liquefies on the festivals of the Virgin. Among the silver ornaments in the chapel, contiguous to the dispensatory, is a statue of St. Michael near three feet high, glittering with jewels, and valued at twelve thousand ducats.

St. Maria Annunziata is one of the finest churches in Naples, for the eye every where meets with noble paintings, statues, monuments, and basso relievos.

The

The hospital called *la Casa Santa*, belonging to this church, was once the best endowed of any in the whole world, its annual income amounting, according to some, to a million of scudi, or about two hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling. The children maintained here are generally about two thousand five hundred in number. The boys are brought up to handicraft trades, and some even to the church. The girls, as they grow up, according to their capacities, or inclinations, do the work of the hospital, are employed in the instruction of the children, entered into a convent, or married, and had formerly a portion of one or two hundred ducats. The young women married from this house, in case they are left widows in necessitous circumstances, or forsaken by their husbands; or if the marriage, without any fault of theirs, proves unfortunate, are entitled to be re-admitted, and have a particular apartment allowed them. The annual amount of the dowries to other women, with which this house is charged by several antient legacies and foundations, was at least eighteen thousand ducats; there being many noble families whose daughters at their marriage received two or three thousand dollars from this hospital. The physicians, surgeons, apothecaries, servants, &c. stood the house annually in fourteen thousand ducats.

To the *Casa Santa* belong four other hospitals, one of which is at *Puzzuolo*, and another at *Tritoli*, where great numbers of patients are sent every summer to the warm baths and sudatories, and there provided with food, lodging, and necessary attendance.

This was the state of the hospital at the beginning of the present century, when it proved bankrupt for above five million of ducats, on which account, till the debts are discharged, the revenue is assigned over to the creditors, allowing only forty-two thousand ducats a year for the support of the hospital, the church, and the convent. This has reduced the girls portions from two hundred ducats to fifty, and the other expences have suffered a proportional diminution.

In the church of *St. Maria della Sanito*, which belongs to the Dominicans, are thirteen small cupolas over so many altars, all finely ornamented with paintings. The tabernacle on the high altar has eight pillars of rock crystal, each a foot high, cut out of a single piece. It is also enriched with a great number of sapphires, and other precious stones. The pulpit is an exquisite inlaid work of marble and mother of pearl. In the vestry are shewn a crucifix and several pyramids of crystal; fourteen silver candlesticks, each above six feet high; a very small casket in the form of an altar, on one side of which is the passion of Christ, of such fine workmanship, that in the bosom of the Virgin Mary, which opens with two folding doors, the crucifixion of our Saviour is to be seen within the compass of a silver two-pence. In the casket is also kept another representation of the crucifixion, composed of emeralds and other gems. On the *Ostenforium*, where the consecrated wafer lies, the sun is finely represented, the radiancy of his beams being heightened by the blaze of diamonds, pearls, and rubies. The church and convent are built on an ascent; so that a great part of the former, and even some pillars, are hewn out of the rock. The prospect from thence towards the sea and Mount *Vesuvius* is extremely beautiful, and before the refectory is an orangery in the open air, the trees of which are of an uncommon size.

The spacious convent of *St. Martino* is every where full of curious and magnificent pieces, and the church, though none of the largest, is a very fine one. The monks boast that under one priorate above five hundred thousand ducats were bestowed among them in silver plate, sculptures, and pictures. The *Nativity of Christ* is a most exquisite piece done by *Guido*: the four pictures of the *Last Supper* are by the hands of *Espagnolet*, *Hannibal Caracci*, *Paul Veronese*, and *Massimo*; besides which, there are many other pieces of great value, and in particular the famous crucifix of *Michael Angelo*, done, as it is said, to the life, after a peasant, who for that purpose was murdered by the painter: it is of wood, and not above half a foot high. It is observable, that the head is

upright, which does not look very like the posture of an expiring person. The pavement of the cloyster, which is a hundred paces square, is of marble inlaid in boughs and such like ornaments, and the four galleries are supported by sixty pillars, each of one entire piece of the best white marble of *Carrara*. Every fryar has his own chamber, closet, library, and little garden; and the prior's lodgings are fit for the reception of a prince.

From this ascent there is the most delightful prospect that can be well conceived; for at one view may be seen the sea and many islands, and particularly that of *Caprea*, and the famous seraglio of *Tiberius*; as likewise the whole city of *Naples*; with a great number of villages situated along the sea-shore.

The university of *Naples* was founded in 1224 by the emperor *Frederic II.* and the university, or palace *Degli Studii Publici*, founded in the seventeenth century, by count *Lemos*, would, if it was finished, be the finest scholastic structure in *Italy*.

The suburb of *Chiaia*, or *Spiaggia*, lies along the sea-shore, and is one of the pleasantest parts in the city, and on that account some hundreds of coaches resort thither in an evening.

We cannot take leave of *Naples* without mentioning the catacombs, which the vulgar imagine were the work of the primitive Christians, and served as retreats in time of persecution; but this opinion is confuted by their being hewn out of the solid rock, and its being impossible to accomplish them clandestinely and without immense charges, and consequently they could never be the work of the Christians while the Pagans had the superiority. The galleries, or passages, are here loftier and wider than those of *Rome*; they are generally arched, and so broad that six persons may walk a-breast; and here is one particular vault of such a height, that the roof cannot be discerned by the light of flambeaus carried into it. The catacombs must have been extremely loathsome if, as some have imagined, the dead bodies that lay in them were left to rot in open niches; but this was not the case. They were deposited in cavities on both sides of the vaults, four or five, one over another, and these cavities were closed up with a marble slab or tile cemented with mortar. *St. Proculus's* sepulchre appears to have had a kind of Mosaic work on its covering, for at one end of it are several small pieces of marble ranged together after that manner; and it is probable they were all adorned, according to the quality of the dead. It is indeed surprizing to find such a multitude of niches unstopped; but they were probably opened by those who were in quest of some supposed treasure.

It is proper to mention among the curiosities of *Naples*, the manner of furnishing that city with snow, which they there use instead of ice, because they suppose it sooner cools any liquor. There is a great quantity of it annually consumed; for they drink very few liquors, and not even water without it: thus it is used by every body from the highest to the lowest, so that a scarcity of snow would occasion a mutiny, as much as a dearth of corn in any other country. To prevent this the king of *Spain* sold the monopoly of it to certain persons, who are obliged to furnish the city with it all the year round at so much the pound. For this purpose they make use of an high mountain at about eighteen miles distance, in which they have several pits. There they employ many poor people at the proper season of the year to roll in vast balls of snow, which they ram together and cover from the sun-shine. Out of these reservoirs of snow they cut several lumps, as they have occasion for them, and send them on asses to the sea-side, where they are carried off in boats, and distributed to several shops at a settled price, from which the whole city of *Naples* is supplied.

While the banditti continued their disorders in this kingdom, they frequently put the snow-merchants under contribution, and threatened them, if they proved tardy in their payments, to destroy the magazines; which, it is said, they might easily have done, by the infusion of some barrels of oil.

S E C T. III.

Of the natural and artificial Curiosities, and principal Places in the Terra di Lavoro; particularly the Grotto of Paulilipo, the Sudatories of St. Germano, the Grotto del Cani, the remarkable Valley of Solfatara, the Cities of Puzzuolo and Capua; with several remarkable Lakes, &c.

ON the road from the beautiful suburb of Chiaia is the grotto of Paulilipo, which the common people of Naples believe to have been formed by magic, and that Virgil was the magician. To form a just idea of this place, says Addison, the reader must imagine a vast rock undermined, with a passage and highway through it, near as long and as broad as the mall in St. James's park. This subterraneous passage is much improved since Seneca gave so bad a character of it. The entrance at both ends is higher than the middle, and sinks by degrees to throw in more light upon the rest, each entrance being about eighty or a hundred feet high. Towards the middle are two large funnels, bored through the roof of the cavern, to let in light and fresh air. The bottom of it is paved with broad stones like the streets of Naples, and is cleaned several times in a year, and then it is pretty free from dust; but as it is a road extremely frequented, this convenience is of no long duration. As the breadth is between eighteen and twenty feet, there is sufficient room for two carriages to avoid each other. Near the middle of it is an oratory hewn out of the rock, with a lamp continually burning in it. This is certainly a very antient work of art, yet there are no vast heaps of stones to be seen about the mountain, though the great quantities of them could not certainly be concealed, had they not been consumed in the moles and buildings of Naples. This confirmed me, says Mr. Addison, in a conjecture which I made at the first sight of this subterraneous passage, that it was originally not so much designed for a highway, as for a quarry of stone; but that the inhabitants finding a double advantage by it, hew'd it into the present form. The same design was perhaps the original of the Sybil's grotto, considering the prodigious multitude of palaces that stood in its neighbourhood. When I was at Chateaudun, in France, the same gentleman adds, I met with a very curious person, a member of one of the universities of Germany, who had staid a day or two in the town longer than ordinary, to take the measures of several empty spaces cut in the sides of a neighbouring mountain; some of them were supported with pillars formed out of the rock; some resembled galleries; and some were not unlike amphitheatres. The gentleman had formed several ingenious hypotheses relating to the use of these subterraneous apartments, and from thence made several observations on the magnificence and luxury of the antient Chateaudunois; but communicating his thoughts on this subject to one of the most learned persons of the place, he was not a little surprized to hear, that these stupendous works were only so many quarries of free-stone wrought into different forms according as the veins of it directed the workmen.

On this mountain they shew a tomb of Virgil, though it is well known that this celebrated poet was buried on the other side of the city, towards Mount Paulilipo, it being pleasantly variegated with churches, convents, and vineyards that produce excellent wine.

On leaving the grotto of Paulilipo, you turn off on the right hand into a very pleasant road, which running between fine vineyards, leads to the lake of Agnano, which is almost a perfect circle about an Italian mile in circumference. At high water in some parts of it is seen a strong ebullition. On approaching near it one is sensible of the motion of the water, which possibly proceeds from the ascent of the effluvia. The tenches and eels in this lake have in winter a very good flavour; but in summer are not eatable, which is in some measure imputed to the great quantities of flax and hemp brought thither from all the neighbouring parts, and put in the water to be mellowed.

Near this lake stand the sudatories of St. Germano, which consist of several apartments built with stone; where the heat and sulphureous vapours issuing from the earth soon cause a profuse sweat; in some places the wall is too hot for the hand to bear it, and yet the heat is supportable in the hottest room, especially if you stoop towards the ground. The same observation is made on the baths of Tritoli. The patients are put into rooms of different degrees of heat, according to the nature of their complaint; and in the sudatories of St. Germano, which are said to be very efficacious in the gout, debilities, inward heats, &c. they never stay above a quarter of an hour at a time.

Within an hundred paces of these salubrious sudatories, is a small natural cavern known by the name of the Grotto del Cani, or the Dog's grotto, that animal being generally chosen to prove the surprizing effect of the vapour in this cavity. It is about twelve feet in length, five broad, and six high, and is famous for the poisonous steams which rise above its surface. The sides of the grotto are marked with green as far as the vapour reaches. The common experiments are holding the dog with his nose in the vapour, by which means he soon loses all signs of life; but on his being carried into the open air, or thrown into a neighbouring lake, if he is not quite dead, he immediately recovers. A torch dipt into the vapour goes out in a moment, snuff and all; and within it a pistol cannot take fire. Mr. Addison split a reed and laid a train of gunpowder in the channel of it; then placing one end of the reed above the vapour, and the other at the bottom, found that the vapour could not intercept the train, nor hinder it from running to the very end; and, by repeating the experiment, so far dissipated the vapour, that he could easily let off a pistol in it. A viper being put in it bore the vapour nine minutes, and the second time ten; but on its being brought out after the first trial, it took such a vast quantity of air into its lungs, that it swelled nearly twice as big as before, and upon this extraordinary stock of air it perhaps lived a minute longer than before. Dr. Connor attributes the extinction of lights and the death of animals in this grotto to the great rarefaction of the air, caused by the heat and eruption of the steams. "The heat is, however, very inconsiderable; but to satisfy myself, says Addison, I placed a thin vial, well stopped with wax, within the smoke of the vapour, which certainly would have burst in an air so rarefied as to kill a dog or quench a torch; but nothing followed upon it. However, to remove all farther doubt, I borrowed a weather-glass, and fixed it in the grotto in such a manner that the stagnum was entirely covered with the vapour; but after half an hour's standing in it, I could not perceive that the quick-silver sunk. It is generally supposed that this vapour is sulphureous, but I could see no reason for such a supposition: upon my dipping my hand into it, it left no smell upon it; and though I put a whole bundle of lighted brimstone matches into the smoke, they all instantly went out, as if immersed in water. Whatever be the composition of the vapour, let it have but one quality of being very viscous or gluey, and I believe it will mechanically solve all these phaenomena. Its unctuousness will render it heavy, and unfit for mounting, unless the heat of the earth was much greater than it is, to rarify and scatter it. It will be too thick and gross to keep the lungs in play for any time, so that animals will die sooner or later, in proportion as their blood circulates slower or faster. Fire is as soon extinguished in it as in water, from its wrapping itself in the same manner about the flame, and hindering, by its continuity, any quantity of air and nitre from approaching it; but as its sparks are no less compact than those of liquors, they are not so tenacious as to intercept the fire that has once caught a train of gunpowder, on which account they may be quite broken and dispersed by repeating this experiment."

Solfatara is a little valley, which, together with the neighbouring mountains, is of a yellowish colour, with smoke issuing from several parts. Upon widening the holes from whence it proceeds, and digging to some depth, the

the heat soon becomes so excessive, that there is no approaching them. The stones that lie round such openings are in a continual agitation, and upon throwing to the ground a handful of small pieces of money, some are tossed eight or ten feet high in the air. Even in some places the mere exhalations without smoke continually throw up the sand, and keep it suspended. Thus this valley may be deemed the miniature of Vesuvius; and though that mountain is upwards of eight miles distant, there appears to be a subterraneous communication between it and this valley, it being observed, the thicker the smoke is here, the more quiet Vesuvius is; and the more violent the eruptions of the latter, the less smoke is observed to proceed from Solfatara. The ground is almost every where hollow; for if a stone be thrown upon it, a long subterraneous echo ensues; but if a large stone be cast into one of the holes that have been dug, the noise is almost as great as that of thunder. Here are prepared sulphur, vitriol of a sapphire colour, esteemed better than that of Rome, and likewise alum to the greatest perfection. The large leaden kettles used in this operation, are not heated by any fire of wood or coals, but only by the natural heat of holes in the ground over which they are placed. The people in general believe that these apertures are spiracles, if not of hell, at least of purgatory; and it is pretended that ghosts often appear in these parts, making dreadful lamentations; and these idle notions are very carefully promoted by the monks of a capuchin convent in the neighbourhood, to render the people more tractable.

The church of the above convent is built on the spot where St. Januarius is said to have been beheaded; and there is always a great heat felt in the church, which is principally emitted from some holes near the high altar. A great quantity of salt-petre is to be seen on the walls of the vestry. That the monks may be provided with cool and wholesome water, their reservoir stands upon a pillar inclosed with a wall, out of the reach of the warm and sulphureous exhalations.

In the neighbourhood of this valley are a great number of subterranean passages that have a communication with each other, and seem to have been so many reservoirs of water for the old city of Puteoli, which extended to this valley; as appears from an amphitheatre in this neighbourhood, that anciently stood in the midst of that city.

Portici, a village near Vesuvius, and between seven and eight miles from Naples, where a royal palace was built by the present king of Spain, when king of the Two Sicilies, with a valuable museum of antiquities.

At a small distance from Portici, anciently stood the city of Heraclia or Herculaneum, which in the reign of Nero was for the better part destroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the first year of the reign of Titus, overwhelmed by a stream of the lava of Vesuvius. In the years 1689 and 1711, upon digging into these parts, somewhat of this unfortunate city was discovered; but since the year 1738, farther searches having been made at a considerable expence, stately buildings made their appearance, and from among the rubbish were taken a multiplicity of invaluable antiquities, as paintings, statues, bustoes, books, furniture, and various utensils, and the search is still continued.

At the distance of eight miles from Naples is Puzzuolo, the ancient Puteoli, which in the time of the Romans was a considerable city, but at present is only a small town on a bay, where the great quantity of beautiful stones and gems cast up by the sea, afford a sufficient proof of its former splendor and magnificence. The greatest part of these stones are of a blue or red cast, and there are frequently found among them pieces of verde antico and porphyry, which seem to have been used in Mosaic work; likewise agate, cornelian, amethysts, jasper, onyx, beryl, and lapis-lazuli. The old city has been entirely destroyed by the ravages of war, inundations, and earthquakes.

The cathedral is built with large blocks of marble, and was converted from a pagan temple into a Christian church, dedicated to St. Proculus and St. Januarius, whose statues of marble stand in the middle of the church. At the entrance on the left hand is a beautiful altar of inlaid work, with a very costly tabernacle. On the high

altar the beheading of St. Januarius is extremely well painted.

This city values itself on its having been honoured with the first Christian community in Italy, St. Paul in his journey to Rome having found brethren there.

In the square of Toledo is a fountain adorned with a fine statue of St. Januarius, and an ancient Roman statue of fine marble dug up without the city. The harbour of Puzzuolo is very commodious, and is formed by fourteen piers, or pilasters, rising above the surface of the water, which were anciently joined together by arches, and on the sides of these pilasters are vast stones with holes in them for fastening ships, &c. Formerly there were twenty-five of these pilasters; but some of them have been totally demolished, and others do not rise so high as the surface.

The sea about this city abounds in fish, especially of the testaceous kind. Here is a small fish not quite an inch in length, called *cavallo marino*, or sea-horse, and is generally dried for keeping: the head very much resembles that of a horse. It is often bruised with vinegar and honey, and applied by way of plaster to the part bitten by a mad dog, and the women eat them to procure a good breast of milk.

The Lucrine lake, famous among the Romans for its fine oysters, and great abundance of other fish, lies near the shore, and at present is very small, it having been for the most part dried up by a new mountain which rose instantaneously in the night, between the nineteenth and twentieth of September 1538, during an earthquake which caused a terrible devastation in the neighbourhood. The subterraneous fire, after making a wide chasm, ejected such a quantity of stones, ashes, sulphur, and sand, as within twenty-four hours formed this mountain; the perpendicular height of which is not less than four hundred rods, and the circumference three Italian miles.

The lake of Averno lies in a narrow valley, and is nearly of the same size as the lake of Agnano; but its water has not the quality ascribed to it by Virgil, and other authors, who represent its poisonous exhalations as almost instantaneously killing the birds that attempted to fly over it. At present fowls are observed not only to harbour about, but even to swim upon it; it is stocked with fish, and the land all round produces fine fruit and excellent wine: for Augustus having caused the woods about it to be cut down, the country became more healthy, and the lake was no longer formidable. This lake is in some places an hundred and eighty feet deep; and some old walls standing near it, are supposed to be the remains of a temple of Apollo.

In the same valley is the entrance into the grotto of the sibyl Cumana, which is hewn in the rock, and after one enters, stooping very low, is found to be about ten feet in breadth, twelve in height, and several hundred paces in length. The story of a sibyl's residing here is unquestionably fabulous.

The shore of the bay where anciently stood the city of Baia, was once covered with magnificent edifices, as appears from the ruins of the emperor Nero's palace at this place, and particularly by the remains of the warm baths at Tritoli, the reservoirs of which are cut in a rock after a very surprising manner. The steam of the water is of such intense heat, that no person can proceed beyond twenty paces into the passage leading to it. These baths are at present used for the same disorders as the sudatory of St. Germano. At the foot of the hill are several other baths, and particularly one called St. George, in which the water is only luke-warm. On the shore are the remains of a palace of Julius Cæsar, and of the temples of Diana and Venus.

Caserta is a small town, the see of a bishop, and the capital of a small principality. Here is a royal palace which has been lately built, and is said to have cost an immense sum.

Capua is now a small town on the river Volturno, fifteen miles to the north east of Naples; it has some inconsiderable fortifications, and several fine houses and churches. The present town was built in the year 856, and in 869 was made the first archbishopric in the kingdom of Naples. The ancient celebrated city of Capua, which

which vied in magnificence with Rome and Carthage, stood two Italian miles from the modern, and out of its ruins was built the market town of St. Maria, in the environs of which are still seen the remains of palaces, temples, and other buildings, particularly a beautiful amphitheatre of free-stone. The neighbouring country produces great plenty of the finest fruits and wine.

There are several other small cities and towns in the Terra di Lavoro; but as they contain very little that is worthy the notice of the curious, we shall proceed to describe some islands on the coast of that territory.

SECT. IV.

Of the Islands on the Coast of the Terra di Lavoro, particularly Caprea, Nisida, Procita, and Ischia.

IN describing the islands on the coast of the country last described, we shall begin with Capri, the ancient Caprea, to which Augustus Cæsar often came for his health and recreation, and Tiberius made it a scene of the most infamous pleasures. This island lies three Italian miles from that part of the main land that projects farthest into the sea. It extends four miles in length from east to west, and about one in breadth. The western part is, for about two miles, a continued rock, vastly high and inaccessible next the sea; yet Ano Capri, the largest town of the island, is situated here; and in this part are several places covered with a very fruitful soil. The eastern end of the island also rises up in precipices that are nearly as high, though not quite so long, as the western. Between the rocky mountains at each end, is a slip of lower ground that runs across the island, and is one of the pleasantest spots imaginable; it is covered with myrtles, olives, almonds, oranges, figs, vineyards, and corn-fields, which look extremely fresh and beautiful, and afford a most delightful little landscape, when viewed from the tops of the neighbouring mountains. Here is situated the town of Caprea, two or three convents, and the bishop's palace. In the midst of this fertile tract rises a hill, which in the reign of Tiberius was probably covered with buildings, the remains of which are still to be seen. But the most considerable ruins are those at the very extremity of the eastern promontory, where there are still some apartments that are very high and arched at the top: these appear to have been either bathing places, or reservoirs of water. From this place there is a very noble prospect; on one side of it the sea extends farther than the eye can reach; just opposite is the green promontory of Sarentum, and on the other side the bay of Naples. What recommended this island to Tiberius was its wholesome air, which is cool in summer and warm in winter, and its inaccessible coasts, which might be defended by a handful of men against a powerful army. The whole island was probably cut into several easy ascents adorned with a variety of palaces, and planted with as great a number of groves and gardens as the situation of the place would allow; yet the works under ground were more extraordinary than those on its surface; for the rocks are undermined with grottos, galleries, bagnios, and other subterraneous retirements, that suited the voluptuous life of the emperor.

It would appear surprizing that so few remains of those many works of art are now to be seen, were we not informed, that after Tiberius's death, the Romans sent thither an army of pioneers in order to deface the beauties of the island.

In sailing round Caprea, says Mr. Addison, I was entertained with many rude prospects of rocks and precipices, that in several places rise half a mile in perpendicular height, and at the bottom are caves and grottos formed by the continual breaking of the waves upon them. In entering one, called by the inhabitants Grotto Oscuro, after the light was a little worn off my eyes, I could distinctly see all the parts of it, by a glimmering reflection that played upon them from the surface of the water. The mouth is low and narrow, but after having entered pretty far in, the cavern opens on both sides in an oval figure of a hundred yards from one extreme to the other. The roof is vaulted, and distils

fresh water from every part, which fell as fast as the first droppings of a shower. Those of the inhabitants and Neapolitans who have heard of Tiberius's grottos, maintain that this was one of them; but many reasons shew it to be natural, for besides the little use of such a dark cavern of salt waters, it has no marks of the chissel. The sides are of a soft mouldering stone, and there are seen many of the like hollow spaces worn in the bottoms of the rocks, as they are more or less able to resist the force of the water that beats against them.

The island of Nisida is seated at a small distance from the main land, and is a kind of large garden laid out in beautiful slopes and terraces, adorned with a variety of plantations, rising above each other. It is said to bring its proprietor a yearly income of eight thousand ducats. Towards the south it has a small harbour, called Porto Pavone, and on a neighbouring rock stands a lazaretto, where ships bound for Naples are obliged to perform quarantine.

The isle of Procita, which belongs to the marquis of Vasto, though not above six miles in circuit, has about four thousand inhabitants, and produces abundance of good fruit and wine. A little town of the same name stands on its south peak, and on the shore opposite the main land is a market town.

The island of Ischia, which stands farther out into the sea, at two miles distance from Procita, was by the ancient poets called Inarime. These represent Typhæus as lying under it, on account of its fiery eruptions; but there have been none of these for near three hundred years: the last was very terrible, and destroyed a whole city; but at present there are scarce any marks of a subterraneous fire: there are indeed several cracks through which a smoke constantly issues; but it probably arises only from the warm springs that feed the many baths and dry sudatories with which this island is plentifully stored; for about one of these breathing passages a number of myrtles flourish within the steam of the vapours, and have a continual moisture hanging upon them. This island, including the projection of its small promontories, is ten miles in circumference, and is very mountainous, but produces great store of fruit, good wine, and game. The little town and castle of Ischia, on the north end of the island, stands upon a very high rock, divided by the sea from the island, but joined to it by a bridge. This island is the see of a bishop.

SECT. V.

Of the other Provinces of Naples, called the Principato Citra and Ultra, or the Hither and Farther Principality, and the Basilicata or Basilicate; their Situation, Extent, and principal Cities.

THE province called the Principato Citra, or the Hither Principality, had its name from the following circumstance: in the time of Arechis, duke of Benevento, this country, together with the Principato Ultra, formed only one principality; but Radalchis and Siconolf, having divided it between them, that part lying on this side the Appennine mountains received the name of the Hither Principality, and that on the other side the Farther Principality.

The Hither Principality is bounded on the north by the Farther Principality, and part of Campania Felix: on the south and west by the Tuscan sea; and on the south-east by the Basilicate; extending in its greatest length from the north-west to the south-east about sixty miles, and in its greatest breadth from north to south about thirty. The soil produces corn, wine, oil, and saffron, and they have a great deal of silk.

The principal towns in this province are the following.

Salerno, in Latin Salernum, the capital of the province, is situated near the sea, in the fortieth degree forty-six minutes north latitude, and in the fifteenth degree twenty-six minutes longitude, and stands in a plain surrounded with fertile and delightful hills; it has a pretty good harbour, though it is little frequented, yet is fortified and defended by a castle. It became an archiepiscopal

copal see so early as the year 974. Its school was formerly in great request, on account of the Arabians or Saracens resorting to it in great numbers, under the princes of the Longobardi, and from them the inhabitants learned philosophy, and especially the practice of physic, for which the Arabians were then highly celebrated. This school was at last raised to an university. Salerno has no buildings worth notice, except the cathedral, some convents, and the town-hall. The streets, as in most ancient cities, are narrow and uneven; there are indeed but two principal streets; these run parallel, and are crossed on both sides by all the others.

Scava, a small but well inhabited city, is the see of a bishop immediately subject to the pope, and is situated on the north-east coast of the gulph of Salerno, about four miles from that city.

Amalfi is a small city on the bay of Salerno, about twelve miles to the west of that city: it is an archiepiscopal see, and is honoured with the title of a principality. It was built in the year 600, and was formerly a considerable and powerful place, it being the seat of a republic which maintained its freedom till the year 1075. It is pretended that the use of the mariner's compass was first discovered in this city by Flavius Blondus, about the year 1300.

There are a considerable number of small towns in this district, most of which are the see of a bishop, but are too inconsiderable to deserve notice.

The Principato Ultra, or the Farther Principality, is seated in the middle of the Appennines, and is bounded on the north by the Molise and the Capitanata; on the east by the Capitanata and the province of Barri; on the south by the Hither Principality, and part of the Basilicata; and on the west by the Terra di Lavora. Its extent from north to south is about thirty miles, and from east to west about forty-eight.

Benevento, the capital of the province, is a large and handsome city, and the see of an archbishop, situated in the forty-first degree fifteen minutes latitude, and in the fifteenth degree thirty minutes east longitude; thirty-four miles to the north-east of Naples, and fifteen from Capua. It has suffered greatly by earthquakes, particularly in 1688, when the archbishop, afterwards pope Benedict XIII. was dug out alive from among the ruins; but when he was advanced to the papal chair he rebuilt the city, which is at present subject to the pope, and is seated in a delightful and fertile valley near the confluence of the rivers Saboro and Calore.

There are in this principality a considerable number of small cities, which have the honour of being the see of a bishop, and many small market towns.

The Basilicata, or Basilicate, is partly surrounded by the ridge of the Appennine mountains, which near Venosa, in this province, is divided into two branches; both of which extend to the sea. It formerly comprehended the largest and best part of the ancient Lucania, and though very mountainous, produces corn, wine, oil, saffron, cotton, honey, wax, and fruit. It is bounded on the north by the Capitanata; on the east by the gulph of Tarento, and part of the territory of Barri; on the south by Hither Calabria; and on the west by the two principalities just described.

The principal places in this province are,

Acerenza, the ancient Acherontia, a small town with the title of a dukedom belonging to the house of Caraccioli, and was formerly an archiepiscopal see, which was translated to Matera, in the territory of Otranto. It is seated on the river Brandano, at the foot of the Appennines; but is a small town poorly peopled, and daily running to decay, as are most of the cities in the Basilicate.

S E C T. VI.

Of the Provinces of Calabria, Citra and Ultra, or Hither and Farther Calabria: Their Situation, Produce, and principal Cities.

CALABRIA Citra, or Hither Calabria, was formerly called the Valley of Crate, and was esteemed a part of Græcia Magna. Calabria in general received its name

from the last Greek emperors, and is bounded on the north by the Basilicate; on the east by the gulph of Tarento; and the Ionian sea; and on the south and west by the Mediterranean.

This country produces abundance of fruit, corn, wine, oil, flax, hemp, sugar, rice, saffron, honey, cotton, and silk.

As manna is chiefly produced in Calabria, it will be proper here to take notice of that excellent drug, which exsudes from a kind of ash-tree very common in this country: for in the heat of summer it flows from it, in a white sweetish juice or gum. There are three kinds of this Calabrian manna; one called *manna di corpo*, which is the finest, and is spontaneously discharged from the trunk and large branches of the tree, in the form of a crystalline liquor, which hardens into grains of different sizes, and is carefully gathered the succeeding day. The second species, called by the Italians *manna forzata*, or *forzatella*, is obtained by making incisions in the bark in the month of August, after the natural discharges cease. From these incisions the manna flows copiously from noon till towards midnight, and is the next day exposed to the sun in order to be dried; but this sort is less esteemed, on account of its impurity and yellow colour. The third species, called *manna di Frondi*, issues spontaneously, like a kind of sweat, from the leaves, on which the drops are indurated by the sun into grains about the bigness of wheat; but this last sort is not constantly gathered on account of the difficulty of separating it from the leaves. That manna is reckoned best which is white and new, the dark coloured and brown being old and decayed.

This country is said to have also mines of gold, silver, and iron; together with sulphur, alabaster, and rock crystal.

The principal cities of Hither Calabria are:

Consenza, the antient Consentia, the capital of the province, and the seat of the tribunals of justice. It is situated in the thirty-ninth degree twenty-five minutes latitude, and in the sixteenth degree thirty-nine minutes longitude, on the river Grati, near the place where the Valento falls into it, and at the foot of a hill opening into a most delightful and spacious plain. It is the see of an archbishop, who has a considerable revenue, tho' he has only one suffragan, the bishop of Martorano.

Rossano, a small city, with the title of a dukedom, a hundred and forty miles to the south-east of Naples, is situated on a hill almost entirely surrounded with high rocks, and upon a small river that falls a little below it into the Salano: it is also the residence of an archbishop; but he has no bishop under him.

Paola, or Paula, a well built little city at a small distance from the sea, stands thirty miles west by south of Rossano, and belongs to the house of Spinelli. The inhabitants boast of its being the birth-place of St. Francis, the founder of the order of Minims. Here are convents of Jesuits, Augustines, Franciscans, Capuchins, and Dominicans; but the convent of Minims of the order of St. Francis of Paola, is situated a mile from the city, and has a fine church. At a little distance from the town is the palace of prince Francavilla, situated between two hills. This province has also several other little cities and small towns.

Calabria Ultra, or the Farther Calabria, antiently called Terra Jordana, is the farthest province of Italy, and is surrounded by the sea, except where it joins to Hither Calabria. It has but few towns of any note; but the most considerable of them are the following:

Reggio, distinguished by the appellation di Calabria, is a small town situated opposite the island of Sicily. Tho' it is seated near the sea, its port is only fit for very small vessels, which lie exposed to all winds; and though it is an archiepiscopal see, it is neither large, rich, nor well peopled. It has two convents, or colleges, one of Jesuits and the other of Dominicans, and in both are taught humanity, philosophy, and theology. The streets are narrow, and the buildings mean and in the old taste; but though the cathedral is small, it is neat, and has a noble chapel, in which is a stately cupola, and is adorned with porphyry, different kinds of marble, sculpture, and painting.

In this city is a singular kind of manufacture of what they call fish-wool. It is taken from a shell-fish that resembles a large muscle, but is hairy; and this hair, which is longer or shorter according to the largeness or age of the fish, being well soaked in fresh water and washed, is carded, spun, and knit into waistcoats, stockings, gloves, petticoats, caps, &c. and though lighter than cotton or silk, is so warm that the winds in the severest winters cannot penetrate through it. Such quantities of this work are fabricated here and in the neighbourhood, that it is bought very cheap; but when the traders carry it to the great cities of Italy, they raise the price to an extravagant degree.

Tropea, a city situated in a small plain on the top of a high rock, that affords a fine prospect of the fertile fields of Calabria, and on the other side of the sea. It stands about thirty-nine miles to the north of Reggio, and the ascent to the city is by a spacious street adorned with gardens before the houses on each side, and being continued in the same line within the gates, divides the city into two parts. The rest of the streets are narrow, and the cathedral is a plain antient structure; for the city has been an episcopal see under the archbishopric of Reggio, ever since the eighth century. At some distance without the city are several small rocks, on which are built little forts.

SECT. VII.

Of that District of Naples termed Apulia, including the three Provinces of the Capitanata, Barri, and Otranto: their Situation, Produce, and principal Cities; with a concise Account of the Islands situated on the Coast, and of the Provinces of Hither and Farther Abruzzo.

APUGLIA, or Apulia, includes the three territories of the Capitanata, Barri, and Otranto; but it is only in a more extended sense that the first can be said to belong to it. It is situated between the Appennine mountains, which bound it to the south, and the Adriatic sea, its northern boundary.

Apulia, especially the two first territories included in it, being a level country, with few or no hills, is in such want of springs and rivers, that the inhabitants have no other water for drinking than the rain saved in cisterns, either in their houses, or built at the public expence in the open market-places. The cattle drink also rain-water out of reservoirs formed by nature among the rocks. The dew in this hot country, from the proximity of the sea, is very copious, and serves to refresh the corn-lands and vineyards instead of rain: but, during the excessive heats, the garden-grounds are watered day and night from the wells, which yield only a brackish fetid water. However, in the parts from Manfredonia, as far as Mount Gargano, are springs of fine sweet water. The coast between the town of Manfredonia and Barletta is one continued heap of sand, which has probably been for some centuries thrown up by the sea, where it forms a kind of bay. In some places the sand lies several fathoms high, and has nothing growing upon it but myrtle, shrubs, and herbs, with deep roots that shoot down towards the water: yet this place, though naturally so wild and desert, produces several advantages. In the adjacent sea, which is shallow, the fishermen, during the months of April and May, make considerable profit by catching a kind of cuttle-fish. For this purpose the fishermen throw into the sea some bundles of myrtle, and the fish coming to them to spawn, are caught in nets.

The only fuel the fishermen have to boil their fish with is the dried dung of buffaloes, which they gather along the coast, no inhabited place being near at hand where they can provide themselves with necessaries. To this coast herds of buffaloes resort, and during the heat of the day lie in the water, the waves at flood beating over them. In this sandy spot, particularly towards Barletta, are planted gardens and vineyards; the beds of the gardens are here covered with branches of myrtles, that the winds may not disorder them by tearing up the sand, and the plants receive their chief nourishment from the sea-

water imbibed by their roots; for the stocks of their vines are set so deep in the sands, that the sea penetrates to them; and the like is observed with respect to esculent plants, as melons, pumpions, and cucumbers. Hence the wine produced here has a saltish taste, but the water-melons are incomparable, and are sent even to Naples, being reputed a most delightful refreshment in the hot summer months. On the bay of Tarentum are likewise broad, waste, and uninhabited tracts, consisting entirely of sand-hills, which only produce junipers with red berries, and a few other shrubs and plants.

The other part of the country is much more fertile, Apulia producing great quantities of corn; but the air being excessively hot, it is in some years all burnt up. The Jesuits are the proprietors of half this province, and are said to treat their tenants with the same rigour as the Neapolitan lords frequently exercise towards their farmers; so that Burnet says, they sometimes die of hunger even in the most plentiful years, from the cruel custom of exporting their corn.

We shall now give an account of the three provinces included under the name of Apulia.

The country of Otranto, which was a part of the antient Calabria, is bounded on the north by the territory of Barri, and by the gulph of Venice; on the east by the same gulph; and on the south and west by a great bay, which is between that province and the Basilicate. Within land it is very mountainous, dry, sandy, and in some parts barren; but in most places abounds in wine, olives, figs, and other fruit. But the country is frequently infested with locusts, which at certain seasons come in such swarms, as threaten the destruction of all the produce of the earth; but Providence has remedied this evil by sending at the same time birds which devour them. This province is also infested with tarantulas, especially in the district of Tarento. It is likewise frequently visited by Algerine pirates, who not only ravage the country, but carry all the people that fall into their hands into slavery. To prevent this they have built a great number of forts all along the coast, in which are garrisons.

Notwithstanding these disadvantages, the province of Otranto has a considerable number of cities and towns, four of which are archiepiscopal; these are Otranto, Tarento, Brindisi, and Matera; and ten episcopal.

Otranto, the capital of the province, is situated in the fortieth degree five minutes north latitude, and in the nineteenth degree twelve minutes east longitude, on the mouth of the Adriatic, on the eastern coast of Italy. It is seated on a rocky island, joined by a bridge to another island, which also by a bridge has a communication with the continent. It has a good harbour and a considerable trade, and is defended by walls, bastions, and a citadel.

Tarento, the antient Tarentum, is a small city seated on a peninsula that projects into a bay of the same name, and had once a fine harbour; but it is now so shallow as to admit only fishing-boats. It has a pretty strong fort, and the bay is famous for fresh water springs at the bottom. It has still several monuments of its antient grandeur, as the ruins of a stately theatre and other public buildings; but though it was once the head of a republic, which even made war on that of Rome, it is now small and chiefly inhabited by fishermen. This city gave name to the spiders called tarantulas, already described.

Brindisi, the antient Brundisium, is situated on the Adriatic coast, thirty-two miles to the east of Tarento, and had once a convenient harbour, which has been spoiled by the Phoenicians; and since it has had this loss it has much declined, and is now nothing near so large as it was formerly.

Gallipoli is seated on a high and craggy rock in the gulph of Tarento, and though small is very strong and well inhabited. It is surrounded by the sea, having a communication with the continent by a bridge defended by a good fort, and has a pretty good trade.

Matera is an inland city on the western side of the province, and is seated in a valley by the river Canapro, ninety-five miles to the north-west of Otranto. It is pretty large, and is computed to contain about three thousand families.

The

The country of Barri, or Bari, is bounded on the north and east by the Adriatic sea; on the west by the Capitanata, from which it is divided by the river Offanta; and on the south by the Basilicate. It is esteemed one of the most fertile and best cultivated provinces in the kingdom of Naples, especially towards the Adriatic sea, along which it has its greatest extent. Its principal cities are the following:

Barri, or Bari, the capital of the country, stands on the Adriatic sea, in the fortieth degree forty minutes north latitude, and in the seventeenth degree forty minutes east longitude, and is the see of an archbishop. It is pretty large and well inhabited, and had formerly a good haven, till it was spoiled by the Venetians.

Trani, in Latin *Tranium*, is seated in a fruitful plain on the coast of the Adriatic, about twenty miles to the west of Barri. The inhabitants say it was built by Trajan, and from him was antiently called *Trajanum*. It has been erected into an archbishopric ever since the ninth or tenth century. The city is handsome, well built, and is defended by a castle; but is small, though the courts of judicature for this province are held there.

The Capitanata, or Capitanate, the antient *Apulia Daunia*, is bounded on the north and east by the Adriatic; on the north-west by the Molise; on the south by the Farther Principate, the Basilicate, and Barri. Its soil is naturally dry and sandy, the grass short, but sweet, and feeds a great number of cattle, which are driven thither from the Abruzzo.

There are hardly any woods in this country; but there are several lakes and some considerable rivers. The principal of the latter are the Offanta, Carapella, Cervaro, Candelare, Fortore, and the Tiferno. The only mountain of note in this province is called Gargano, or Monte Sant Angelo, and extends itself through a great part of the province. On the top of it is a convent, where particular devotion is paid to Michael the archangel. On the same mountain is situated a town called Monte Sant Angelo, which is the see of a bishop.

Manfredonia, the capital of the province, was built out of the ruins of the antient *Sipontum*, and is situated at the foot of Monte St. Angelo, upon which it has a castle, and before it a port on the Adriatic. It had its name from Manfred, natural son to the emperor Frederic II. who rebuilt it in the year 1256; but has been in a very low condition ever since the year 1620, when it was surprized and taken by the Turks, who carried off all its cannon, bells, &c. and set it on fire. The city is small and thinly inhabited, and the haven being choaked up, is only fit for small vessels. It is, however, an archiepiscopal see.

Most of the other towns of this province are very inconsiderable, we shall therefore leave them to take notice of some islands, situated off the coast of this province in the Adriatic sea. These are the *Tremiti*, which consists of St. Nicolo, or Tremiti, St. Domino, and la Capraria; the principal of which is St. Nicolo, which is inhabited by a set of monks, who have surrounded it with high walls flanked with towers, to which are added four strong bastions. Near the shore is likewise built a small arsenal for the rigging of ships. The monastery, which is a spacious and magnificent edifice, has a large cistern in the center of the cloister, for the use of the monks, besides ten or a dozen more for that of the other inhabitants. The church, which has a high roof, and three stately isles, is a hundred and seventy feet long, and seventy broad. The choir and pavement are very beautiful, as is also a chapel enriched with offerings of immense value, in which they pretend to have a miraculous image of the Virgin, and a miraculous crucifix. The island is of an oblong irregular figure, and in the middle almost divided by a narrow isthmus.

St. Domino is the next in bigness; it is about ten miles distant, and is very rocky and craggy, as are the other two islands, which may be rather termed huge rocks, and are not worth describing.

Abruzzo Ultra, or Abruzzo beyond the river Pescara, is bounded on the north-east by the Adriatic sea; on the south-east by the Hither Abruzzo; on the south-west by Sabina, and the Campania of Rome; and on the north-west by the marquise of Ancona. This country is cold

and mountainous, it being crossed by the Appennines; but is fertile, and produces corn, fruit, and saffron. It is healthy, pleasant, and well inhabited; and the people, who are tolerably industrious, have some manufactures.

Aquila, the capital of the province, is situated on a little hill, at the foot of which runs the river *Alterno*, and has an antient castle. It was once a handsome city; but, on the second of February, 1703, was almost destroyed by a dreadful earthquake. The first shock was so terrible, that the inhabitants abandoned the city; but returning to hear vespers, it being Candlemas-day, the shock returned, and two thousand four hundred people perished, eight hundred were destroyed in one single church, and the greatest part of the city, with its walls, were thrown down.

The other towns in this province are very inconsiderable.

Abruzzo Citra, so called from its being on this side the river Pescara, is bounded on the north-east by the Adriatic; on the south and south-east by the territory of Molise; and on the south-west by that of Lavora. It has not only the Appennines running through it, but some other considerable mountains, particularly the *Majella* and *Cavallo*, the former of which is covered with perpetual snow.

The country produces plenty of corn, rice, fruit, and saffron; here are also many large woods, which shelter a great number of wolves, bears, and other wild creatures, which render it necessary to go always in troops and well armed.

Chieti, the antient *Theate*, and the capital of the province, is situated in the forty-second degree thirty two minutes north latitude, and in the fourteenth degree forty-eight minutes east longitude, and stands on a hill near the river Pescara, on the confines of the Farther Abruzzo. It is a pretty large, well built, and populous city, the see of an archbishop, who has only one suffragan, namely, the bishop of Ortona; and here the courts of judicature for the province are held. This city gave name to the order of Theatines, which was instituted in 1524 by John Peter Caraffa, who, before his exaltation to the pontificate by the name of Paul IV. had been archbishop of this city.

Lanciano, the antient *Anxanum*, is situated seventeen miles to the east of Chieti, and is the see of an archbishop, but without suffragans. A little river, to which it gives name, discharges itself into the Adriatic, and forms a kind of harbour. The city is well inhabited, and famous for its fairs, to which the merchants repair from both sides of the Adriatic.

Sulmona, the antient *Sulmo*, is situated twenty-two miles to the south-west of Chieti, and stands in a plain surrounded by mountains, between two rivulets that descend from the Appennines, besides the *Sora*, which runs by it. It is pretty well built, and full of inhabitants. This city has the title of a principality belonging to the house of *Borghese*, and is the see of a bishop. It is famous in history for being the birth-place of Ovid.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Island of SICILY.

Its Names, a concise Description of the Streight of Messina, and of Scylla and Charybdis. The Situation and Extent of the Island; its Climate, Rivers, and Produce. A Description of Mount Ætna, its Eruptions, and the dreadful Earthquakes that have laid waste the Island. The Number of the Nobility, and the Government and Arms of the Island.

SICILY is by far the most considerable island in the Mediterranean, both with respect to its size and fertility. It was antiently called *Trinacria* and *Triquetra*, from its triangular form, and *Sicania*, from the *Sicani*, its inhabitants; but the *Siculi* afterwards making themselves masters of the greatest part of the island, gave it the name of *Sicilia*. In succeeding ages, some Grecian colonies settling here, spread over a great part of the country, and their language became the vernacular dialect, till the island at last fell under the dominion of the Romans. As to its modern history, it has been touched

touched upon in our account of the kingdom of Naples.

Both the ancients and moderns have maintained that Sicily was originally joined to the continent of Italy, but gradually separated from it by the encroachments of the sea and the shock of earthquakes, so as to become a perfect island.

The strait between Sicily and Calabria, which is at most but three Italian miles broad, is called the Faro, or Pharo, of Messina, from its *faro*, or light-house, on the narrowest part, and Messina, its capital, which is situated near it. Opposite the cape of Faro, on which the light-house stands, is the rocky promontory of Scigliio, the ancient Scylla, where the ebb and flood in this strait are very irregular and strong, and, where it is narrowest, extremely impetuous; so that there is no stemming the tides, even in a strong southerly wind, on which account it is usual to have the vessel hauled up by oxen along the coast of Calabria.

The famous whirlpool Charybdis, in this strait, lies on the outside of the harbour of Messina, and was no less terrible than Scylla to the ancients. It is probable that this dangerous vortex is occasioned by the currents of the sea, which here run counter. The misfortunes for which this place was formerly rendered dreadful, are now seldom heard of; and in a calm, especially when the south wind does not blow, the place is so smooth that a small boat may safely pass over it.

Sicily extends from the thirty-sixth degree thirty minutes to the thirty-eighth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and from the twelfth degree twenty minutes to the sixteenth degree twenty-five minutes east longitude. We have already observed that it is of a triangular form, and its utmost length from east to west, that is from Cape Faro to that of Boco, is computed at somewhat more than two hundred and ten miles; its breadth from north to south, from Cape Faro to that of Passaro, is a hundred and fifty miles, and its whole circuit about six hundred.

The climate of this island is so hot, that even in the beginning of January the shade is refreshing, and chilling winds are only felt a few days in March, and then a small fire is sufficient to banish the cold. The only appearance of winter is found towards the summit of mount *Ætna*, where snow falls, and is preserved by the inhabitants in the following manner. They dig pits in the open air, and in them lay the snow, with straw or stubble, and salt, *stratum super stratum*, and then cover the place with earth. In summer, when snow is wanted to cool their liquors, one of these pits is opened, and the quantity of snow required being taken out, the hole is immediately closed.

In this island are found gems and valuable stones, as agate, jasper, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, marble, and alabaster; and it is equally rich in metals and minerals, as gold, silver, and copper, tin, lead, iron, and alum: it has also a variety of hot baths of very salubrious qualities, besides other medicinal waters.

The principal rivers of this country are Cantera, formerly the *Taurominius*; the *Jerretta*, the ancient *Symethus*; the *Salso*, the *Belicis*, and the *Termini*.

Though the island appears as one entire rock, the soil is exceeding fertile; it was anciently stiled the granary of Rome, and at present has not only sufficient plenty of corn for home consumption, but exports great quantities to the kingdom of Naples, which would otherwise be distressed. It is however far from being so well cultivated as formerly, several tracts lying waste, especially in the western part. Its wine is excellent, as are also most kinds of fruit, in which it abounds, together with oil, sugar, honey, saffron, and salt; the sugar is chiefly produced in the neighbourhood of mount *Ætna*.

The cattle are very fine, and all sorts of game are in considerable plenty. All the coast affords good fisheries, particularly for tunnies; and at Trapani is a considerable coral fishery. Great profits are made of silk, the cultivation of which was first introduced in the year 1130, by earl Roger, who returning from an expedition into the Holy Land, brought back with him some persons well versed in the management of silk; hence it soon spread into Naples, the Milanese, Spain, and the French pro-

vinces bordering on Italy. In short, whatever seems requisite in point of necessity, delight, or ornament, this country affords in such profusion, that the inhabitants, notwithstanding the exactions with which they have always been burthened by their sovereigns and his delegates, live at their ease, and grow rich.

As *Ætna* is the highest mountain in Sicily, it is the first discovered at a distance by sailors, to whom it presents the view of a prodigious chimney, or a very large rugged pillar. The inhabitants call it *Monte Gibello*, or *Mongibello*, that is, Mount of mounts. The ascent to it from Catanea is thirty thousand paces high; but on the side near Rondazzo, only twenty thousand. It stands separate from all other mountains; its figure is circular, and it terminates in a cone: its circumference at bottom is no less than a hundred thousand paces. The lower parts of it are very fruitful in corn and sugar-canes; the middle abounds with woods, olive-trees, and vines; and the upper part is, almost the whole year, covered with snow; yet within it is a continual fire, which, by its frequent and violent eruptions, has always rendered it very famous. Many of these dreadful eruptions are recorded in history; but we shall go no farther back than the year 1669, of which we find an account in the *Philosophical Transactions*. It then broke out on the eleventh of March, two hours before night, on the south-east side of the mountain, about twenty miles from the old mouth, and ten from the city of Catanea. The noise of the eruption was heard an hundred miles, to which distance the ashes were also carried. The matter thrown out was, like that of *Vesuvius*, a stream of metals and minerals, rendered liquid by the fierceness of the fire, which boiled up at its mouth, till it flowed over, and having run a little way, the extremity began to crust, and turning into large porous stones, resembling large cakes of burning sea-coal, came rolling and tumbling one over another, bearing down any common building by their weight, and burning whatever was combustible. The progress of the inundation was at first, for several days, at the rate of three miles in twenty-four hours; but afterwards it scarce advanced a furlong in a day, and thus continued for fifteen or twenty days together, running into the sea close by the walls of Catanea. At length it made its way over the walls into the city; but there did no considerable damage, except to a convent of *Benedictines*. In its course it overwhelmed fourteen towns and villages, containing three or four thousand inhabitants; and it is remarkable, that during the whole time of this eruption, which lasted fifty-four days, neither sun nor stars appeared.

But though Catanea then escaped the threatened destruction, it was almost totally ruined in 1693, by one of the most terrible earthquakes mentioned in history. It was not only felt all over Sicily, but at Naples and Malta; and the shock was so violent, that people could not stand upon their legs, and those who lay upon the ground were tossed from side to side, as if upon the rolling billows. The earth opened in several places, throwing up large quantities of water; and great numbers perished in their houses by the fall of rocks that were loosened and rent from the mountains. The sea was violently agitated, and roared dreadfully; mount *Ætna* threw up vast spires of flame, and the shocks were attended with a noise that exceeded the loudest claps of thunder.

Fifteen or sixteen towns, and eighteen manors, with the inhabitants and cattle, were entirely swallowed up, several other towns and villages were laid in ruins, and ninety-three thousand people lost their lives, of whom eighteen thousand were inhabitants of Catanea, very few escaping the general and sudden destruction of that city. The number of churches and convents involved in this dreadful calamity was no less than nine hundred and seventy-two. Since that time there have been two remarkable eruptions of Mount *Ætna*, one in 1753, and the other in 1755, and at the last time it raged with excessive fury.

Though the country has not for a long time been sufficiently inhabited, yet its nobility are very numerous, they being computed to amount to sixty dukes, fifty-six marquises, above an hundred earls, and a great number of

of barons. The number of churches, convents, and religious foundations is also exceeding great; the buildings are handsome, and the revenues considerable.

Here is a sovereign ecclesiastical tribunal, which judges in all disputes and affairs in which the clergy are concerned. It was originally instituted by the papal court, and the president, who is called the judge of the kingdom of Sicily, claims the respect usually paid to a legate à latere. The court of Rome has endeavoured to circumscribe the power of this tribunal; but this the king has always strenuously opposed, and forbid the clergy to appeal to Rome. Pope Urban II. having granted earl Roger and his successors the title of his native legates in Sicily, the king considers himself as an independent sovereign, not only in temporal, but in spiritual affairs. The kingdom is governed by a viceroy. Its arms are a saltire with six pales gules, and for supporters a crowned eagle sable. The king's revenues arising from this fruitful island are very considerable.

SECT. IX.

Of the three Divisions of Sicily, and the principal Places in each; with a more particular Description of the Cities of Messina and Palermo.

THE kingdom of Sicily is divided into three provinces, which are called valleys. The first is Val di Demino, or Demona; the second Val di Noto; and the third Val di Mazara.

Val di Demino, which is the nearest to Italy, extends from Cape Faro to the river Termini. The principal places in this province are the following:

Messina, antiently Zancle, and afterwards Messana, is a pretty large and well built city, situated in the thirty-eighth degree eleven minutes north latitude, and in the sixteenth degree fourteen minutes east longitude, standing partly in a plain near the sea, and partly on some rising grounds. Besides an irregular fortification, it has a citadel, of five large and regular bastions, and the neighbouring eminences, namely Castel Gonjaga, Castel Reale, Porta Reale, Consagra, Mattagrifone, and Castel Lacio, are all defended by forts. The private houses are handsome and well built, and the public edifices magnificent, especially the palaces of the viceroy and archbishop. Its churches and convents are numerous, and generally elegant structures, with considerable revenues, and the arsenal is well stored with all kinds of arms and ammunition.

The cathedral is a large spacious structure, but very antient. It is richly ornamented on the inside, particularly the high altar, by the side of which is the viceroy's throne, which is likewise very rich, and elevated on an ascent of ten or twelve broad steps. It has also several magnificent chapels, particularly one dedicated to the Virgin Mary, enriched with every thing that can be termed magnificent and costly, and is much resorted to by the inhabitants, who pretend that the Virgin sent them a letter, which is here preserved as a choice relic, and once a year carried about in procession with great pomp. The Jesuits have a college and three other houses. The archbishop's palace is large and well built. The general hospital, called the Loggia, is one of the most beautiful public buildings in the city; besides which there is a large and rich hospital for old people, foundlings, lunatics, the lame, blind, &c. which are here well kept in vast numbers; and near it is a spacious well built lombard-house, under good regulations.

The city extends itself on a rising ground along the shore with some declivity. The chief streets are large, one running parallel with the port, and Messina is well furnished with water by subterraneous aqueducts, and with all kinds of provisions.

The port is of an oval form, and so deep that ships of eighty guns may come near enough to the quay, for people to go in and out by the help of a plank. Towards the Faro, or light-house, it is inclosed by a crooked neck of land, on the broadest part of which to the east stands the citadel, and towards its west end a fort called St. Salvatore, which defends the narrow entrance

to the harbour. Near this neck of land is the lazaretto, built on a rock projecting out of the sea.

The trade of this city, though greatly declined, is still considerable, especially since the year 1728, when the harbour was declared a free port. An annual fair is held here in August, at which great quantities of foreign goods are exposed to sale. This city claims the prerogative of being stiled the capital of the kingdom; but Palermo disputes this point of precedence.

Catanea, the antient Catana, stands by the sea, near the foot of mount Ætna, and has been frequently almost destroyed by the eruptions of that mountain and by earthquakes. It is pleasantly situated upon the river Indicello, eighty-four miles to the west of Messina, and was antiently one of the richest and most powerful cities in Sicily; and particularly famous for a magnificent temple dedicated to Ceres. The cathedral was a noble building, supported by columns of fine black marble; but in the dreadful earthquake before mentioned in 1693, eleven hundred people who had sheltered themselves in this structure, where the relics of St. Agatha their great patroness were kept, were buried under its ruins, and the city in a manner destroyed: yet the fertility of the adjacent country has induced the people to return by degrees, who have since rebuilt a part of it. It is a bishop's see, under the archbishop of Mont Real.

There are a considerable number of small towns in this district.

Val di Noto extends from the river Jarreta to the south coast of the island, and also reaches to the river Salso. It contains several cities, and above forty towns. The principal places in this district are the following:

At the distance of seventy-two miles to the south-by-west of Messina, is Syracuse, antiently the capital of all Sicily, and a very flourishing republic, and was twenty-two miles in compass; but at present is extremely reduced by a series of calamities, especially by the earthquake in 1693; yet its inhabitants are now said to amount to fourteen thousand, and it still continues one of the most considerable cities in the island, on account of its advantageous situation, the commodiousness of its port, and the height and strength of its walls, which are washed on every side by the sea; for it now contains only one of the five parts into which it was antiently divided, and extends no farther than the division formerly called the Insula.

At the entrance of the port is a strong but regular castle, which has a communication with the city by a wooden bridge. In this castle is the famous spring called by the antients the fountain of Arethusa, which supplies it with plenty of water. The port is of a roundish figure, and though not every where of equal depth, has room sufficient to receive the largest vessels, or even a considerable fleet; its only fault is its not having safe anchoring ground, especially when the wind blows hard from the east and north-east.

Castro Giovanni, the antient Enna, a city much celebrated by the poets, who represent Proserpine as being carried off from the fields in its neighbourhood. It is situated near the heart of Sicily, forty-five miles to the south-west of Catanea, upon a hill to the north-west of the lake of Pergus, and has a spacious plain adorned with flowers and rivulets, near which is a cavern, whence Pluto is said to have come with his car, and to have carried off that goddess. This city is now small, but well built, and defended by an old castle.

The province termed Val di Mazara lies on the western side of the island, having Val di Demino on the east, from which it is divided by the Fiume Gronde, or Great river, and the Val di Noto on the east-south-east, from which it is parted by the river Salso, and is on the other sides encompassed by the sea. It is very mountainous, but fertile and well watered, it having near a dozen considerable rivers, and many lesser ones. The principal towns in this province are,

Palermo, the antient Panermus, the most considerable city in the province, and even the capital of the island. It is situated at the bottom of a gulph on the north coast, in a delightful and extensive plain terminated by high and fertile hills, which almost surround it on the land side, in the thirty-eighth degree ten minutes latitude, and the

thirteenth degree forty-two minutes longitude. It has been already mentioned in treating of Messina, that Palermo disputes with that city the honour of being the capital of the island; and indeed it has the houses of a great number of the nobility and gentry, several fine public buildings, and the streets are straight, large, and regular, particularly a beautiful and spacious one called Cassaro, that extends through the whole city, and has a viceroy's palace at one end, and the sea-shore on the other, to which it descends by a gentle declivity.

The viceroy's palace is not only a magnificent structure, adorned with fine sculptures, paintings, and gardens, but also serves instead of a castle, it commanding the city by its situation, and being flanked by high towers and other works. The piazza before it is noble, and adorned with the statue of Philip IV. of Spain, standing on a pedestal enriched with trophies in basso relievo, and with the statues of the four cardinal virtues on the four sides.

On one side of the palace is the great hospital of the Holy Ghost, and on the other the cathedral, an ancient structure, with four large towers, and richly adorned within. This city is said to contain upwards of a hundred and twenty thousand inhabitants; it is an archiepiscopal see, has an university, fifty-two monasteries, and twenty-two nunneries. It has several fine churches, particularly that of St. Matthew, commonly called de l'Anima, which is much admired for its architecture, beautiful marble, paintings, and stately portico. Among the other public buildings is the court of judicature, which is equally esteemed for its largeness, the magnificence of its architecture, its paintings, and other ornaments. Before it is a superb fountain, which is esteemed the most beautiful in all Italy, both from the number and elegance of the basins, which stand one over another, and from the great variety of figures which throw water into them. The city contains many other fine fountains and magnificent buildings, particularly the city gate, which is so wide and lofty that it resembles a magnificent triumphal arch, adorned with a great number of marble figures and other ornaments: it stands at one end of the long and noble street of Cassaro, as the viceroy's palace does at the other; so that from the palace through the whole length of the street you have a prospect of the sea, which through this stately gate resembles a beautiful canal of a stupendous extent.

The quay, which runs the whole length of the city, from which it is divided by a strong wall, is wide, beautiful, commodious, and one of the finest walks and places of resort about the city. The greatest part of the quay is planted with trees; so that one may walk under them sheltered from the sun and rain, with the port, the mole, the forts, and the open sea full in view. The port is very convenient for shipping; the long mole extends about two hundred fathoms towards the south, and about four hundred towards the west, in the form of a rectangle: at the end of it are two batteries of cannon, and a high tower or light-house. In the middle of the mole is a small fort, and at the other end, next the land side, is a fortress, with four bastions; with the arsenal for the galleys, the magazines, and other store-houses. The port is safe and commodious every where, except on the south-west side, which is full of rocks, that rise no higher than the surface of the water, on which account ships enter it, near the head of the mole just opposite the city, where they have from eighteen to twenty-two fathoms water.

Trapani, the ancient Drepanum, stands on a peninsula on the west coast of the island of Sicily, about forty miles to the south-west of Palermo, and is still famous for its trade; for the number of nobles and gentry who live in the city and its neighbourhood; for the many trading vessels that sail to and from it; for its salt springs and works, and its having a good coral fishery. It is situated on a peninsula, forty-five miles to the south-west of Palermo, and is defended by a square castle. Its haven is large; but too much exposed to the south winds. At its entrance is the above castle seated on a rock, and which is surrounded with other works and batteries, and also by the sea. The town is encompassed by a plain wall. The hill at the foot of which it stands was antiently

called Eryx, and on the top was a temple of Venus and the tomb of Anchises.

Gergenti was antiently the greatest and richest city in the whole island: it stands about four miles from the sea, on the south-west coast, sixty-six miles to the south of Palermo. It rose out of the ruins of the antient Agrigentum, though it does not stand directly on the same spot. It is situated at the mouth of the river St. Blasio, upon a hill, and is defended by a castle so strong by nature, that there is no access to it but at one place. It is the see of a bishop, and is said to have been antiently ten miles in compass, and is famous for its tyrant Phalaris, who used to torture those who had displeased him in his brazen bull; but Perillus, the artist who had the cruelty to invent it, was, for his reward, condemned to have the first experiment tried upon himself. The adjacent territory is rich, and produces great quantities of corn, of which it carries on a considerable trade by means of the river and its port, which lies about five miles to the westward.

S E C T. X.

Of the Islands round Sicily; with a particular Description of Malta, and the Knights of that Island.

THE principal islands round Sicily are, first, the Liparean islands, called by the antients *Æoliæ* and *Vulcaniæ*; these lie towards the north of Sicily, and the nearest is about forty miles distant. The volcanoes that were in some of them, and still partly remain, have always contributed to the violent winds which continually reign in these parts; whence the antients said, that *Æolus*, the god of the winds, resided here, and accordingly called them by his name; and *Vulcan* being the tutelary god of such volcanos, they were also called *Vulcan's islands*. The most remarkable are the following:

Lipari, or Lipara, the largest and most populous of them, is computed to be about eighteen miles in circuit, including its capes and the windings of the coast, for it is of a very irregular figure. The climate is healthful, the air serene, and the soil rich and fertile. Besides corn, wine, and fruit, which grow in great plenty, the inhabitants send great quantities of figs and raisins into most parts of Europe. It likewise produces abundance of sulphur, allum, and naphthe; and has several warm baths, formerly much resorted to. The coasts yield great plenty and variety of fine fish. In this island were formerly pits emitting smoke and fire; but at present they have entirely ceased. In Lipari stands a town of the same name, built on a steep rock, with a castle, and is the see of a bishop.

Volcano, in Latin *Vulcania*, antiently also *Thermissa*, *Therassia*, and *Hiera*, or the Holy, is parted from Lipari by a narrow channel, and though not so large, rises much higher. On the north coast is a mountain whose top continually emits flames or smoke; but more furiously at some times than others.

Stromboli, antiently *Strongyle*, is of a round form, and situated on the north east coast of Lipari, about thirty miles from that island. It is computed to be about twelve miles round, but is wholly uninhabited, being properly nothing more than a burning mountain of an extraordinary height, that continually casts forth fire and smoke, which are seen at a great distance at sea.

Another cluster of small islands, named the *Ægates*, or *Ægades*, lie on the west coast of Sicily; these are *Levenzo*, the antient *Buccina*, or *Phorbantia*; *Favagnana*, the antient *Capraria*, or *Ægusa*, which is extremely fruitful; and *Maretamo*, the antient *Maritima*. These are very inconsiderable, we shall therefore proceed to one of much greater consequence.

The island of Malta, the antient *Melite*, is situated in the thirty-sixth degree of north latitude, and between the fourteenth and fifteenth of east longitude, sixty English miles to the south of the island of Sicily, and is commonly treated of under Italy, on account of its greater proximity to it, than to the coast of Africa. It was here that St. Paul was bit by a viper, after being wrecked on the coast. This island is computed to be

twenty miles in length, twelve in breadth, and near sixty in circumference. It was antiently little more than a barren rock, but such quantities of soil have been brought from Sicily, that it is now become a fertile island, though it produces no more corn than is barely sufficient to maintain the inhabitants six months in the year, and the rest they purchase cheap in Sicily. The wine produced in this island is also not sufficient for its consumption, and it is likewise deficient in wood. But, on the other hand, it has plenty of figs, melons, and other fine fruit; with honey, a great deal of cotton, good pastures, considerable fisheries, sea-salt, and a profitable coral-fishery; but the heat is excessive both day and night, and they have a great number of gnats, which are the plague of the country.

The annual revenues of this island are computed at seventy-six thousand scudi, and the number of its inhabitants amounts to about sixty thousand. The common people speak Arabic; but those in genteel circumstances the Italian.

The most antient inhabitants of Malta of whom we have any account, were the Phœacians, who were driven out by the Phœnicians, as they were by the Greeks. It seems afterwards to have been under the dominion of the Carthaginians, from whom it was taken by the Romans. Upon the declension of the Roman empire, it was first subdued by the Goths, then by the Saracens, from whom it was wrested by the Normans in 1090, after which it had the same masters as Sicily, till Charles V. gave it to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem.

These knights arose in the following manner: Several trading people of Amalfi, in the kingdom of Naples, had by their trade so ingratiated themselves with the Saracen princes, that they were permitted to build a church at Jerusalem, which was finished in 1248, and called St. Maria della Latini. As there was a great resort to the Holy Sepulchre, the above merchants built an hospital and oratory for the accommodation of pilgrims, which they dedicated to St. John the Baptist, and appointed certain monks to attend on the pilgrims, who from their office were stiled Hospitallers, and from the church of St. John, Johannites. At first they procured necessities from Amalfi, but after the conquest of Palestine, the fruit of those destructive croisades which desolated Europe, Godfrey of Bouillon endowed them with several lands; and his successor Baldwin having put them in possession of some castles and towns, they held a general chapter, and elected Raymund di Podio their master, who instituted an order out of the brotherhood, and made them take the vows of chastity, poverty, and obedience; gave them the octangular cross, and a black cloak, as the badge and habit of their order, and divided them into three classes, knights, Capellans, and Servanti d'Armi. This happened towards the close of the seventh century. The order was confirmed by the pope, and, notwithstanding their vow of poverty, they obtained considerable wealth. They maintained their ground in Syria and the Holy Land, against the continual assaults of the Turks, for two hundred years, till losing Acra, the last place they possessed, in 1191 they removed to the island of Cyprus, and in 1308 took the isle of Rhodes and the neighbouring islands, which they held for the space of two hundred and thirteen years, during which they were stiled knights of Rhodes; but Solymán II. having dispossessed them in 1528, after they had made a long and brave resistance, they first went to Candia, and afterwards separating, some went to Venice, and others to Viterbo and other places in Italy, especially to Nice in Savoy. But Charles V. apprehending that Solymán would on their account make a descent into Italy, sent them to Syracuse in Sicily; and, in 1529, conferred on them the islands of Malta and Gozo, and also committed to them the defence of Tripoli, which was then in his possession. From this period they obtained the name of knights of Malta.

The order consists of eight tongues, or nations, the principal of which are the French, Italian, Spanish, English, and German. In France are three tongues, namely, those of Provence, Auvergne, and France peculiarly so called. Spain is divided into those of Aragon and Castile, and with the German are united the

priory of Denmark, Sweden, and Hungary. Each of these countries has contributed to the advancement of the order, especially France, there being three hundred commanderies in that kingdom, which, if added to those of other countries, the whole number of knights may be computed to amount to three thousand: yet their losses by war, and more particularly by the Reformation, have been very considerable, the order being now destitute of the English, Danish, Swedish, and Hungarian priories; and they have also suffered greatly in Germany and the Netherlands.

The knights must be all noblemen, and produce proofs of an illustrious ancestry: such as have done this are stiled *cavalieri di giustizia*, in contradistinction to the *cavalieri di gratia*, who cannot sufficiently ascertain their descent, yet are made knights on account of their personal merits. According to the statutes, no natural children, except those of princes, nor persons under eighteen years of age, are admitted into the order. They engage to be at continual war with the Mahometans and all corsairs of that religion; and, as they have adopted St. Augustine's rule, are as a religious order subject to the pope. The grand master is stiled by foreign princes Most Eminent Highness, and is under the jurisdiction of no temporal power; but in what relates to the order he is accountable to his council and chapter: though with respect to the island and inhabitants, he is entirely absolute. His subjects stile him Most Serene Eminence; the knights and others only Eminence. When at home, he usually wears a long black gown, made after a particular fashion, with a large golden key of the Holy Sepulchre hanging by his side; but on a journey he dresses like a layman, and wears a sword.

Priories of the order are established throughout all the popish countries in Europe, of which the great priory of Germany, established at Heistersheim in Brissgaw, holds the first place. Its administrator has the dignity of a prince of the empire, with a seat and voice in the diet among the princely abbots; and he must annually remit to the grand master, whose vicar he is reputed to be, the necessary contributions for acting against the Mahometans, and the usual assessment payable by every commandery.

But to return to the island: the principal city is that of Valetta, so called from John de Valetta, the grand master, who laid the first stone, in the year 1566, on a hill which extends into the sea; and it has been since so strongly fortified, that few places exceed it in strength. Its walls are of large square stones, some dug out of the rock, and planted with several batteries. On the point towards the sea stands the castle of St. Elmo, which is fortified in the modern taste, and defends both harbours; one of which, called Marfa Muscietto, lies at the entrance from the sea to the right of the town, and incloses a small island, on which stand both a fort and a lazaretto. The other harbour on the left side is simply called Marfa, or the Great Harbour, being the largest, safest, and most commodious in the island. Its entrance, besides the castle of St. Elmo, is guarded by fort Ricafoli. From the port there is an ascent to the town, which is but small, tho' very beautiful. It has but two gates, one of which leads to the port, and the other to the country.

There are here several churches, among which that of St. John the Baptist is the principal. On one side of it is a fine square, with a fountain at each corner. It is a large building paved with beautiful marble, and within it are hung up a great number of flags taken from the Turks. They also pretend to have here many relics, and in particular St. John the Baptist's right-hand.

Among the several noble buildings in the city, is the palace of the grand master, in which is a magazine of arms for thirty-five or forty thousand men, which are kept very clean and in great order. Before this palace is a large square, in the midst of which is a noble fountain, that throws up great quantities of water to a considerable height, and even supplies the whole town. The palaces of the conservatory and treasury are also fine buildings, as are also the inns. The hospital is likewise well built, and the hall for the sick knights is hung with tapestry, where they are attended by knights, and served in plate. They are all under a vow of celibacy; and yet they make

no scruple of taking Grecian women for mistresses. Poor travellers find entertainment here, till they can get a passage to the place to which they are bound, and then they are furnished with provisions, and their charges paid through their voyage.

The Jesuits have a well built college; and there are also several convents and nunneries. Even the meanest houses make a good shew, they being all flat-roofed, and built of large square white stone, which retains its colour long, and seems always new. The streets, however, are incommodious, from their being always up and down hill, but they are wide and straight. The handsomest of these reaches from the castle of St. Elmo to the Royal Gate, which is almost a mile in length.

The adjacent country is full of gardens, and very agreeable places of pleasure. About twelve miles from the city the grand master has a palace built in the form of a castle, the halls of which are adorned with excellent paintings. It has very neat gardens filled with orange, citron, and olive trees, with several beautiful fountains; and at a small distance is a grove stocked with game for his diversion.

Citta Vittoriosa, or il Borg, a fortified town, stands on a narrow neck of land to the left of Valetta: on each

side a broad natural canal runs up into the land, and, surrounding the town, forms a fine harbour. On a high rock is the strong castle of St. Angelo, which has a communication with the town by a bridge. The inhabitants amount to about three thousand, and formerly the grand master resided here. The palace of the inquisition and the arsenal are reckoned among the principal buildings.

Malta, Medina, or Citta Vecchia, that is the Old Town, are different names for a fortified town that stands on a hill in the middle of the island, and was formerly above twice as large as it is at present. It is the residence of the bishop of this island, and has several churches and convents.

Five miles from Malta is the island of Gozo, which is twelve miles in length, and six in breadth. It enjoys a very wholesome air, and, though mountainous, is almost all cultivated; for the inhabitants delight more in tilling the land for corn, than in any other sort of husbandry; though it has many places well watered, and fit for gardening and pasture. It has some good harbours, defended by three forts, and the inhabitants amount to about three thousand.

C H A P. XXVI.

Of the Kingdom of SPAIN.

S E C T. I.

Its Names, Situation, Extent, Climate, and a particular Account of the Pyrenean and other Mountains; with the Minerals they contain. The Rivers, Vegetables, and Animals of the Country.

THIS country was formerly known by the name of Iberia and Hesperia, which, like that of Spain, is thought to be derived from three of its antient kings; but it has never yet been proved that these kings ever existed. It is not improbable, that the first people who came into this country seeing nothing beyond the ocean, which environed Spain on three sides, imagined themselves at the end of the world, and therefore assumed the name of Iberians, from a Phœnician word of that import; calling the country itself Iberia, and giving the name of Iberus to the largest river they met with. The Greeks called this country Hesperia, from its western situation; and to distinguish it from Italy, which had the same name, called it the Farther Hesperia. It was usually called by the Romans Hispania; but this is now altered by the inhabitants to Espana, which some derive from the Phœnician word Sepan, or Sepana, a rabbit, this country being formerly over-run with these animals. The French call this country Espagne, and we by contraction Spain.

This country, including Portugal, is the most western part of all the continent of Europe, and is a large peninsula encompassed on every side by the sea, except on that part which joins to France, from which it is separated by a continued range of mountains called the Pyrenees; on the east and south it is bounded by the Mediterranean, the straits of Gibraltar, and the Atlantic ocean; on the west by that ocean, and by Portugal, which extends along the coast a considerable distance; on the north by that part of the Atlantic ocean called the Bay of Biscay, and also by the Pyrenean mountains; extending between the thirty-sixth and forty-fourth degrees of north latitude, and between the tenth degree west and the third degree east longitude, that is, thirteen degrees from east to west, and eighteen from north to south. The whole circuit of Spain, in a continued direction from town to town, and from port to port, exclusive of the windings

of the creeks and bays, amounts to about six hundred leagues, or eighteen hundred miles, including Portugal, which was antiently a part of Spain.

In most of the provinces the air is pure and dry, but in June, July, and August, the days are extremely hot, especially in the middle of the country, yet in the night a traveller shivers with cold. Towards the north, and in the mountainous parts, the air is, as usual, cooler than in the south, and near the sea contracts a moisture. It seldom rains, and the winter frosts are never so severe as to bind up the ground. The want of temperature in the heat, and the coolness of the night, is the reason that seed lies a long time in the ground before it shoots up; sometimes indeed a cool breeze, by the Spaniards called a gallego, issues from the mountains of Galicia; and this, without great precaution, occasions violent, and sometimes fatal colds.

Among the many mountains in Spain, the Pyrenees are the most remarkable. These separate Spain from France, and extend from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic ocean, which is about two hundred and twelve miles, and in some places are above an hundred miles in breadth. They begin at Vendres, a sea-port in the province of Roussillon in France, and extend to Fuentarabia, but under different names. Near Roussillon they divide themselves into two branches; that which separates the country from Languedoc is called Antipyrænee; the other, between it and Catalonia, is termed Col de Pertuis: between Gascony and Amazon lie the mountains of Jaca and St. Christine, and the famous Pic de Midi, which resembles a sugar-loaf standing on a table, and is of a prodigious height. In Navarre, between Pampelona and St. Jean de Pie de Port, are the mountains of Adula and Roncevaux. Over these mountains there are only five passages out of Spain into France, and even these are narrow; one of them leads from St. Sebastian's in Guipuscoa, to St. Jean de Luz; the second from Maya in Navarre to Annoa; the third from Taraffa in Navarre to Pie de Port; the fourth through the county of Comminges in Arragon; and the fifth leads from Catalonia to Languedoc.

The very valleys between the mountains are covered with thick and lofty woods. The other mountains of

Spain.



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Spain are Sierra d'Occa, or mount Idubeda, which is a chain extending from the Pyrenees to Tortosa. At the beginning it forms an arm traversing all Spain from east to west, as far as Cape Finisterre. To the south, below mount Cayo, another branch, called Orospeña, rises gradually, and near the source of the Tagus takes the name of Sierra Molina, which, farther south, it changes for that of Sierra d'Alcaraz.

Here the chain turns off to the south-west, separating the kingdom of Granada, and extending to the Straights of Gibraltar.

According to ancient writers, the mountains of Spain are very rich in gold and silver; but the Spaniards choose rather to import these metals from America than to have the trouble of searching for them in their own country; but the iron mines are worked here with great skill. Spain has also other minerals, as lead, tin, cinnabar, quicksilver, alum, vitriol, copperas, lapis calaminaris, and likewise crystal, amethysts, and other gems.

The great and small rivers in Spain are said to amount to an hundred and fifty; the principal of these are the Minho, which rises in Galicia; the Douro, which has its source in Old Castile, in a part of the mountains of Idubeda; the Tagus rises in a mountain in New Castile; the Guadiana also issues from New Castile, deriving its source from some lakes, at a small distance from which it takes its course between high mountains, and thus conceals itself for near three miles, till it shews itself again in some fens, but soon hides itself again amidst reeds and rocks, which probably gave occasion to the mistake of losing itself under-ground. The Guadalquivir, or Great River, receives its course in Andalusia, where several small streams issuing from mount Segura unite in a lake, from whence this river flows. From Corduba to Seville, it is passable only by small craft; but from the last city to its mouth it is navigable by ships of burthen, though dangerous on account of its many sand-banks. The Ebro rises in the mountains of Santillane, in Old Castile, from two springs, and receives upwards of thirty brooks in its course, becoming navigable near Tudela: its navigation, however, is dangerous, on account of its many rocks: at length it discharges itself with great rapidity into the Mediterranean, and its mouth forms the little island of Alfacqs.

The country in general labours under a great scarcity of corn, which is principally owing to the neglect of agriculture; for though the soil be in many places extremely dry, and the growth of vegetables obstructed in the day-time by the excessive heats, and by the intense cold of the nights, yet it appears from history, that Spain formerly enjoyed great plenty of corn. It however abounds in the most delicious fruits, as figs, grapes, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, pears, peaches, almonds, chestnuts, common nuts, &c. and also produces very good saffron. The Spanish wines, particularly sack, are eagerly bought up by foreign nations; and the value of the wines and raisins annually exported out of the country about Malaga alone, amounts to a million and an half of piastres, an imaginary coin of about three shillings and seven pence value.

Several parts of the country also produce sugar canes. Spain likewise enjoys great plenty of exquisite honey, and silk in abundance; but little flax and hemp. Salt is exported in considerable quantities, a great deal of sea-salt being made in the maritime parts of Andalusia, Catalonia, and Valencia, where the sun serves instead of fire. A prodigious quantity of pot-ash is also exported from Spain.

In this country are also innumerable flocks of fine sheep, part of which, during winter, feed in the plains, and in summer are driven up into the mountains; and from these are produced the best wool: others are always kept in one place. The number of shepherds in Spain has been computed at forty thousand. The best wool is that of Old Castile, though the Spanish wool is, in general, extremely fine and valuable. Andalusia and Asturia are particularly famous for their fine horses. There are here also a great number of large and handsome mules, some of which are seventeen hands high, and carry very heavy burdens; but Spain has few horned

cattle. In Andalusia are caught the wild bulls for the bull-fights.

The maritime parts of the country, particularly those of Galicia and Andalusia, abound in fish, and, among others, in sturgeon, tunny, salmon, haddock, lampreys, &c. but for want of a proper improvement of the fishery, Spain, according to Ustariz, annually purchases salt-fish from foreigners to the amount of above three millions of piastres.

S E C T. II.

The Manners and Customs of the Spaniards, the Reason why Spain is thinly inhabited, and of their Poverty, notwithstanding the immense Quantity of Gold and Silver sent from America. Their Language, Religion, and the Inconveniences suffered by Travellers.

THE Spaniards are grave and solemn in their behaviour, and are not always dressed in a short cloak and coat, nor do they always appear abroad with a long sword, curled whiskers, and a pair of spectacles on the nose. They are remarkable for frugality, love of pomp, fidelity, valour, intrepidity, and abhorrence of drunkenness; they are very jealous of their honour, when once engaged; and the baron de Montesquieu observes, in his Spirit of Laws, that "The Spaniards have been in all ages famous for their honesty. Justinian mentions their fidelity in keeping whatever was entrusted to their care; they have frequently suffered death rather than reveal a secret. They have still the same fidelity for which they were formerly distinguished. All the nations who trade to Cadiz trust their fortunes to the Spaniards, and have never yet repented it."

On the other hand, they are universally too much given to women, and their jealousy, where either their wife, daughter, sister, or even mistress, is concerned, seldom fails to end in bloodshed; for they think no means too cruel, base, or unjust, to wipe off any stain that is cast upon their honour, or to gratify their revenge. Pride of birth is no where carried to a greater height; and the insinuation that a man is descended from the Moors, is sufficient to make him stab the slanderer, or procure his being privately assassinated. In short, they have a mixture of the most amiable virtues and the most shocking vices; and while they affect a haughty air to those with whom they are unacquainted, no people in the world are more courteous to those with whom they are intimate.

As to their food, they are very moderate in their eating, and can make a meal of olives, a salad, a little garlic, or a few roots; but persons of fortune have several expensive dishes. The men dine by themselves, and their wives and children eat together.

The women are generally very lean, and very amorous; they have black eyes, flat bosoms, small feet, and long garments. They sit cross-legged on carpets, a custom which they derived from the Moors. They are much addicted to painting, though they are kept very much at home by the jealousy of their husbands.

The kingdom of Spain is said to contain about seven millions and a half of inhabitants; but it would support more than twice that number, was it properly cultivated. It is said, in the times of the Goths and the Moors, it contained between twenty and thirty millions of people, and might yet be very powerful, if it had no possessions in America; but now it is thinly inhabited. The usual reason assigned for this is, first, the expulsion of the Moors; for when Ferdinand the Pious took Seville from them, in 1248, the several districts of this kingdom contained a hundred thousand populous towns and villages; and when Ferdinand the Catholic reduced the kingdom of Granada, it consisted of fifty fortified towns, besides an infinite number of smaller places, the greatest part of which were afterwards demolished. Another grand cause of the want of inhabitants is the decay of arts and manufactures which formerly flourished here, and the heavy taxes by which the people are oppressed. But perhaps the greatest enemy to the populousness of the country are the convents, by which no less than two hundred thousand persons are restrained from propagating their species:

species: for if a family have more than one or two sons, the eldest must at any rate be gentlemen, and the rest monks. The way of living among the Spaniards, particularly in their eating and drinking, also contributes to render them unfruitful; for in the use of spices, particularly of pepper, they know no bounds. Their wines are also strong and inflammatory; and yet, after a meal, they add to these a very fiery sort of brandy. On the other hand, they are no less immoderate in the use of cooling foods and drinks, and the conflict of such discordant qualities must necessarily produce great disorders in the body. Leanness is here so general, that a fleshy corpulent man is hardly to be met with; and there are few or no countries where loss of sight is so common.

Small as the number of inhabitants are, yet their poverty is remarkable, tho' they not only live in a country capable of supporting many millions more than they, in the greatest plenty, and have prodigious sums poured in from America. Savala computes that, from the year 1492, when America was discovered, to 1731, above six thousand millions of pieces of eight in registered gold and silver have been imported into Spain, exclusive of far greater sums unregistered, besides those received by foreign merchants from the Spanish dominions in America. It even appears that, one year with another, Spain receives from her American colonies above twenty-six millions of pezos, or pieces of eight: yet Ustariz computes, that all the coined and wrought gold and silver in Spain, including that belonging to churches and private persons, scarcely amounts to one hundred millions of piastres.

The two principal causes of this poverty are the want of industry in the Spaniards in agriculture, handicrafts, and manufactures, which occasion the country to be annually drained of many millions for corn and foreign goods. The second is, the insatiable avarice of the clergy, who practise a thousand arts to obtain the possession of the wealth of the country. To them not only belong most of the towns and estates, and these like their persons are exempt from all public taxes, but they also turn both the living and the dead to their profit; while the laity of all ranks implicitly comply with all their sordid views. The Mendicant friars, who have divided all families among themselves, tax every one according to their condition; and when they knock at a door there is no refusing them, though they scarce condescend to return thanks for what they receive. All wills are drawn up by them, and that commonly when the testator is near the last gasp, by which means they often impoverish widows and children, by assigning in the will the rightful inheritance to what they unjustly call pious uses. Few marriages are made without their negotiation; and as by this means they become father confessors, they are the despotic lords of the whole family; the cash, the manner of living, the equipage, children, and servants, are all subject to their controul. Their commerce, which is free from all duties and payments, and carried on partly by privilege and partly clandestinely, is likewise a rich fund to them, especially if considered with respect to their astonishing failures, without paying a shilling, and their selling the sanction of their names to cover the merchandize of others; an abuse which the government has in vain endeavoured to suppress.

The language used in most of the provinces is that which they call Castellano, and Espannol, or Spanish, which has the nearest affinity to the Latin, both in the words and composition, of any language in Europe: but in Catalonia and Valentia the common people use a dialect of the old French, or rather Gascon; but so mixed and corrupt, that it is not understood by any other provinces.

The popish religion is practised in Spain with the greatest scrupulosity and pomp. In no country is there more praying and ceremony, and less real christianity. The Virgin Mary is more respected and adored among the Spaniards than God himself, as appears even from their compliments: the expression of God be with you, the usual compliment at parting, does not convey the same mark of affection as that of the Virgin be with you, which they imagine expresses a much warmer cordiality. Thus swearing by the Supreme Being is esteemed a trifle, but by the Virgin is considered as the height of impiety. The

Spaniards are indeed mere slaves to the clergy, who so artfully hoodwink them that they do not perceive the chains of their slavery, or if they perceive them bear them willingly; and, when they galling them, dare not so much as vent a sigh after freedom. Under any disappointment, either of views of avarice or ambition, the clergy have their dreadful inquisition at hand, which seizes both on honour and life; so that persons of the most unspotted innocence esteem it a particular favour to come off only with the loss of their fortunes. In order to be taken up for a Jew or Mahometan, and consequently to be stripped not only of all one has, but to be burnt alive, it is sufficient for a person not to love pork, and not to have worked on Friday or Saturday, though the informer be only some menial servant, most of whom are spies to the inquisition, and betrayers of the families in which they live.

The court of inquisition was first introduced in 1478, by king Ferdinand the Catholic, and queen Isabella, at the suggestions of John de Torquemada, a Dominican, who was the first inquisitor. At Madrid it consists of an inquisitor general and six counsellors, one of whom is always a Dominican, two judges, one fiscal, and several other officers and assistants. The number of the families who are dispersed all over Spain, as spies and informers, are computed at about twenty thousand. Under this supreme court are others in the principal cities in the kingdom, and even in the Canary islands, Mexico, Carthagen, and Lima. But the Rev. Mr. Clarke observes, that the power of this tribunal is now declining very visibly, and seems hastening to its fall; for the present king of Spain has taken a bolder step to humble the inquisition than any of the Philips or Charleses who went before him. The inquisitor-general having thought proper to publish a liturgy which the king had licensed without consulting his majesty, the king, with a very proper spirit, put the inquisitor under an arrest, and immediately sent him guarded with a file of grenadiers into exile in a convent at a great distance from Madrid. So determined and resolute a measure as this alarmed the whole body of the clergy; they moved heaven and earth to obtain the inquisitor's recall; but for some time the king remained inflexible. The common people were now taught by the priests to say that his catholic majesty was no good catholic in his heart. At length, however, the king restored the inquisitor to his liberty; but in such a manner, as that prelate had no reason to triumph; for at the time of releasing him his majesty published a very spirited edict, which was dated on the twenty-seventh of November, 1761, by which he greatly limited their power.

Amidst the great decrease of the inhabitants in Spain, the body of the clergy have suffered no diminution; but has rather been gradually increasing, insomuch that Ustariz computes the number of ecclesiastics and their servants at two hundred and fifty thousand. The king nominates all bishops and archbishops, who are afterwards confirmed by the pope. In 1753 an agreement was entered into between the king and the pope, wherein the latter ceded to the former the nomination to all small benefices; which has not only considerably strengthened the king's power over the clergy, but also keeps those vast sums of money in the country, which used to be expended in journies to Rome, for the soliciting of benefices. The king can also tax the ecclesiastical possessions according to his pleasure. However, the power of the pope and his nuncio is still very extensive here, though no bull can be published without a written permission from the king.

One of the greatest inconveniences a stranger finds in this country is, the miserable accommodations to be met with on the public roads. The Rev. Mr. Clarke says, you must absolutely carry your provisions and bedding along with you, and even then, unless you can bear fatigue well, lie down in your cloaths, eat eggs, onions, and cheese; unless you can sleep whilst your mules rest, rise the moment you are called, and set out early in the morning before the heat comes on, you will fare ill as a traveller. It is a good method to carry dried tongues with you, hard eggs, some portable soup, tea, sugar, and spirituous liquors, not forgetting even pepper and salt; and
whenever

whenever you meet with good bread, meat, fowls, and wine, always to buy them whether you want them or not, because you know not what to-morrow may produce. A knife, fork, and spoon, are absolutely necessary, for you will find none; nor should you omit a pair of snuffers, a candlestick, and some wax candles; but great care must be taken to carry neither tobacco nor rum, for they are contraband, and may occasion the detention, if not the seizure of your baggage. You should also have as few books as possible, for the inquisition will seize them.

SECT. III.

Of the Diversions of the Spaniards; particularly of their Bull-Feasts, Plays, and other Amusements.

WE shall begin our account with the diversions and pastimes of the Spaniards, with a description of the bull-feast exhibited in the Plaza Mayor at Madrid, upon occasion of his catholic majesty's public entry into his capital, on the fifteenth of July, 1760, which we shall give from the account published by the Rev. Mr. Clarke. The square, which is large, was thronged with people, and all the balconies ornamented with different coloured silks, and crowded from the top to the bottom of the houses; the avenues to the square were built up into balconies, and a sloping scaffold placed round for the common people, and raised about eight or nine feet from the ground.

First came the coaches of the cavaliers, four in number, of a singular make, with glasses at the ends, and quite open at the sides: the cavaliers were placed at the doors of their coaches, from whence they bowed to the people in the balconies as they passed round the square, and were accompanied by their sponsors, the dukes of Ossuna, Banos, Arcos, and Medina Cæli. Before the royal family came a company of halberdiers, followed by seven or eight of the king's coaches, preceding his coach of state, which was extremely rich, with red and gold ornaments, and beautiful painted pannels. Then came a coach with some of the great officers; and next came the king and queen in a very sumptuous coach of blue, with all the ornaments of massive silver, and a crown at the top: the trappings of the horses were likewise silver, with large white plumes. These were followed by the coaches of the prince of Asturias, the two infantas, and Don Lewis, with their attendants.

Their majesties seated themselves opposite to the balcony of the English ambassador, in which was our author, in a gilt balcony, with a canopy and curtains of scarlet and gold. On the right hand of the king's balcony were placed the rest of the royal family, and on the left the gentlemen of the bed-chamber in a row, all dressed in a very fine uniform of blue and red, richly embroidered with gold. The halberdiers marched from the king's balcony, which was in the center of one side, and forming themselves into two lines fronting different ways, cleared the square of the crowd, who retired into the scaffolds erected for them; after which the halberdiers formed themselves into a line before the scaffold under the king's balcony. Then two companies of boys, dressed in an uniform, with caps and red taffety jackets, came with buckets of water in their hands and watered the stage as they crossed over it to the opposite side: the six chief alguazils of the city now came mounted on fine horses, covered with trappings, and dressed in the old Spanish habit, black, with slashed sleeves; great white flowing wigs, and hats with plumes of different coloured feathers, advanced towards the king's balcony, under which they were obliged to stay the whole time to receive his orders, except when they were frightened away by the bulls.

At length the troops belonging to the cavaliers ascended the stage in four large companies dressed in silk Moorish liveries, richly and elegantly ornamented with lace and embroidery: these first bowed to the king's balcony, and then went in procession round the square; and from the elegant singularity and variety of their uniforms appeared extremely beautiful. After them came the four knights

in the old Spanish dress, with plumes in their hats, mounted on fine horses: each held in his hand a slender lance, and was attended by two men on foot dressed in light silk of the colour of his livery, with cloaks of the same; these never forsake his side, and are his principal defence. The cavaliers then dispose themselves for the encounter, the first placing himself opposite to the door of the place where the bulls are kept, and the other at some distance behind him.

At a signal given by the king the doors opened, and the bull appeared, to the sound of martial music; and the loud acclamations of the people, when seeing one of the attendants of the first cavalier spreading his cloak before him, he aimed directly at him; but the man easily avoided him, and gave his master an opportunity of breaking his spear in the bull's neck. In the same manner the bull was tempted to engage the other cavaliers, and always with the same success, till having received the wounds with their lances, he was encountered by the other men on foot, who, after playing with him with incredible agility as long as they thought proper, easily put an end to him by thrusting a sword either into his neck or side, which brings him to the ground, and then they finish him at once, by striking a dagger, or sword, behind his horns into the spine, which is always immediate death. After this the bull is hurried off by mules finely adorned with trappings.

After the knights were sufficiently tired with these exploits, the king gave them leave to retire; bulls were then let out, one at a time, from another door; these were of a more furious nature, and were encountered entirely by men on foot, who were so far from fearing their rage, that they strove to increase it; by darting at their necks, and other parts, little barbed darts ornamented with bunches of paper, some of which were filled with gun-powder, and were no sooner fastened to the bull than they went off like a serpent. Nothing can be imagined more tormenting than these darts, but the amazing dexterity with which they are thrown, takes off the attention from its cruelty. They also dress up goats skins, blown up with wind, and increase the fury of the bull by placing them before him, which makes a very ridiculous part of the entertainment. Many of the bulls, however, would not attack them; and one of the most furious that did, shewed more fear than in encountering his most sturdy antagonist. They also baited one bull with dogs, which shewed as much courage as any of the bull-dogs in England.

My apprehensions, says our author, were at first principally excited for the men on foot; but the knights are in much more danger, their horses being too full of fire to be exactly governed; they cannot therefore so well avoid the aim, and are liable to be every moment overthrown with their horses, if their attendants by their side do not assist them. Two beautiful horses were nevertheless gored; one of which was overthrown with his rider, but fortunately the man escaped any mischief from his fall. The courage of these horses is so great, that they have been often known to advance towards the bull, when their bowels were trailing on the ground.

This spectacle, he adds, is one of the finest in the world, whether it be considered merely with respect to the splendor of the sight, or as an exertion of the amazing agility and dexterity of the performers. The Spaniards are so devoted to it, that even the women would pawn their last rag to see it. Nothing can be imagined more crowded than the houses even to the tops of the tiles, and dearly enough do they pay for their pleasure, pent together in the hottest sun, and with the most suffocating heat that can be endured. This is certainly a remnant of Moorish, and perhaps Roman barbarity, and will not bear the speculations of the closet, or the compassionate feelings of the tender heart; but, on the other hand, it has all the good effects of chivalry, in exciting in the minds of the spectators a disposition to hardy actions, without the horror that prevailed in former times, of distinguishing bravery to the prejudice of our own species. It teaches to despise danger, and that the surest way to overcome it is to look it calmly and stedfastly in the face, and to afford a faithful and generous assistance to those engaged with us in enterprizes of difficulty.

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The bull-feast in the Plaza Mayor is never exhibited but upon some extraordinary occasion, as the accession or marriage of their kings, and is attended with very great expence, both to his majesty and the city. But there is a theatre built without the walls, where there are bull-feasts every fortnight, which to connoisseurs are greatly preferable to the others, the bulls being more furious, and the danger greater to those who fight them; but there is little difference in their manner of engaging them.

We shall now give some idea of the Spanish theatre, which our author visited at the season for acting the autos, or plays, in support of the catholic faith. The theatre made a good appearance with respect to its size and shape; but was rather dirty and ill lighted, and, what was worse, had an equal mixture of day-light and candles. The prompter's head appeared through a little trap-door, above the level of the stage; and he read the play loud enough to be heard by the people in the boxes. The pit made a motley appearance, many standing in their night-caps and cloaks; while officers and soldiers were interspersed among the dirtiest mob. The side and front boxes were filled by persons well dressed, and that which answered to our two shilling gallery was filled with women, all in the same uniform, a dark petticoat, and a white woollen veil. The actors were dressed in richer cloaths than those in England, and these they are perpetually changing, in order to shew the expensive variety of their wardrobe.

After some tedious and insipid scenes, came on an interlude of humour. One of the comedians addressed a lady who sung very prettily, and offered her a purse of money: in the mean while a man brought in three barber's blocks which he placed upon the stage, which he first dressed in mens cloaths; but then undressing them, dressed them in womens apparel, after which came in three men who had a fancy to tempt these three ladies; but they were inflexibly coy, and it was not long before their gallants discovered their mistake. At length, after some long tiresome uninteresting scenes full of fustian and bombast, an actor, dressed in a long purple robe, in the character of Christ, preached to the four quarters of the world in their proper dresses; Europe and America heard him gladly, but Asia and Africa remained incorrigible. Our Saviour was soon after blind-folded, buffeted, spit upon, bound, scourged, crowned with thorns, and compelled to bear his cross; when he kneeled down and cried, *Padre mi! Padre mi!* "Father, father, why hast thou forsaken me?" After this the fellow placed himself against the wall, with his hands extended, as if on the cross, and there imitated the expiring agonies of the blessed Saviour; after which one of the actresses unbound him, took off his crown and scarlet robes, and he having put on his wig and coat, joined the rest of the actors in a dance. After this one of the actresses, in a very long speech, explained the nature, end, and design of the sacraments; and the play was concluded by Christ appearing in a ship triumphant.

Soon after our author went to see a regular comedy, and there were two other English gentlemen in the same box with him. They understood very little of the design of the first act; they saw a king, a queen, an enchantress, and many other pretty delightful sights; but the interlude with which it was concluded was extremely low. The scene was intended for the inside of a Spanish inn, during the night: there were three feather-beds, and as many blankets brought upon the stage; the queen and her maids of honour personated the mistress of the inn and her maids; and accordingly fell to making the beds. After this six men came in to lie there, and one of them being a miser had rolled up his money in twenty or thirty pieces of paper. They then undressed before the ladies by pulling off six or seven pair of breeches, and as many coats and waistcoats, and got into bed two by two: when behold, the jest consisted in seeing them kick the cloaths off one another, and then fight, as the spectator is to suppose, in the dark. "The absurdity of this scene, and the incomprehensible ridiculousness of it," made us, says our author, laugh immoderately. The sight of the feather-beds, the men kicking and sprawling, the peals of applause that echoed through the

house, were truly inconceivable; though, I believe, our neighbours in the next box thought we laughed at the wit and humour of the author. It was a scene that beggars all possible description, and I defy any theatre in Europe, but that of Madrid, to produce such another."

When this interlude was finished, there succeeded some other scenes between the king, queen, enchantress, and the rest of the actors. Five or six of them all at once drew their swords upon the enchantress, who parried them with her wand, and, to their great amazement, retired unhurt into her cell. At other times the enchantress killed with a look, and restored to life with a second. In short, after several ridiculous incidents, the enchantress renounces the devil and all his works, and in the conclusion embraces the catholic faith, and declares she will adhere to that alone. But it can hardly be supposed, that these absurd dramatic pieces are the best of the kind; and indeed they are said to have some that are excellent, as those of Lopez de Vega, which come nearest to our Shakespeare.

The taste for gallantry and dancing prevails in Spain universally, and they are the two ruling passions of the country. The latter is so much their favourite entertainment, that their greatest matrons never think themselves excluded by age from this diversion; and you may see the grand-mother, mother, and daughter, all joining in the same dance. The two most favourite and universal Spanish dances are the *seguedillas* and the *sandango*: the first is something like our *hay*; the second is a very antient dance, and though originally Roman, yet the Spaniards have mixed somewhat of the Moorish along with it: they are excessively fond of it, and it is danced by the first nobility, as well as by the common people.

The military turn of the Spaniards appears in many of their diversions, and even in the very terms and language they use at cards: *hombre* in Spanish signifies a man, and from thence we derive our game at ombre: the four principal cards are called *matadores*, or murderers, because they win all others. *Spadillo* is the little sword, or, as we call it, the ace of spades; for *spado*, in Spanish, signifies a sword, and they are so painted on their cards.

It is usual with the Spaniards both to breakfast and sup in bed; their breakfast is usually of chocolate, tea being seldom drank by them. Their dinner is generally a *pochero*, or beef, veal, mutton, pork, bacon and greens, &c. all boiled together. If it be a richer or more expensive mixture of meats and delicacies, it is then termed an *olla podrida*, or what we call an *olio*. They are fond of garlic; and it is a proverb among them, that olives, salad, and radishes, are food for gentlemen.

The Spaniards generally sleep after dinner.

Though the men and women all wear the same dress in the street and at mass, yet the ladies in their private visits wear as great a variety of dress, and of a much richer sort than those in England. The spirit of jealousy is so far worn out, that the married ladies of Madrid have each their professed lover, just as the Italian ladies have their *cicisbeo*.

Their evening's airing is to the last degree insipid: you see nothing but a string of coaches following one another, filled with people of fashion: here a duke and his confessor; there a couple of smart young abbés; here a whole family grouped together, husband, wife, and children. When they take their airing on gala, or court days, all their footmen are dressed in laced liveries, with plumes of feathers in their hats.

The number of servants kept by the grandees, and people of the first fashion, is immoderate. Some of them have three or four hundred domestics, and the English ambassador, in compliance with the taste of the country, keeps near a hundred. As their coaches are usually drove with four mules, they have two postillions; with generally four and sometimes six footmen behind their coaches. In the hot weather they take out the sides and backs of their coaches, for the sake of the air.

They seldom use sedans; and when they do, they have always two footmen who go on each side the hindmost chairman, in order to hold him up, lest he should fall: there

there are two on each side of the sedan, and two who follow behind with lanthorns, though it be in the middle of the day. Thus they have generally nine servants with a coach, and ten with a sedan, besides those who go before.

S E C T. IV.

Of the Capacities and Genius of the Spaniards; the Obstructions to Learning, and their Skill in Divinity, History, Physic, and Poetry. Their Deficiency in manual Arts. The State of their foreign Trade; with a particular Account of the Spanish Coin, Weights, and Measures.

THE Spaniards are far from being wanting in capacity for the sciences, yet little progress can be expected from them while they are debarred the use of their natural talents. The clergy not being very learned themselves, it is a point of policy with them to suppress all scientific knowledge among the laity; and in order to keep them in ignorance and subjection, they brand all literary researches with the name of heresy. Hence, tho' Spain has no less than twenty-two universities, and several academies, among which is one at Valladolid for geography; yet are they under such restrictions, that those who attend them can never make any figure in literature. The booksellers in Spain scarcely dare to keep a valuable book in their shops, on any remarkable and interesting subject; the inquisition being extremely vigilant in suppressing them, and concealing from the public whatever may tend to open their eyes. They have pretences always ready for seizing foreign books, though they have not the least relation to religion. Indeed, most of the books published in the Spanish language are printed out of Spain, few printing-houses being to be seen there, and the far greatest part of their paper is imported from Genoa.

With respect to the present state of divinity, it consists, much as it formerly did, in the study of the fathers, councils and decrees of the popes and their canons, and in systems of Thomastic and Augustine theology. The knowledge of the learned languages, and explication of the text of the sacred writings, have little to do with it. In this tract of criticism they are almost utter strangers, though they are well versed in casuistry, which makes a constant part of the studies preparatory to the pastoral office.

In history the Spaniards have had many valuable writers; but it is dangerous to descend too near to the present time; besides, his present majesty has absolutely forbid any of his subjects to write the history of Charles V.

In physic and surgery, Mr. Clarke says, they are at least two centuries behind the English; but where the people are persuaded that saints, miracles, and charms can be procured to cure the most inveterate diseases, there must be little inclination to have recourse to art. However, they still practise copious bleeding in most diseases, and botany is much studied.

In poetry they have many writers, besides the celebrated Lopez de Vega, who wrote the *Jerusalem Conquistada*, tragedies, comedies, &c. Their songs have a wonderful air of simplicity, and in some of them are much sentiment as well as dignity: those upon love are extremely chaste; and some have a pleasing air of romance; but moral, grave, majestic, pensive, like the people themselves.

The most celebrated writers of humour in prose are Cervantes and Guevara; the most famous work of the latter is the *El Diablo Coxuelo*, which la Sage modernized into a romance, known in English by the title of *The Devil on two Sticks*.

There is here a want even of the most necessary trades; and of the few they have, the greatest part are in the hands of the French, who are very numerous in this country; for the natives, besides their aversion to work, disdain to stoop to laborious employments. They are not, however, entirely without manufactures, especially of silk and wool; but these fall far short of that flourishing condition to which they might be brought: and as tradesmen and merchants are looked upon with contempt, they have no sooner amassed a competent fortune, than

they leave off trade, procure a title, and set up for persons of quality. The great duties likewise on Spanish stuffs render them dearer than the foreign. Thus the Spaniards part with the products of their own country, and with the treasures of America, to foreigners, who supply them with bread, and every thing that can contribute to convenience and splendor. It has indeed been said, that of late the Spanish manufactures are in a thriving way, and that they make very fine cloths, besides gold and silver; but this will not probably be lasting; at least it will be a long time before they are able to supply the wants of their own country, so as to exclude foreign manufactures.

Spain is extremely well situated for trade and navigation: they might be their own carriers; but this advantage they neglect, and leave it to other maritime nations, who turn it to a very good account. The Spaniards indeed deny them all access to their possessions in America, and are so jealous of having that trade confined only to themselves, that no foreign ships must even approach their coast: yet of this commerce, which is carried on in their own ships, they have the least profit, they being little more than factors for the French, English, Dutch, and Italians, who send their goods to America by them, and have the greatest share in their returns of gold, silver, and other commodities.

The trade to America was formerly carried on by the flota and galleons. The flota, or Plate fleet, consists of a certain number of ships, some belonging to the king, and others to merchants: these used to set sail from Cadiz to Mexico about August, unloading at Vera Cruz, and returning to Spain in eighteen or nineteen months.

The galleons were two men of war, called Capitana and Almiranta, which served as convoy for eight or twelve ships that put to sea from Cadiz every March or April. Their first port was Carthagená; from thence, by way of the Havannah, they returned to Spain. But since the years 1735 and 1737, the flota and galleons have been discontinued, and the trade to America carried on in register ships, which any merchants may send, on obtaining permission from the council of the Indies. These sail from Cadiz directly to Lima, Buenos Ayres, Maracaibo, Carthagená, Honduras, Campeche, and Vera Cruz.

In 1728 an exclusive charter was granted to a company for trading to the Caraccas, a permission to the inhabitants of the Canary islands only excepted, who were allowed to send thither annually one register ship, whose cargo was entirely to consist of the produce of these islands. In 1756 another company was erected for trading to Hispaniola and Porto Rica, and sending annually ten register ships to the bay of Honduras, and the ports of the province of Guatemala.

The Spaniards also carry on a very considerable trade to the coasts on the South Sea, between the town of Manila, in the island of Luconia, and the harbour of Acapulco on the coast of Mexico; but of this trade we have given a particular account in treating of Manila, Vol. I. page 102, 103.

With respect to the Spanish money, it is not easily understood; for the Spaniards make up most of their accounts, and form their calculations chiefly in these two species, the real de vellon, and the maravedi. The latter is the lowest of the denominations of their copper money, and in this the king's accounts are kept; consequently the revenues of Spain, and the wealth brought from Peru and Mexico, are annually computed by an integer of copper that is three times less than our farthing.

The real de vellon is the smallest piece of their silver money, and equals our two-pence half-penny, and two-thirds of a farthing. But though it be the most usual way in Spain to compute by the maravedi and the real de vellon, yet there are several other methods of calculation still in force. Thus, pensions from the court, payments of the army, navy, &c. are set down in the register of the Spanish finances in escudos and ducados, or copper crowns and ducats. Some accounts of merchants and private persons are likewise kept in this way; but few things are bought and sold but by the former computation of maravedis and reals.

In the office of decimal rents, or tythes belonging to the archbishop of Toledo, accounts are kept in the obsolete denomination of dineros, ten of which make a maravedi. There are no less than fifty clerks in this office; and how voluminous must their accounts be for above thirty thousand pounds a year, that are kept in a denomination, the value of which is above thirty times less than an English farthing!

The small denominations by which the Spaniards love to compute, renders their accounts, like themselves, slow, tedious, and elaborate; but then they have this advantage, that they make their accountants most minutely exact.

But our English merchants traffic chiefly in pieces of eight, and compute usually by the piastre, or old disused piece of eight, consisting of fifteen reals and two maravedis: or if they reckon by pistoles, they mean the pistole of sixty reals, which is the common pistole, and not the gold one of seventy-five and ten maravedis, otherwise called the *doblon efectivo de oro*.

To give a more perfect idea of the Spanish coin, the following is reduced to the English weights and value:

	£.	s.	d.
The old Spanish pistole, 4 pen. wt. 8 gr.	0	17	4
The new Seville pistole, 4 pen. wt. 8 gr.	0	17	4
The old double doubloon, 17 pen. wt. 8 gr.	3	9	4
The old double pistole, 8 pen. wt. 16 gr.	1	14	8
The new Seville double pistole, 18 pen. wt. 16 gr.	1	14	8

The half and quarter of these in proportion.

The piastre of Spain, or Seville pieces of eight	0	4	6
The new Seville piece of eight	—	—	0 3 7
The Mexico piece of eight	—	—	0 4 5
The pillar piece of eight	—	—	0 4 5
The rial, or bit	—	—	0 0 7

The Spanish weights are the arroba, which is exactly twenty-five pounds English weight, four of which make a quintal or hundred: but yet the arroba is not the same throughout all Spain; for the pound of Cadiz and Seville, and consequently the arroba, are much larger than those of Castile.

In Spain almost every thing, whether dry or liquid, is sold by the averdupois pound of sixteen ounces, and consequently by the arroba: thus wine, oil, wood, coals, corn, bread, salt, &c. are sold by the pound, and in large quantities by the arroba.

The gold and silver-smiths weights are,

The quilate, or carrat, is four grains.

A tomin, equal to three carrats, twelve grains.

A castillan, equal to eight tomins.

The ounce, equal to six castillans and two tomins.

The mark is equal to eight ounces.

The liquid measures are,

Dos açumbres, or a gallon.

An açumbre, two quarts.

Half an açumbre, one quart.

A quartillo, one pint.

S E C T. V.

A concise History of Spain; the Titles and Arms of the King; of the Nobility, and the Orders of Knighthood. Of the Inauguration of the King, his several Councils and Courts of Justice, his Revenues and Forces.

WITH respect to the history of Spain, it will be proper to observe, that the southern coast was anciently frequented by the Phœnicians for the sake of commerce: after them the Carthaginians came in a hostile manner and reduced the country; but were in their turn dispossessed by the Romans. Towards the beginning of the fifth century it was over-run by the Swabians, Alans, and Vandals; but these were soon subdued by the Visigoths, who entered Spain under the command of their king Atolphus, or Adolphus. Witisa, one of their kings, dying in the year 711, the kingdom was divided into factions, and the public revenues greatly diminished by the wealth which the bishops and clergy had accumulated. Such was the state of the nation when king Rode-

ric ascended the throne, and to him is generally attributed, says Busching, the overthrow of the Gothic kingdom in Spain, though his rape on the lady, or daughter of count Julian, who is said, out of resentment, to have instigated the Moors to invade Spain, has never been sufficiently proved. It is, however, certain, that Spain was delivered up to the Moors by the craft and treachery of count Julian, and Oppa, archbishop of Seville; who not only spirited up the people clandestinely to revolt, but at the bloody battle of Xeres even deserted to the Moors, which turned the scale against the Visigoths. Thus the Moors, who were also called Arabians and Saracens, became masters of the kingdom. This revolution happened in the year 714.

Pelagius, a prince of the Visigoths, with a great number of the Gothic nobility, his followers, withdrew into Galicia, Biscay, and the mountains of Asturia: other bodies of the same nation dispersed themselves into Navarre, Arragon, and the Pyrenean mountains: thus the Gothic empire became divided into a number of petty states; for Pelagius having, in 716, obtained a victory over the Moors, the remaining Goths broke out into inconceivable animosities, and separately laid the foundations of the kingdoms of Leon, Navarre, Arragon, and Sobrarbien; and of the earldoms of Castile, Barcelona, &c. These small states were not only continually at war with the Moors, but with each other. Hence their frequent quarrels and alliances render their history very intricate. The kingdom of Castile and Arragon at length became superior to the rest; but though they were thrice united by marriage, they soon separated again; till, in 1472, a perpetual union took place, by means of the marriage of Ferdinand, hereditary prince of Arragon, to Isabella, heiress of Castile, who, in 1473, became king and queen of Castile; and, on the death of Ferdinand's father, in 1479, of Arragon also. To Castile at that time belonged not only both the Castiles and Estramadura, but Andalusia, Murcia, Leon, and the Asturias; Navarre, Biscay, Guipuscoa, Alava, Rioja, and Galicia; Arragon included Arragon, Catalonia, Roussillon, Valencia, and the islands of Majorca, Minorca, and Yvica.

Ferdinand, on his first obtaining this great kingdom, immediately erected the court of inquisition; and, in 1491, by the conquest of the city of Granada, put an end to the dominion of the Moors in Spain, on which account the pope gave him the title of the Most Catholic king.

By the articles of capitulation on which Granada surrendered, Boabdil, the Moorish king, with his subjects, submitted to do homage to Ferdinand and Isabella, on condition of retaining the possession of their kingdom and their laws, with the free exercise of their religion. But this capitulation was soon violated, and it being resolved to put all to death who refused to be baptized, several hundred thousands of them fled to Africa; and their Jewish subjects, who were very numerous, were banished to Portugal.

Isabella, the consort of Ferdinand, now enabled the justly celebrated Columbus to undertake the discovery of new countries beyond the Atlantic Ocean, and in 1492 he sailed to the West Indies.

In 1504 king Ferdinand acquired, by stratagem, the whole kingdom of Naples. In 1509, he conquered Oran on the coast of Africa, and in 1512 made himself master of the kingdom of Navarre: by which the several states of Spain were united into one body. In 1496 a marriage was concluded between Philip of Austria and Johanna, daughter to Ferdinand, which soon after caused the Austrian dominions to be united to the Spanish; for Charles V. grand-son to Ferdinand, in 1520, became both king of Spain and emperor of Germany; but in 1556 resigned the empire in favour of his brother Ferdinand.

His son and successor to the throne of Spain was Philip II. who also possessed Milan, with the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands, and the county of Burgundy; and in 1581 subdued Portugal. But attempting to govern as arbitrarily in the Netherlands, as his father had done in Spain, and at the same time introducing a kind of inquisition for the suppression of the Protestants, who

who began to be very numerous, occasioned an almost general insurrection, and a civil war commenced, in which the duke of Alva, the king of Spain's general, exercised great cruelties. They were then assisted by Elizabeth, queen of England, and by France. Upon which Philip fitted out the most formidable fleet that ever sailed upon the ocean; this was his boasted invincible armada, with which he attempted to invade England; but it was in a great measure destroyed by the storms of heaven and the bravery of the English.

Philip III. weakened his country by expelling a million more of the Moors, and the new converts that remained behind were perpetually persecuted and tortured by the inquisition.

Under Philip IV. Portugal shook off the Spanish yoke; and several other countries revolted. In 1648 that prince was obliged to acknowledge the United Provinces a free independent state; and in 1659 he lost all the county of Roussillon. Charles II. was dispossessed of a great part of what he enjoyed in other parts of the Netherlands, as likewise of Franche Comté, and by his death in 1700 his family became extinct.

Philip, duke of Anjou, grand-son to Lewis XIV. of France, by Charles's will, ascended the throne of Spain; but this occasioned thirteen years war between France and the house of Austria, till, by the peace of Utrecht, Philip's possession was confirmed by ceding Gibraltar and Minorca to England, and Sicily to the duke of Savoy; the emperor Charles VI. being only able to obtain the Netherlands and certain dominions in Italy.

In 1717 Philip took Sicily and Sardinia from the emperor; but in 1720 acceded to the quadruple alliance, and renounced all claim to France, the Spanish Netherlands, Italy, Sicily, and Sardinia, which was confirmed in 1725 by the peace of Vienna, in which Charles VI. relinquished all pretensions to the crown of Spain: but in 1733 he procured his son Don Carlos to be invested with Naples and Sicily.

In 1739 a war broke out between England and Spain, after which king Ferdinand VI. at the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, found means to procure for his half-brother, Don Philip, the three duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla. Ferdinand died in 1758, when his brother Don Carlos, king of the Two Sicilies, ascended the throne.

The titles of the king of Spain run thus: Charles III. by the grace of God king of Castile, Leon, Arragon, the Two Sicilies, Jerusalem, Navarre, Granada, Toledo, Valencia, Galicia, Majorca, Seville, Cerdena, Cordova, Corfica, Murcia, Jaen, the Algarves, of Algezira, Gibraltar, the Canary Islands, the East and West Indies, the Islands and Continent of the Ocean; archduke of Austria; duke of Burgundy, Brabant, and Milan, of Hapsburg, Flanders, Tirol, and Barcelona; lord of Biscay and Molina, &c. He also enjoys the title of Most Catholic king, and since the year 1308 the hereditary prince is stiled prince of the Asturias. The other royal children are called *infantas*.

The arms of Spain are a shield divided into four quarters, of which the uppermost on the right hand and the lowest on the left contain a castle or, with three towers for Castile; and in the uppermost on the left and the lowest on the right are three lions gules, for Leon; with three lilies in the center for Anjou.

The inferior nobility stile themselves *cavalleros* and *hidalgos*; but enjoy no privileges above the burghers. However, the higher nobility, including the dukes, marquisses, and counts, who are stiled the *titulos*, or *titulados*; and particularly the *grandees*, who take precedence next the king and the princes of the blood, enjoy great privileges. They are divided into three classes, but consider themselves as being all upon an equality: yet when the king nominates a grandee, if he be of the first class, he kisses the king's hand, and returns his majesty thanks covered; if of the second, he does not cover himself till after the compliment; and if of the third, he does not put on his hat till he has kissed his hand, and returned to his place among the *grandees* who are present.

The pre-eminence of a grandee does not solely consist of his being covered in the king's presence; this being common to others, as cardinals, nuncios, archbishops, and the ambassadors of crowned heads; for at an assem-

bly of the states, or the nomination of a king, they take place of all temporal lords, the constable and amirant of Castile excepted. They enjoy all the privileges of a duke, though no dukes by title. When the king takes the air on horseback, they ride next to his person, the master of the horse only excepted, who by virtue of his office rides by the king's side. The king in writing or speaking stiles them prince or cousin-german. At an audience of the pope they are permitted to sit, and he gives them the title of Sennoria. No grandee can be taken into custody for any offence, unless by express order of the king; and it must be high treason, or some other heinous crime against the state, that can occasion the obtaining of such an order. They and their eldest sons are stiled Excellency, and they even esteem themselves equal to the princes of the empire and of Italy.

The principal order of knighthood in Spain is that of the Golden Fleece, which received its origin from the Burgundian dominions, and at present belongs both to the kings of Spain and the house of Austria. The collar of the order consists of an alternate range of golden flints and steels, with sparks of fire on all sides, and a golden fleece pendant from it, with this motto, *AUTRE N'AURAI*. Charles V. permitted the knights, instead of this collar, to wear only a scarlet ribbon.

The three orders properly Spanish, and which have a revenue annexed to them, are,

The order of St. Jago di Compostella, instituted in 1175, by Ferdinand II. king of Leon, and has for its badge a red uniform cross, divided into twelve departments. This order has four convents who are brothers of the order, seven religious ones, one college, five hospitals, and six hermitages.

The order of Calatrava, instituted by Sancho III. of Castile, has for its badge a red cross, divided into five departments. To this order belong one convent of religious, and one college.

The order of Alcantara, the badge of which is a lily placed cross-wise, was instituted by Ferdinand II. king of Leon, and was at first called St. Julian de Peregro. This order is also divided into five departments, and to it belong three convents of religious, and one college.

The king is grand master of these orders.

Besides these, the present king of Spain has now introduced the Neapolitan order of St. Januarius; and has ordered it to be worn in his court above the French order of the Holy Ghost, or that of the Golden Fleece.

Spain, from the Gothic times to that of Pelagius, was an elective kingdom; and for two centuries afterwards the throne was filled by the suffrages of the states, who, however, in no instance departed from the royal family. At present the crown of course devolves, without any form or ceremony, to the nearest in blood, and females are capable of inheriting; but it is only on the failure of the male line. If the next heir be incapable of government, especially when on the decease of the former king affairs are in confusion, the states are impowered to choose five persons to take the administration upon them, among whom the queen-mother is to hold the chief place.

On the inauguration of a new monarch, he is proclaimed in the church of the Jeronites at Buen Retiro, and receives homage from the states; but he is neither anointed nor crowned; for these ceremonies have been disused for some centuries.

The ancient Spanish cortes resembled our parliament, it consisting of the clergy, the ancient nobility, and the deputies of the towns; and the legislative authority was so blended in that of the king and the states, that no laws could be made, repealed, or suspended, nor any money raised upon the subjects, but with their common consent. But now this cortes is laid aside; Spain is no longer a mixed monarchy, but entirely absolute; the whole government being in the hands of the king and his ministers, and the councils, which are always at his devotion. This change from mixed to absolute monarchy, was occasioned by the timidity of the commons of Castile, who having, in their last struggles for expiring freedom, supported for some time a war against the crown, on a single defeat, in the most abject manner deserted the noble cause of liberty. This war began in the year 1520, and lasted only two years; at which

time

time Charles V. carried his point with a high hand, and told the cortes he would always have the supplies granted first, and then would pass the bills they petitioned for, and not before, to which they timidly submitted. Since the time of Philip III. in the beginning of the seventeenth century, the cortes have been discontinued, and there have been no other assembly than conventions of the deputies or agents of the towns, among whom are settled the necessary taxes.

The laws of Spain are chiefly compounded of the Roman civil law, the royal edicts, and probably certain provincial customs. Where they thought the Roman law was not sufficiently extensive, they have made large additions of their own; these are called the *Leyes de Partidas*, and at present form a system of modern Spanish law, and have been published in six volumes octavo. The name *Partidas* comes from their being divided into chapters.

The most weighty affairs of state are discussed in the council of state, which consists of a president, three other counsellors, a secretary of state, and two other secretaries.

The supreme royal council, or royal council of Castile, is the highest court of judicature, and is divided into five inferior courts or chambers, viz. the first and second halls of government, which are frequently assembled as one, to determine appeals made from the chanceries of Valladolid and Granada. The hall of the *Mily Quinientos*, so called because the parties must first deposit fifteen hundred doblas, about two hundred and twenty-three pounds, before the appeal can be lodged: this is nothing more than a committee of the supreme council. The hall of Justice, which is a court for matters purely litigious; and the hall of the Province, which is a court for matters chiefly relating to the police; the provinces being distributed among the seven counsellors of the first hall of government.

The chamber of the alcaides of the court and household, which may also be classed with the great councils, consists of a governor or president, twelve judges, and a fiscal.

The supreme council of war is at present composed of four counsellors, one of whom is secretary, one fiscal, and three assessors, who are members of the royal council of Castile. This council determines all causes relating to the army, except what belongs to the following council.

The supreme royal council of the Indies consists of a governor, twenty-two counsellors, four secretaries, two for Peru and two for New Spain, one accomptant general, and other officers. This tribunal decides without appeal in affairs relating to the Spanish seas and possessions in America.

The council of the finances is divided into four chambers, or halls.

The great court of the civil law is divided into the two chambers of Valladolid and Granada, which include the whole kingdom: but though Arragon, Valencia, and Catalonia, lost their old privileges, yet they still retain a court of chancery among themselves, in audiences held in the capital of each kingdom, whose determinations are only subject to the supreme council of Castile. If it be a case of property, the suit is commenced in that chancery to which the plaintiff belongs, and then the affair is referred to the supreme royal council, at which the king may order all the deputy councils to assist. All other causes go before the respective courts to which they belong.

The revenue of the king arises principally from the tenth of every thing sold, to which may be added the tithes and fourths of a hundred; the excise on wine, oil, tallow, soap, paper, salt-fish, &c. the usual aid of four hundred and forty-one thousand one hundred and seventy-six crowns, paid by all under the rank of nobility; the wine-gauge money; the stamp duties, and the half annates; the duties on provisions, which is fourteen per cent. those on salt, tobacco, the post-office, the regulations of the crown of Arragon, and the bull of the crusado, by virtue of which the clergy and laity pay a contribution towards carrying on a war with the infidels, even whether there be any such war or not;

indulgences; licences for eating butter, cheese, milk, and eggs, in Lent; the subsidies and tithes of church and abbey-lands; the money paid by those orders in lieu of the lances and galleys they were bound to furnish; the taxes on downs, commons, and other pastures; the Madrid excise; the thirds, tenths, and patrimonial rents of Catalonia, Arragon, Valencia, and Majorca; the ecclesiastical payments for the military hospitals; the quicksilver, and other American revenues; the West-India trade; the coinage, &c. all which together amount at present to about three million three hundred seventy-three thousand two hundred eighty-eight pounds sterling.

The Spanish land forces consist of ninety-six thousand five hundred and ninety-seven men. The kingdom is also well defended on all sides: towards France it has a secure fence in the Pyrenean mountains; and the sea-coasts are lined with redoubts, forts, and towers; and up the country the army of an enemy would be put to very great inconveniences, particularly the horse, for want of forage.

The naval forces of Spain consist at present of forty-seven ships of the line, twenty-one frigates, fourteen xebecs, four packet-boats, and seventeen bomb-vessels; the complement of all which amount to forty-five thousand nine hundred sixty men.

The foreign possessions of the crown of Spain in Africa, are the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Masalquiver, on the coast of Barbary; in Asia, the islands of St. Lazarus, the Philippines, and Ladrones; the greatest part of the main land of South-America; and in North-America, Mexico, New Mexico, California, the island of Cuba, part of Hispaniola, Porto Rico, &c.

S E C T. VI.

The Divisions of Spain, with a Description of the Kingdom or Province of Catalonia, containing its Situation, Extent, Rivers, Produce, and principal Cities, particularly Tortosa, Tarragona, Barcelona, Roses, and Gerona.

THE kingdom of Spain consists of main land and islands. The main land is divided into fourteen provinces, some of which are reckoned to belong to the crown of Castile, and others to Arragon: the former are Old and New Castile, Biscay, Leon, Asturia, Galicia, Estremadura, Andalusia, Granada, Murcia, and Navarre; the latter includes only Arragon, Catalonia, and Valencia, with the islands in the Mediterranean.

We shall begin with Catalonia, which is bounded on the west by Arragon and Valencia; on the south and east by the Mediterranean; and on the north is separated from France by the Pyrenean mountains. Its greatest extent from east to west is a hundred and twelve English miles, and from north to south a hundred forty-eight. It was formerly larger than at present; but France has, at different times, curtailed it of the counties of Roussillon and Conflans, a good part of Cerdagne, and long since of Foix.

This fine country is watered by several rivers, some of which intermix, while others discharge themselves separately into the sea. Of the first sort is the Segre, in Latin Sicoris, the largest of all the rivers of Catalonia. It has its source in Cerdagne, and receives in its passage the Noguera Pallaresa, the Noguera Ribagorçana, and the Cervera. It afterwards unites with the Cinca, and at last loses itself in the Ebro. Of the second kind, besides the large river Ebro, which passes through only a small part of Catalonia, is the Francoli, which falls into the sea at Tarragona; the Llobregat, anciently called the Rubricatus, which receives its source in the mountain of Pendis, and discharges itself into the sea below Barcelona; the Besos, or Betulus, which also joins the sea not far from Barcelona; the Ter, Thicis, or Thiceris, which issues between the mountains, and discharges itself into the sea below Torcella; the river Fluvia, which falls into the sea near Empurias; and another Llobregat, the mouth of which is near Roses.

Though Catalonia does not produce sugar-canes, like the rest of the provinces of Spain, yet it enjoys a very good

good soil, with a pure and wholesome air. The winters in the northern parts, contiguous to the Pyrenees, are attended with some frost and snow; but in the southern, particularly along the sea coast, that season is very mild. It is almost entirely mountainous, a few places excepted, which extend themselves into most delightful plains; but these mountains are so far from being barren, that they are covered with wood and fruit trees. The country yields plenty of wine, corn, oil, pulse, and fruits, and also produces a great quantity of flax and hemp. The flesh meat of this country, and in general all provisions, are excellent.

With respect to minerals, marble, crystal, alabaster, jasper, amethysts, &c. are found here; likewise gold, silver, tin, lead, iron, alum, vitriol, and salt, and the coast has several coral fisheries. In short, this province is one of the most populous in all Spain, and contains an archbishoprick, seven bishopricks, twenty-eight large abbeys, one principality, two duchies, five marquisesates, seventeen earldoms, fourteen viscounts, and a multitude of baronies.

Some geographers divide this principality into Old and New Catalonia, including in the former the country extending eastward from the Pyrenean mountains along the river Llobregat to the Mediterranean; and, in the latter, they comprehend that tract to the west, which extends from the Llobregat to the confines of Valencia and Arragon. This country is usually divided into fifteen jurisdictions, six of which lie along the coast; these are those of Tortosa, Monblanc, Tarragona, Villa Franca, de Panades, Barcelona, and Gerona. Along the Pyrenean mountains are the two jurisdictions of Campredon and Puicerda, with the earldom of Cerdagne. The two jurisdictions of Belaguer and Lerida join to the frontiers of Arragon; and within the country are those of Agramont, Tarrega, Cervera, Manresa, and Vique: but as it is impossible to distinguish with any certainty the places belonging to each jurisdiction, we shall insert the most remarkable, without strictly attending to these minute divisions.

Tortosa is an antient, large, and fortified city, on the Ebro, over which it has a bridge of boats. It lies partly on a level, and partly on a hill, eighty miles to the west-by-south of Barcelona, and a hundred and eighty-five to the east of Madrid. It is divided into the Old and New Town, of which the former is the largest. The avenue to it is defended by two bastions and other out-works, and the antient strong castle, which is built in the form of a citadel, stands on an eminence between the two towns. Here are five gates, seventy-eight streets, with a spacious square or market-place, and many churches and convents; the bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Saragossa, has an annual revenue of fifteen thousand ducats. Its university is inconsiderable; but the adjacent country abounds in corn and fruit, oil and silk, and with quarries and mines; for there are those of silver and iron, alabaster, very fine jasper of various colours, and stones with veins of gold. They also make here fine potters-ware, which resemble porcelain.

Tarragona, an antient and strong city, is situated on an eminence near the mouth of the little river Francoli, forty-five miles to the north-east of Tortosa, and about the same distance to the west of Barcelona. It is neither so large nor so populous as it was formerly; for though there is room for two thousand houses within the walls, there are not above five hundred, which are all built of large square stones; but it is still the see of an archbishop, who enjoys a revenue of twenty thousand ducats a year. It has an university founded in the year 1532. Its harbour, on account of its many rocks, will not admit of ships of burthen; but it has a pretty good trade. The neighbouring country produces corn, oil, flax, and very good wine; and both within and without the city are to be seen the ruins of magnificent buildings, and other ornaments of antiquity.

In this city are a multitude of Roman inscriptions, and not far from thence, in the road to Barcelona, you pass under a very handsome triumphal arch, erected by the family of the Licinii, adorned with fluted Corinthian columns, and a pediment with dentiles, like the Ionic order. A little way on one side the road, somewhat

farther on, is the tomb of the Scipios; it being the base of an obelisk, or pyramid, erected to their memory, with a figure on each side in the Roman habit; these are by some thought to be designed for the two Scipios, but others suppose them to represent weeping slaves.

Barcelona, or Barcino, the capital of Catalonia, is a large and well fortified sea-port, seated at the foot of Montjoui, in the forty-first degree twenty minutes latitude, and in the second degree five minutes east longitude. It opens to the sea in a beautiful semicircle, between the rivers Llobregat and Besos. It is a large and well fortified place, divided into the Old and New Town, which are separated from each other by a wall and ditch. Most of the streets are broad, well paved, and clean. It has many beautiful structures, a large and superb cathedral, with some other beautiful churches and convents, and several handsome squares. At the church of Capiulefmona, or the Alms-taker, close by the cathedral, three hundred poor people are daily fed. The number of houses in Barcelona is computed at about fifteen thousand. Its bishop is suffragan to the metropolitan of Tarragona, and his annual revenue is computed at ten thousand ducats. Here is also an university, an academy of the fine arts erected in 1752, a court of inquisition, and a royal audience of Catalonia, in which, next to the governor and captain-general, sits the regent. The other members here are ten counsellors, five criminal, or justiciary, officers, and two fiscals. On the coast of Barcelona is a safe road. The city carries on a good trade, and has a large, deep, and secure harbour, defended on one side by a large mole, at the extremity of which is a lighthouse, with a little fort, and a garrison for the defence of small vessels, those of larger burthens lying out in the road. On the other side the castle of Montjoui covers the harbour, between which and the city is a line of communication, and upon this is a fort, whereby the entrance of the harbour is flanked and commanded.

Barcelona had its own counts till the year 1162, when it was united to Arragon. In 1640 the inhabitants revolted, and put themselves into the hands of the French; but in 1652 the city was reduced by the Spaniards. In 1691 and 1697 it was besieged and taken by the French, under the duke of Vendosme; but the same year was restored to the Spaniards by the treaty of Ryfwic. The French possessing themselves of this city and the rest of the Spanish monarchy in 1700, king Charles III. afterwards emperor of Germany, by the title of Charles VI. took it on the fourth of October, 1705, sword in hand, after a siege of only three weeks, with a handful of men, not much more numerous than the garrison which defended the place. In April 1706, Philip, duke of Anjou, and marshal Tessé, invested it with a large train of brass artillery, and a numerous army; but the city, animated by the presence of king Charles, held out thirty-five days, till relieved by lord Peterborough and Sir John Leake, who coming up with the English fleet, the French and Spaniards raised the siege with great precipitation, leaving behind them all their cannon, ammunition, tents, baggage, and wounded men. The city remained in the possession of Charles III. till the year 1712, when his brother Joseph dying, he became emperor; and the citizens erecting themselves into a sort of commonwealth, set up for an independent state; but in 1714, after holding out a long siege against the duke of Berwick, the inhabitants were obliged to submit to Philip V. and still continue in subjection to the crown of Spain.

The neighbouring country abounds with wheat and other grain, oil, rich wines, fruit of all sorts, wood, cattle, fowl, plenty of wild game, and honey. It is well watered, and thick set with villages. They have silk and woollen manufactures, and excel in iron and steel works.

Rosas, or Rosas, a town of Catalonia, considerable for its strength, trade, and commodious harbour, is situated on a bay of the same name on the Mediterranean, about sixty-two miles to the north-east of Barcelona. It was in a declining condition till Charles V. rebuilt, fortified, and peopled it; since which time it has flourished very much, especially under the French, who, from its vicinity to them, have often made themselves masters of it; but have always been obliged to give it up at the

conclusion

conclusion of a peace. This was the only place in all Catalonia that held out for king Philip V. during queen Anne's wars, while all the rest of the province had submitted to Charles III.

Gerona, antiently Gerunda, is an old fortified city, standing on an acclivity adjoining to the Onhar, which at a small distance falls into the Ter. It is an earldom, and a place of considerable trade; yet the revenue of its bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Tarragona, is only three thousand ducats a year, and its university makes no great figure. The large jurisdiction, of which this is the capital, is reckoned the most fertile tract in all Catalonia. In 1694 this city was taken by the French; in 1697 by the Spaniards; in 1705 by the forces of Charles III. and in the year 1711 was again taken by the French.

S E C T. VII.

Of the Kingdom or Province of Arragon; its Situation, Extent, Rivers, Produce, History, and principal Cities; with a more particular Description of Saragossa.

THE kingdom of Arragon is bounded on the north by the Pyrenean mountains; on the east by Catalonia; on the south by Valencia; and on the west by Navarre and Castile. Its extent from north to south is upwards of a hundred and sixty miles, and from east to west above a hundred and four. The river Ebro crosses the country from the north-west to the south-east, dividing it into two almost equal parts. Into it the following rivers discharge themselves: on the north side the rapid Cinga, or Cinca, which rises in the mountains of Bielsa; the Callego, the antient Gallicus, which issues from Mount Gavas; the Isuela; and several other smaller streams. From the south it receives the Xalon, or Salo, which comes from New Castile, and the still smaller streams of Guadalaviar and Alhambra, all of them having plenty of good fish. The Torio, or Turio, fertilizes a great part of the country by its slow and gentle course, which gives the husbandmen and gardeners an opportunity of cutting channels from it to water their grounds, which are much admired for their continual verdure and fertility. In short, Arragon, both on these accounts and the serenity of its air, has been compared to Egypt; but this account of its fertility, given by some authors, seems exaggerated, for it is only true of particular spots; and Dr. Busching observes, that, with all these rivers, the greatest part of Arragon is dry and barren, and some places even uninhabited: the soil is for the most part sandy, mountainous, and stony; so that where the rivers do not come, or where water is not conveyed by art, it produces nothing. In those parts, however, which are watered are corn, wine, oil, flax, fruit, and in some places also saffron, which make up the whole riches of the country.

Arragon had formerly its own laws and privileges, some of which were so considerable, that they had even a supreme magistrate called the justica, or mayor of Arragon, whose office was to check the power of the sovereign in behalf of the subjects; so that appeals lay to him from the other courts, and even from the king himself. Ennecus, surnamed Arista, from his love of fighting, who had been elected king of Navarre by the vote of the people, was the first chosen into this office. They had besides by a special contract made with their first king, and sworn to by all his successors, this farther privilege, that if any of those monarchs should infringe their liberties, they might lawfully take up arms against them. Peter, one of the kings of Arragon, was the first who prevailed on their cortes, or parliaments, to abolish this privilege, and accept of some others. At length Philip II. of Spain, the son of the emperor Charles V. being enraged at the Arragonians for defending Anthony Perez, his secretary, sent an army against them; and having defeated and deprived them of all their privileges and liberties, reduced them to the level of the meanest province. Dr. Busching, however, gives a different account of that affair, and says, that the inhabitants of Ar-

ragon having, in the year 1605, espoused the party of the archduke Charles III. Philip V. annulled all their privileges, and rendered them subject to the laws of Castile, by which the revenues of the crown from that kingdom were considerably encreased.

The natives of Arragon are generally courteous, well-bred, ingenious, generous, well versed in military affairs, courageous, strict observers of their laws; but bigotted in religion, and positive in their opinions.

Arragon is divided into seven dioceses, namely, an archbishopric and six episcopal sees. It has ten cities, two famous universities, several considerable abbeys, besides monasteries, nunneries, hospitals, &c.

Saragoza, or Saragossa, the capital of this country, stands in a very fertile plain on the Ebro, by whose windings the neighbouring country is rendered so fertile, that it produces a variety of fruits in great abundance. It is surrounded with walls, which, though antique, are strong and beautiful, being adorned with several stately towers, and four noble gates facing the four cardinal points. It is said to have been built by the famous king Juba, and afterwards beautified by Augustus, while he was carrying on the war against the Cantabrians. It is of an oblong figure, and has two strong and stately bridges over the Ebro. The city is large and handsome, the streets long and broad, but ill paved and very dirty. The handsomest and broadest is the Calle Santa, or Calle de Cosío, which is the usual airing-place of the quality. It has a multitude of magnificent buildings, as churches, palaces, squares, market-places, and hospitals.

The number of inhabitants amounts to fifteen thousand families, many of them of quality, included within fourteen large parishes, and three others that are smaller. Here are also twenty-three monasteries, some of them large and magnificent, thirteen nunneries, and a noble hospital endowed with a revenue sufficient to maintain eight hundred sick persons, besides two others for orphans, some smaller for decayed people, and a very noble one at a small distance from the city. Here is also an university, which was founded in 1474.

The cathedral is a rich and stately edifice, in which are twelve dignitaries, twenty four canons, thirty-nine minor canons, and seventy beneficed priests. The annual revenue of the archbishop is about forty-five thousand ducats. The tabernacle, or repository of the pix over the high altar, is a magnificent piece of architecture, all of massy silver finely wrought, and weighing six hundred and twelve pounds.

The collegiate church of Our Lady of the Pillar, so called from a pretended miraculous image of the Virgin, is likewise a fine structure. This image is very small; but its crown and robes are almost entirely covered with rich ornaments, and holds a little Jesus in its arms. It stands very high on a pillar of the finest jasper. Whoever attentively views the image, finds his eyes dazzled with the multitude of silver lamps and wax lights continually burning in the chapel, mingled on all sides with the reflection of the gildings, jewels, and golden chandeliers. To this image a vast number of pilgrims annually resort, in order to pay their devotions to the Virgin.

Among the civil buildings is the palace, where the cortes meet, and the exchange, two very magnificent structures; the latter built in the year 1551, and the former much earlier; but greatly beautified since. The royal palace stood at a small distance from the city, and has been given to the fathers of the inquisition.

The city carries on a considerable commerce, and a great number of trades and manufactures both within and without the walls; for it has handsome suburbs, and many fine buildings without the gates, as well as gardens, orchards, and beautiful walks.

Teruel, or Tervela, about eight miles to the south of Saragossa, situated on the banks of the Turio on a pleasant eminence, encompassed with spacious meadows inclosed and sheltered by high and fertile mountains, covered with variety of stately trees, odoriferous plants, and fragrant flowers, which, with a multitude of gardens, orchards, and corn-fields, afford a most delightful prospect. The city is walled, and inhabited by thirteen hundred

dred families, who are divided into eight parishes; besides which there are four monasteries, one nunnery, and a wealthy hospital. It is the see of a bishop, whose revenue amounts to twelve thousand ducats; the cathedral has six dignitaries, and fourteen canons, besides inferior priests.

About forty-five miles to the south-west of Saragossa is Catayud, which is situated at the foot of a pleasant high hill on the banks of the Xalon. Its soil, situation, and air, are inferior to none in Spain in their fertility, pleasantness, and salubrity. The walls are strong, and adorned with many stately towers, and the city populous, it having about three thousand families, divided into thirteen parishes, with eleven monasteries, and four nunneries. The Romans, who gave it the name of Bilbilis, adorned it with several magnificent buildings, and endowed it with many privileges. It was particularly celebrated for being the birth-place of Martial the famed Epigrammatist.

S E C T. VIII.

Of the Kingdom or Province of Valencia; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers; with a particular Description of the Cities of Valencia and Alicant.

VALENCIA is bounded on the west by Murcia and New Castile; on the north by Arragon and Catalonia, already described; and on the east and south by the Mediterranean sea; extending about a hundred and sixty-two miles in length, and sixty-two in breadth; and is the most populous and pleasant country in Spain; for here they enjoy an almost perpetual spring. The country, besides its extraordinary fertility in wine and fruits, produces also rice, flax, hemp, silk, honey, and sugar; and if the surface of its mountains is less fruitful, this is well compensated by the minerals within.

All its rivers run to the east or south-east into the Mediterranean: these are the Segura; the Xucar; the Guadalaviar, which receives its source in the confines of Arragon and New Castile; its banks are delightfully bordered with woods and flowers, and it loses itself in the sea below Valencia: the others are the Morviedro and the Millares.

Valencia, the capital of the province, stands on the shady banks of the river Guadalaviar, over which it has five stately bridges, in the forty-first degree thirty-six minutes latitude, and nearly under the meridian of London. It seems to have been originally built by the Romans; but was destroyed by Pompey, and a little after rebuilt by Cæsar, and called Colonia Julia Valencia. It stands opposite to the place where the famous city of Saguntum formerly stood, on the other side of the river. Its present form is almost circular; it is about six thousand four hundred and forty paces in circuit, and is surrounded by a strong wall, which has many lofty towers, and thirteen gates. Grao, its sea-port, which stands on the Mediterranean, furnishes it with every thing either for convenience or delight, particularly with a great variety of sea-fish, and its neighbouring lake of Albufera with great abundance of water-fowl and fresh-water-fish; as does the fertile country round it with corn, wine, oil, fruit, herbs, and other provisions. Mulberry-trees are planted in rows in all the fields, and so industrious are the inhabitants in its neighbourhood, that the ground never lies fallow. The city is said to contain fifteen thousand families, fourteen parish-churches, forty-eight monasteries and nunneries, besides other foundations of the military order, six chapels, six hospitals, and twenty fraternities, which every year give portions to a hundred and thirty poor maidens on their marriage. Here is also an university, with five colleges.

Valencia is the see of an archbishop, whose revenue amounts to forty thousand ducats a year. The cathedral has seven dignitaries, twenty-four canons, besides minor canons, and other inferior priests. Among other valuable treasures in this structure is a chalice of a rich kind of agate, which they ridiculously pretend to be the same our

Saviour used at his last supper. They also give out, that they have two of the thirty pieces which Judas received from the Sanhedrim as the reward for betraying his Divine Master; they are of silver, and weigh about fifteenpence of our money. Nothing can be more magnificent than their grand procession on Corpus Christi day, when these are carried with the utmost pomp and devotion.

Here is also a sovereign court of judicature, a court of inquisition, and an exchange. The city is plentifully supplied with water, not only from the river, but from a vast number of deep wells dug almost in every house, and some compute that those within and without the walls amount to thirty thousand. There is here also an extraordinary common sewer, said to be a Roman work, by which the soil of every house is carried off under ground. Upon these accounts it is reckoned one of the healthiest and most pleasant places in Europe.

The city is enriched by the vast number of quality and gentry who reside in it, and its great commerce; there is a variety of manufactures carried on here, especially the woollen, the cloth made in this city being reputed the finest in all Spain. The silk manufactures likewise flourish here: the inhabitants also export large quantities of wine, oil, and fruit. In the markets of Valencia, and all over Spain, they cut their poultry into pieces, and sell them by quarters. Here they make large vessels of goats skins, for putting their oil and wine into.

The government of the city is by six jurats, or consuls; there is also a judge for criminal causes, with an advocate to assist him, and a lieutenant-criminal; a mustafa, who has the care of all provisions, corn, weights, measures, &c. and a judge for civil causes.

In the year 1705, when all Catalonia had submitted to Charles of Austria, the nominal king of Spain, this city likewise opened her gates to the earl of Peterborough and the English forces. Though after the unfortunate battle of Almanza, in 1707, the duke of Orleans, who commanded the Spanish troops for Philip of Anjou, recovered it; after which the inhabitants were severely punished by that prince for their forwardness in revolting, and stripped of the greatest part of their ancient privileges, which they had preserved with the utmost bravery.

Alicant is situated sixty miles to the south of Valencia, and at the same distance north of Carthage, in the thirty-eighth degree thirty-seven minutes north latitude, and in about five minutes west longitude: this is a celebrated city and sea-port on the Mediterranean, delightfully seated between two hills. It is well walled and defended by a castle built on a high rock. On the neighbouring shore stand several watch-towers, from which the vessels of the Sallee rovers are observed. It is a place of considerable trade, on account of its commodious harbour, and is well known to the English, especially for its wines and fruit, which they used to bring from thence; as well as from their landing some of their forces here in the reign of queen Anne, when the succession to the crown of Spain was contested between Charles of Austria and Philip of Anjou. The city then contained about seventeen hundred families, two parish-churches, one of which is collegiate, with six monasteries, two nunneries, and three handsome market-places; besides hospitals, chapels, &c. The English made themselves masters both of the city and castle in the year 1705, and held them till the peace of Utrecht in 1713, when they returned to Philip of Bourbon, styled Philip V. of Spain.

About half a league from the city is a famous convent of nuns, to which there is a great resort of pilgrims, in order to pay their devotions to the impression of the holy face, said to have been imprinted thrice on a napkin with which Veronica wiped the face of our Saviour, when he was going to his crucifixion. Among these votaries are many seamen, who on their leaving Alicant frequently make a vow of performing their devotions here upon their safe return, which they do bare-footed. This picture of our Saviour's face, said to be represented in so miraculous a manner on a piece of white linen, we are told is a wretched piece of dawbing.

S E C T. IX.

Of the Kingdoms or Provinces of Murcia and Granada; their Situation, Extent, Rivers, Produce, and principal Cities.

THE kingdom or province of Murcia is bounded on the north by New Castile, on the east by the kingdom of Valencia, on the west by Andalusia and Granada, and on the south by the Mediterranean sea, extending about sixty-two miles in length, and fifty-eight in breadth.

The principal river is the Segura, which receives its source in New Castile, and running from west to east traverses this country and that of Valencia.

The air of this province is pure and healthy, and the country produces corn and wine, which are both good; but as the country is very mountainous, and the soil dry, from its having but little rain, its products are but in small quantities. It, however, abounds in fine fruits, as oranges and lemons, and also with sugar, honey, and silk. The principal places in this province are,

Murcia, the capital of the kingdom, which is seated in a pleasant plain on the river Segura, in the thirty-eighth degree twelve minutes north latitude, and in one degree fourteen minutes west longitude, and is pretty large and populous, with large handsome streets. It is walled round, and has twelve gates. It contains six parish-churches, and a superb cathedral, which has a steeple so contrived that a man may ride up to the top, either on horseback or in a coach. It is the see of a bishop, who has a revenue of twenty thousand ducats. Round the city are fine gardens, which abound with excellent fruit.

Carthagená, or Little Carthage, is a pretty good city, standing on the side of a hill, by a fine bay of the Mediterranean, at the mouth of the river Guadalquivir, in the thirty-seventh degree forty minutes north latitude, and in one degree five minutes west longitude. It has one of the best harbours in the kingdom: the small island Escombrada so shelters it from storms, that vessels moor here in the utmost safety: it has plenty of fresh-water, and abounds with mackerel. The air is here so temperate in summer, and mild in winter, that the trees have leaves, blossoms, and fruit at the same time; and even roses blow here at Christmas. The adjacent country produces a great deal of sedge, and in the bowels of the earth are found amethysts, garnets, agates, and other gems. This city is the see of a bishop, who enjoys a revenue of twenty-four thousand ducats, and is suffragan to the archbishop of Toledo. It contains about twelve hundred inhabitants, and has four monasteries and a nunnery: it lies twenty-six miles to the south of the city of Murcia.

The kingdom of Granada, sometimes called Upper Andalusia, is bounded on the east by the kingdom of Murcia, on the south by the Mediterranean sea, and on the north and west by Andalusia. It is about a hundred and seventy-five miles in length, and seventy-five in breadth.

The principal rivers are the Xenil, which rises near the city of Granada, and passing through Andalusia, falls into the Guadalquivir; and the Guadalquivir, which also rises in this province, and, after traversing Murcia, runs into the Mediterranean. There are also a great number of smaller rivers.

The country is very mountainous, particularly towards the sea; but is interspersed with delightful valleys. The Las Alpuxarras are mountains of a prodigious height, inhabited by a Moorish race who have embraced the Romish religion; but still retain their national customs and manner of living, and their language is a mixture of Arabic and Spanish. They are divided into eleven districts.

The air in this country is temperate and healthy, and in general it is very fruitful, and produces corn, wine, oil, sugar, flax, hemp, and fine fruit, as pomegranates, citrons, oranges, lemons, olives, figs, grapes, and almonds. There are prepared here two kinds of raisins,

those dried by the sun on the branches of the vines, and others which are dipped in the lye made of the ashes of the burnt branches, and afterwards dried in the sun. Here is also great plenty of honey and wax. Several places in the mountains near Antequera make salt, which the sun prepares from water conveyed into pans. The cultivation of silk is here also very considerable. The country likewise produces plenty of dates, of which great advantage is made, and even of the very acorns, which are said to exceed the finest nuts: and of the galls, which are found in this country in vast quantities, a dye is made for leather. Great quantities of sumach, for preparing goat and chamois skins, are likewise exported from hence. Besides good stone for building, the earth affords hyacinths, garnets, and other gems.

In the time of the Moors, Granada was the most populous and best cultivated province in Spain; but through the contempt which the Spaniards entertain for agriculture, things are much altered; however, Spain has not any tract of land so well inhabited as the mountains of Las Alpuxarras, which, besides the many towns and villages interspersed among them, are wonderfully improved by the industry of the inhabitants, who turn their vineyards and plantations to a very good account. The sea-coast, for its protection against the African corsairs, is lined with high towers, which command an extensive prospect over the sea, from the strait of Gibraltar to the Rio Freyo, or the Cold River.

This province became a distinct kingdom in the thirteenth century, when the Moorish king Abenhud, who resided at Cordova, losing his life and crown in a battle against the Christians in 1236, his subjects and followers betook themselves to Granada, and chose a new king, who made the city of that name his capital and place of residence. This kingdom, which was the last of the Moorish, then contained thirty-two large towns and ninety-seven smaller, and continued from the year 1236 to 1492, when Ferdinand the Catholic reduced it, and annexed it to the crown of Castile.

The city of Granada, the capital of the province, stands at the foot of a most noble ridge of barren mountains and rocks, which stretch round on each side in such a manner as to embrace a lovely plain, varied with plantations, gardens, and villages. It is seated by the river Xenil, into which the Darro falls after watering a part of the city, in thirty-seven degrees twenty-eight minutes north latitude, and in three degrees fifty-one minutes west longitude. It is fortified with walls and towers, and is the see of an archbishop, who has forty thousand ducats a year. The city is divided into four wards, the principal of which, called Granada, lies in the plain, and in the valleys between two mountains; and here the nobility, clergy, merchants, and most wealthy citizens reside. Its public and private buildings are very handsome. In the cathedral lie buried several kings, as Ferdinand the Catholic, and Philip I. with their queens. The king's tribunal is held in a large and stately edifice, and opposite to it is the Alcaxeria, a vast building, in which the merchants have their ware-houses. In the great square are held the bull-fights. The university here was founded in 1531, and the city has also a court of inquisition.

The Moorish palace, called Al-Hambra, is built on a high hill that over-looks the city and the valley, and contains many grand apartments, all in the Moorish stile, with alcoves, domes, fountains, Arabic inscriptions, &c. besides which there is a part built by Charles V. but not finished. The front is handsome, and the apartments built round a very beautiful circular court, with thirty-two fine marble pillars below, and as many in a gallery above. Not far from it is a delicious garden of the Moorish kings, with all kinds of trees flourishing upon a steep hanging rock, and as much water as supplies a number of jets d'eau and fountains.

When Ferdinand the Catholic made himself master of this city, the short method taken by cardinal Ximenes, for the conversion of the Moors, was, that they should either be baptized, or be put to death. The present inhabitants consist of the descendants of the antient Moors, and of old Spanish Christians as they are termed.

Malaga

Malaga is an antient fortified sea-port, in thirty-six degrees fifty-one minutes north latitude, and in four degrees fifty-six minutes west longitude, two hundred and sixty miles to the south of Madrid, and seventy-five to the south-west of Granada. It stands at the foot of a steep mountain, and has one of the best roads on all the coast, with a fine moat running into it five hundred and thirty paces long, and twenty broad, with stairs for taking water, and several pillars of jasper to fasten ships to, as also a chapel upon it for sea-faring people. The city is handsomely built and populous, it being defended by two castles, one on the top, and the other at the foot of the mountain. It is large, and of a circular form, surrounded with a double wall, strengthened by stately towers, and has nine gates. On one side the sea washes its walls, and on the other runs the little river Guadalquivirejo, over which there is a handsome bridge. It is the see of a bishop, whose revenue amounts to twenty thousand ducats a year. The grounds all round being covered with vines and the greatest variety of fruit, it yields a very beautiful prospect both from the land and sea. Their wines, raisins, oranges, lemons, almonds, figs, and other fruit are well known, from the large quantities imported to England, besides those sent into other parts of Europe; so that the duties paid to the king are computed to yield annually eight hundred thousand ducats.

This place was in the possession of the Moors seven hundred and seventy-three years, when king Ferdinand took it from them in 1487, after a bloody and obstinate siege of three months. Off Cape Malaga, near this city, the English and Dutch, under Sir George Rooke, obtained a signal victory over the French fleet, commanded by the count de Thoulouse, in August, 1704. This defeat would have been more complete, had not the English just before exhausted most of their ammunition in the taking of Gibraltar, and the Dutch sent part of their squadron to convoy their merchantmen home.

S E C T. X.

Of the Kingdom or Province of New Castile; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Rivers; with a particular Description of Madrid, and the Escorial.

CASTILE is the principal and most opulent kingdom in Spain, and is generally divided into the Old and New; the former being recovered from the Moors some time before the latter. New Castile, of which in regard to the order of situation we shall first treat, is by some called also the kingdom of Toledo, it being the center of the monarchy, and the residence of the king. It is divided on the north by a chain of mountains from Old Castile, and a like chain also divides it to the eastward from Arragon and Valencia, and this side also borders upon Murcia; to the south it is likewise separated by a chain of mountains from Andalusia; and to the westward is bounded by Estremadura. Its greatest extent from east to west is a hundred and eighty-four miles, and from north to south two hundred.

This province has a good air, and is very fertile. The rivers Tagus, Guadiana, and Guadalquivir have their sources in this province. The other most considerable rivers are the Xucar, which runs through Valencia into the Mediterranean; the Xarama, which rises in the mountains of Atiença, and, after receiving the Henares and Tajuna, unites with the Tagus. The Guadarama has its spring head in the mountains of Toledo, and running from north to south through the country falls into the Tagus a little below Toledo. The principal places in this province are the following:

Madrid, the metropolis of all Spain, and the residence of the king, is situated in forty degrees thirty minutes latitude, and in four degrees fifteen minutes west longitude, and stands upon a chain of little hills that are in the center of a large plain, terminated on all sides by lofty mountains, whose summits are always covered with snow. West of the city, where it has neither walls nor moats, it is watered by the Manzanares, which swells in winter by the melting of the snow; but for the greatest part of

the year, particularly in summer, is naturally shallow. King Philip II. however, erected over it a stately stone bridge eleven hundred paces in length, and to the extent of seven hundred it is twenty-two broad. On the south side of the city is a much finer bridge over this little river built by Philip V. called the bridge of Toledo.

The city is large, and contains fifteen thousand inhabitants. It has four hundred streets, a few of them wide and straight, but the rest long, narrow, and so excessive dirty, that, according to some authors, the stench may be smelt at above the distance of a mile. The houses are most of them lofty, regular, and spacious, but partake in some degree of the nauseousness of the streets; they are built of brick, and the best of them with lattice windows, mostly of canvas, or some slight oil-cloth. The rich indeed have them glazed; but take the sashes down during the heat of summer, and put up others in their stead, covered with gauze, or other thin stuff, to let in the air. They in general, however, look more like prisons than the habitations of people at liberty; the windows besides having a balcony, which takes off much of their beauty, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and sometimes all the rest. A house is generally inhabited by many separate families, who are, notwithstanding, for the most part, strangers to each other.

The city has fourteen squares, among which the large market-place, called the Place Mayor, would be a very fine one were it kept clean, it being four hundred and thirty-six feet one way, and three hundred and thirty one the other; but it is commonly filled with small stalls and provisions. As public shews are exhibited here on extraordinary occasions, the houses that surround it, which are exactly uniform, and five stories high, have balconies and galleries to each story, for the convenience of the spectators; and, as they amount to the number of a hundred and thirty-six, are capable of containing fifty thousand people with ease, they being throughout supported by an arched cloister like that of Covent-Garden, with open walks underneath for sheltering the people from the sun and rain. The houses of the nobility have no courts before them, but stand even with the street; these, with those of the gentry, amount to twelve thousand, all of them spacious and beautiful; those of the grandees are generally built with stone, and adorned within with expensive furniture.

The other principal squares in Madrid are the Sun-market, della Sabada, and that of St. Domingo. The king's palace stands on an eminence on the west side of the city, commanding a delightful prospect of the river Manzanares and the country beyond it; it was burnt down in 1734, but has been since rebuilt with greater magnificence.

Among the other buildings the imperial college of Jesuits is a very noble structure. Some of the convents are fine, particularly that of Atoche, or Our Lady of the Bush; in the church belonging to which they sing Te Deum upon victories and other public occasions. The convent of the Salesas is likewise a new and noble structure.

In this city are the colleges in which are managed the affairs of the government, and also the courts of justice. There are here likewise three academies, one instituted for the improvement of eloquence and the Spanish tongue, another for history, and a third for physic.

Provisions of all kinds are here both excellent and reasonable, and the residence of the court in this city causes a brisk trade and circulation of money: yet foreigners are very much distressed for lodging at Madrid, there being only one tolerable inn, which is the Golden Fountain; and the Spaniards are not fond of taking any strangers into their houses, especially if they are not Catholics. There is no such thing as either a tavern or coffee-house in the whole city, and they have only one news paper, which is the Madrid Gazette. Their places of diversion are the amphitheatre, built for the exhibition of the bull-feast, as it is called by the Spaniards, which has been already described, and the two theatres of *la Cruz* and *del Principe*. The noise by the itinerant bodies of psalm-singers in the evening is very disagreeable; the frequent processions, particularly those of the host, are troublesome; especially

at Easter, when the sight of those bloody disciplinants, the Flagellantes, is extremely shocking. In short, there is no passing the streets of Madrid commodiously without a vehicle; for as they practise, says Mr. Clarke, the Edinburgh custom of manuring the streets by night, they would be too offensive to your feet, as well as your nose, without a chariot by day.

Madrid is governed by a principal officer called the *corregidor*, who is something like our lord mayor, tho' he is not chosen by the city, but by the king, and is not a merchant or tradesman, but a gentleman well versed in the law. He acts as a superior judge, and has under him forty-one *regidores*, not unlike our aldermen, who compose his council, acting as inferior magistrates under him.

At the end of the city is a famous place for airing and recreation, called the Prado or Pardo de St. Hieronymo, a delightful plain shaded by rows of poplar-trees, and adorned with twenty-three fountains, from which it is sprinkled every evening when the nobility and gentry repair thither in their coaches, or on horseback.

At the extremity of the Prado is the palace called Buen Retiro, or the Good Retreat. This, Mr. Clarke observes, is a very indifferent quadrangle, and is not so good a royal mansion as St. James's. It was designed as a place of retreat for the king, from the hurry of the court and town. It, however, contains a great number of stately rooms and noble apartments, adorned with the most costly furniture and paintings, executed by the greatest masters; but it is only built of brick. The gardens are said to be a perfect paradise, and abound with the most delightful shady walks, water-works, and the most curious productions of art and nature; among the former is an equestrian statue of king Philip IV. very finely executed in bronze, standing on a marble pedestal. On the canals are pleasure-boats, and some summer-houses, in which the musicians play, while the king amuses himself on the water. At the entrance of the outer-court are the king's stables, in which are a great number of horses and mules. Contiguous to these is the armoury, a spacious handsome room filled with curious suits of armour formerly worn by the kings of Spain. The outer-court of the palace just mentioned is a large square, with cloisters on both sides, the stables and armoury fronting the palace.

Casa del Campo is a royal seat standing on the other side of the river, to the west of the city, directly facing the king's town-palace, and was a very delightful place with a fine park, but is now much neglected. Florida is another royal pleasure-house, seated near the former in an enchanting situation.

The palace of Aranjuez, about thirty miles from Madrid, has a fine front, and is agreeably situated in a pleasant vale at the confluence of two rivers, the Xarama and the Tagus. Though the gardens are only a dead flat, and the walks plantations of trees in straight rows; yet there is something chearful and refreshing in this cool and shady spot.

St. Ildephonso is a palace about sixty miles from Madrid, in a delightful lonely country; part of it is also a convent. The building is not grand, nor in a good taste; but the gardens are very fine, and the fountains the noblest in Europe. The gardens are said to have cost five millions sterling. Here king Philip V. retired on his resignation of the crown in the year 1724, and caused the relics of some saints, which were highly revered, to be brought from the Escorial into this chapel.

We now come to the palace, or convent, of the Escorial, so called from the village in which it stands, which is situated seven leagues to the north of Madrid. Philip II. the founder of this palace and the convent belonging to it, made a vow at the battle of St. Quintin against the French, on the frontiers of Picardy, to build a convent at the Escorial for monks of the order of St. Jerom, which he preferred from his being obliged to cannonade a convent of Jeromites during the siege of St. Quintin. The battle being gained on St. Laurence's day, he called the convent after the name of that saint; and as he was burnt upon the gridiron, this prince immortalized the very manner of his martyrdom; for he not only stuck gridirons, either of paint, wood, metal, or stone all over the convent, but built the very convent itself in the form

of a gridiron. That part of the building which forms the palace is the handle of this gridiron, and the rest being divided into a great number of square courts, the buildings are so ranged as to form the sides and bars. But in building this structure he gave great disgust to the Spanish cortes: for Philip having assembled them to ask supplies for carrying on the war against France, the states very freely voted a large subsidy of some millions; which the artful monarch, as soon as he had once secured in his own coffers, applied to the building of this convent. This misapplication of the public revenues gave such vexation to the cortes, that they afterwards assembled with more reluctance, being unwilling to be cajoled out of their money by the tricks of designing princes.

This royal monastery of St. Laurence is built on the declivity of a mountain, part of the Segovian chain, which separates the two Castiles. It is of a beautiful white stone, veined with blue and brown, of a very fine polish, and is surrounded with the most delightful prospects. The length of the front from east to west is five hundred and eighty feet, and at each extremity are two ranges of buildings that extend backward four hundred and thirty feet, and then are again joined by another front of the same dimensions as the former; so that it consists of four fronts, and at each angle is a tower. The principal front has three gates, of which that in the middle is supported by four Doric columns of speckled marble on each side, and over them are others of the Ionic order. Above the portal is a beautiful statue of St. Laurence, of white marble, fifteen feet high, dressed in the habit of a deacon, with a book in his left hand, and a large gridiron of bronze in his right. The number of windows in this front is two hundred and forty-seven.

After passing the principal gate you enter a portico that extends from the college to the convent; over it is the library; and in the front are three noble arches leading into a grand court, where the eye is struck with the magnificent frontispiece of St. Laurence's church, on each side of which is a lofty tower, and in the centre a dome. It has five grand arches that form the entrance into the vestibule, and on the lower part of the portal are six large statues, placed on pedestals, of David, Solomon, Hezekiah, Josiah, Manassah, and Jehosaphat, with crowns of gilt bronze on their heads, and sceptres in their hands.

The whole structure is supported by four strong square pillars round the centre of the church, forming four grand arches. Every pillar has two altars, and two niches over them; and in the niches of the pilasters along the walls, on both sides, are altars answerable to the others. Besides these, the whole circuit of the church is surrounded with very elegant chapels, and over these are galleries with brass balustrades extending quite round. The cupola is encompassed by two galleries, and crowned with a lantern, that has eight windows divided by pilasters gradually diminishing to the top, where there is another small dome on the crown of the lantern; and over this a fluted stone obelisk, on the top of which is a globe of gilt brass, with a cross and vane. The doors are nine in number, and over the arches of the principal of these, and on the great altar, are twelve crosses, of a very beautiful red jasper. The altars amount to forty, all of which are richly adorned with carved work, and innumerable paintings, many of them by the greatest masters.

You next view the great chapel, the ascent to which from the church is by twelve steps of red jasper. The pavement of this chapel consists of Mosaic work of jasper and marble of various colours, ranged in the most beautiful compartments. The altar-piece is adorned with all the orders of architecture, except the Tuscan. You first see six Doric columns, in the middle of which the tabernacle is placed, and in the compartments of the other columns are several paintings of sacred history. Their bases and capitals, with those of all the other columns and pilasters behind them, are of brass gilt, and the shafts are of jasper fluted and beautifully polished. At the two extremes are niches, containing the statues of four doctors of the church in gilt brass, which has a fine effect, the jasper of the niches being green. In the spaces on each side of the tabernacle are two pieces of painting, the

the one of the Nativity, and the other of the Eastern Magi worshipping the Infant Jesus.

The second range of columns is of the Ionic order, inlaid with green in the compartments; and in the extreme intercolumniations are niches of green jasper, containing the statues of the four Evangelists, of the same materials and beauty with the former. The principal picture over the tabernacle represents the martyrdom of St. Laurence, by Peregrino; and in the side compartments are our Saviour bound to the pillar, and his carrying the cross, by Zuccaro.

The third range consists of only four columns of the Corinthian order, the extremes of the lower rank being supplied by two pyramids of green jasper, between which are fine brass statues of St. James, the patron of Spain, and St. Andrew, both larger than the life. The history in the middle represents the Assumption of the Virgin, those on the sides are the resurrection, and the descent of the Holy Ghost.

Two columns of the Composite order support the frontispiece, which terminates in the principal arch of the chapel. The compartment is green jasper, in which is a crucifix of brass gilt, with the statues of the Virgin Mary and St. John standing on the sides, and those of St. Peter and St. Paul on the extreme pedestals. The whole height from the pedestal of the Doric order to the centre of the grand arch is ninety-three feet, and the breadth forty-nine. The above tabernacle stands on a pedestal of jasper, within an arched portal, whose pilasters are of red and green jasper. The form is globular, and the order Corinthian. The materials are all gems, and gilt brass. The first pedestal is of jasper finely inlaid. It supports eight jasper columns of a deep red veined with white. In the intercolumniations are four niches, with as many statues of Apostles. Over the cornice is another base, with eight pedestals supporting the like number of statues in gilt brass: it also sustains the cupola, which is divided into four compartments inlaid with jasper. Above is a small lantern crowned with another cupola, and over all is an image of our Saviour of the same metal as those of the Apostles. In the lower part are two doors of rock-crystal leading into the sanctuary, the jambs and lintels of which are of a beautiful green jasper; the other parts consist of jasper of several colours and polished brass. In short, this whole chapel is adorned with the richest Mosaic work, and a great variety of statues and paintings.

The other chapels and all the different parts of this superb church are adorned in the most beautiful manner, columns of jasper, the richest kinds of marble, and most beautiful paintings and statues are every where to be seen.

The convent consists of five beautiful cloisters; and may be entered from the church. The principal cloister is as large as the other four; it extending two hundred and seven feet from east to west, and two hundred and ten feet from north to south. The grand stair-case is forty feet broad; the steps are of the most beautiful stone, each of one piece, and the balustrades of exquisite workmanship. The arcade above is adorned with painting, exhibiting the founder's motives for erecting this edifice, and the whole structure is adorned with the works of the most celebrated Spanish and Italian painters.

In the gallery of the royal apartments are excellent paintings by Bafan; and along the wall are represented two curtains hanging down from the hooks so naturally, that the spectators often endeavour to lift them up. On these curtains are painted the battle fought by Don John II. against the Moors of Granada, in the plains of Higuernala, and the battle of St. Quintin; and at the two extremities are two naval victories gained off the isle of Tercera.

In the south saloon are two doors of inlaid work brought from Germany, extremely beautiful, and the inside is adorned with a number of exquisite paintings. The next is the apartment in which king Philip II. resided, and where he died: here the furniture, ceilings, and walls are plain. It is, however, adorned with small statues of saints, some very beautiful pictures of the Virgin Mary, and other religious pieces. From this apart-

ment is a passage to the queen's, which is of the same construction. The monks here have a higher opinion of Philip II. the founder, than even of St. Laurence and St. Jerom: this indeed is only a decent part of gratitude; for as he thought that, by raising this superb fabric he should atone for all his sins, so he spared no expence to render it complete. It cost during his reign twenty-eight millions of ducats, which is about three millions three hundred and sixty thousand pounds sterling. He lived here chiefly during the last fifteen years of his life; and when he died, ordered himself to be brought out in his bed to the foot of the high altar, that he might die in sight of it; and thus he expired. The place where his bed was placed is since railed off, as sacred. However, some are so superstitious, says Mr. Clarke, as to believe that his unquiet and perturbed spirit still nightly visits his favourite mansion, and stalks horrid round the long arcades and corridors of the Escorial. "For a certain princess, to my knowledge," he adds, gave orders last October, that the guard should "patrole in the night round the cloisters, to see if Philip II's ghost really walked there or not."

There are two libraries in the Escorial, one upon the first floor, and the other upon the second: that upon the first floor is a fine arched room a hundred and ninety-five feet long, thirty-two broad, and thirty-six in height; and the pavement is of black and white marble in beautiful knots. The concave part of the ceiling is finely painted by Pelligrino, exhibiting Divinity, Philosophy, Grammar, Logic, and all the other sciences, surrounded with proper groups of figures. This library contains all the printed books, except some first editions which are kept above. The library above stairs is supposed to be one of the noblest collections of manuscripts in the world, there being eighteen hundred and twenty-four volumes of Arabic manuscripts only; Greek manuscripts in profusion, in folio and quarto, of very great antiquity, yet fair and legible. But all this wealth is deposited in the hands of a few illiterate Jeromites, who are as jealous of these treasures as if they understood their true value.

The last part we shall mention of this superb structure is the Pantheon chapel, the sepulchre of the princes of Spain. The portal is one of the finest pieces, in the composite order, in the world. The principal members are of black marble, regularly veined and spotted with white. In the lesser parts gems, gold, silver, and bronze, unite their lustre. On the sides are two pillars in relievo, with their bases and capitals, besides the jambs and lintels, formed out of one block of marble. Over this is the frieze, and figures to the number of ten, supporting the crown. The pedestals, capitals, &c. are of brass gilt; and before the door is a balustrade of gilt brass, of most beautiful workmanship.

From this portal you descend a stair-case composed of the finest Tortosa jaspers and Toledo marble, beautifully variegated, finely polished, and joined with such art as to appear only one single piece, sixty-four feet in length, consisting of thirty-four steps, divided into three flights, by the like number of landing-places. The balustrades are of beautiful jasper marquetry, with marble mouldings. In the middle hangs a gilt lustre with six cornucopias. At the third landing-place is the Pantheon door, adorned with four pilasters, two of jasper, and two of bronze. The pavement between the pilasters is of polished jasper, and the ceiling represents Jacob's ladder.

Upon entering this august cemetery, you are struck with the beauty of its several parts. The order of its architecture is the composite. Its circumference is one hundred and thirteen feet, and the diameter from wall to wall is something more than thirty-six feet; the height from the pavement to the central stone at the top is thirty-eight feet, and its figure is perfectly circular. The pavement represents the figure of a star, the rays of which are formed of innumerable gems, jaspers and different kinds of marble, with a fleuron in the center, glittering with gems. The whole is surrounded with a beautiful pedestal or base, on which stands sixteen fluted Corinthian pilasters of jasper, the bases and capitals of gilt bronze. The sarcophagi or coffins are placed in niches all

all round the Pantheon; and the marble of which they are made, is remarkable for the fineness of the grain, the beauty of the colour, and the ornaments bestowed on them.

The ring in the ceiling, in the middle of which is the key-stone, forms a splendid fleuron, eighteen feet in circumference, and is of brass gilt, and the design and workmanship very fine. From this fleuron hangs a large iron-rod, to which is fastened a large gilt lustre of beautiful workmanship. At the lower end are the four evangelists in demi-relievo; over these are twenty-four cornucopias, along the edges of which are cherubins; and above these eight angels holding flambeaus; and the other eight are fixed to the heads of as many seraphs. It is every where embellished with festoons, &c. and surmounted by a splendid crown. When the tapers in these cornucopias, the flambeaus held by the angels, and the candles on the altar are lighted, no words can express its grandeur.

On the right-hand, going out of the Pantheon, a door opens into a vault which may be called the secondary Pantheon, where those of the royal family who are not entitled to a place in the principal structure are interred. On every side are three rows of niches, to the number of fifty-one, for the coffins; and on the wall next the door is an altar-piece, in which is a good copy of Christ on the cross, from Titian. Leaving this monastery, we proceed to

Toledo, an ancient fortified city, situated in the fifty-ninth degree forty-six minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree twenty minutes west longitude, and stands on a steep and craggy rock, encompassed by the Tagus, in the form of a horse-shoe, over which it has two stately bridges. The land-side is fortified by a double wall, in which are one hundred and fifty towers, and five large gates, besides posterns. It was formerly esteemed a place of strength; but in the last wars about the succession, it always submitted to those who were masters of the field. The plain around the city is spacious, fertile, pleasant, and so well watered by the Tagus, that it produces corn, wine, oil, fruit, and in short every thing that can contribute to the convenience and delight of man. The air is particularly serene and healthy, and there is plenty of provisions, which are very cheap. Here reside many noble families, besides gentry, learned and religious persons, merchants, trades-people, and artificers, especially in the silk and woollen manufactures, which two branches alone are said to have employed ten thousand hands; but at present they are much declined.

The city is divided into twenty-three wards, and has twenty-seven parishes, about twenty chapels, thirty-eight monasteries and nunneries, four grand houses of retirement for women, two large colleges, and twenty-five hospitals, one of them for lunatics.

The streets are narrow and steep; but there are no less than seven squares or market-places. There is here a magnificent and spacious old palace taken from the Moors, the stables of which can hold at least five hundred horses.

The cathedral is a large Gothic structure, rich in carving, but the building is neither light, nor in a good taste. It is three hundred and eighty-four feet long, one hundred and ninety-one broad, and one hundred and seven high, all of white stone. The roof is supported by eighty-eight lofty pillars, which divide it into five lesser, the middlemost of which is very handsome, it being divided into two choirs neatly carved and inlaid. One of them is called the chapel of the Blessed Sacrament, and is the burying-place of many of the Spanish monarchs. It is enclosed with costly iron-grates on bases of jasper; and on each side stands a brass pulpit on pillars of the same metal. The other choir belongs to the canons, closed in after the same manner, and beautified with carvings in wood and jasper. All the outside of the two choirs is adorned with statues in niches, and other sculpture representing the history of the Old and New Testament. There are in this structure thirty-four chapels, and the entrance into it is by eight large brass gates, with magnificent porticos; and above is a lofty tower with a ring of bells of a prodigious size. The treasury is of an inestimable value; the vestments for the priests,

and the utensils, are of the richest materials and finest workmanship. The image of the Virgin Mary here has a garment covered with pearls; and the paintings in this structure are answerable to the rest. The ceiling of the vestry is painted by Luca Giordano, and is indeed fine and well preserved. The custodia, jewels, and precious stones, are inconceivable, as well as inestimable: altars, with steps to them of massive silver, gilt; the figures of the four quarters of the world, each adorned with the precious stones peculiar to its own quarter, and sitting on globes of two feet diameter, the globe resting on a pedestal, and that on a base; the figure, globe, pedestal and base, being all together ten feet, and said to be all of massive silver, were the gift of Charles II's queen. In short this is one of the richest cathedrals in the universe, and the archbishopric, both in power and revenue, the greatest next to that of Rome; so that the late queen of Spain obtained it from the pope for one of her sons, though a minor. The lands for the repairs of the church are said to bring in annually thirty thousand ducats, and for the dignatories and canons two hundred thousand more. The whole number of persons belonging to the cathedral, is said to amount to six hundred.

The remains of the alcazar, or palace built by Charles V. or according to others, by the archduke Charles, appear very noble; but it was burnt by the allies and Austrian party in the partition or succession war, lest it should fall into the hands of Philip V.

There is also a very great curiosity at Toledo, which is an original Hebrew temple, and is a fine piece of antiquity; but the piety of the Spaniards in converting this temple from Judaism to Popery, has taken away much matter of entertainment to the antiquarians. The ancient divisions have been all taken down; the holy of holies, and even the tabernacle itself, have been literally done away. The walls, it has since been found, were covered with the Psalms in Hebrew characters; but the Spaniards had zealously plastered them over; but a gentleman of parts and learning, who is canon and treasurer of the church, has lately caused the plaster to be carefully removed. There are also the remains of a Roman circus and amphitheatre.

The Castilian language is spoken here in its utmost purity. One of the greatest inconveniences of this city is, the inhabitants having no water but what is brought from the Tagus, or saved from the eaves of their houses, when it rains. There is here a remarkable common sewer, which is said to run under every house, to carry off all the soil into the river. Besides the above structures, there is here an university founded in the year 1475, and a court of inquisition. The city is populous, and carries on a great trade in fine sword-blades, wool, silk, and stuffs.

S E C T. XI.

Of the Kingdom or Province of Old Castile; its Situation, Extent, Rivers, and Produce; with a Description of Avila, Segovia, Valladolid, and Burgos.

OLD Castile is bounded on the north by the Asturias and Biscay; on the east by Navarre and Arragon; on the south by New Castile; and on the west by Leon. Its figure is very irregular, and consequently its dimensions extremely different; however, its greatest length from Valladolid to Tarragona, is about one hundred and twelve English miles, and its greatest breadth about one hundred and eighty.

Its principal rivers are the Duero and Ebro, the first of which is joined by the Atayada, the Andaja, the Arebarillo, and the Pisuerga, which also receives the Arlanza and Arlançon. The sources of all these rivers are in this province, which is mountainous and less fertile than New Castile. The most fruitful part is a tract called la Tierro de Campos, which lies to the north, near Medina de Prio Seco. The wine produced here is excellent; the plains are covered with cattle, particularly with sheep, which yield the best wool in all Spain. It was formerly only a country subject to the kings of Leon;

but in 1016 was erected into a kingdom. The most remarkable places in this province are the following:

Avila, or Avila del Rey, forty miles to the east of Salamanca, is an ancient city, seated on a fine plain environed with mountains, and producing excellent grapes and other fine fruits; it is surrounded with a wall, on which are eighty-six towers, and ten gates. It has nine parish churches, as many monasteries, seven nunneries, eighteen chapels, two colleges, nine hospitals, and an annual charitable donation of ten thousand ducats given by the city, for maintaining poor orphans and other needy persons. The royal castle stands on a rock, and is provided with a garrison and artillery.

The city of Segovia is of great antiquity, and still a considerable place. It stands high between two hills, and is large, populous, and handsome. It has excellent manufactures of cloth and paper, and also exports a very fine sort of wool. The number of families in this city, amount to at least four thousand. It has twenty-seven parish churches, thirteen monasteries, eight nunneries, five hospitals, three chapels, seven squares, and forty-three streets of the first rank, beside a great number of lanes.

The cathedral is a noble structure, in the Gothic style of architecture, and has two choirs, as it were surrounded by a most ample basilica, which is lined on the wall-side with a vast variety of fine altars, and rich shrines. The painted glass is good, and gives a dim religious light. The sacristy is a fine room, and contains some paintings. There is an old cloyster adjoining to the cathedral, in which are hung up some hundreds of vestments, the badges of so many unhappy Jews, who had the misfortune to be burnt, because they did not believe all that the inquisitor did. The inquisition, or the holy office, as it is called, was then at Segovia, but has been since removed. In this cathedral is a grant of queen Urraca, which mentions the Alcazar, or royal palace; and, according to the Rev. Mr. Clarke, is concluded in the following impious manner: "Whosoever shall violate this grant, let them be ever banished from God's throne, and be eternally tormented with Dathan and Abiram, whom the earth swallowed; be damned with the traitor Judas, and pay a thousand pounds of unalloyed gold to the bishop."

There are several fine churches besides the cathedral; that of St. Milan is very old. The arches of this church are all round and large; and the pillars, which are lofty, have carved capitals, containing many figures both of men and animals; some with beautiful foliage: the shafts are round and plain, placed upon square bases extremely large. At the entrance is a sort of alcade, with beautiful small columns of black marble, and the pillars joined to one another by a sort of spiral line.

The church of St. John the Baptist is said to be the oldest in the city, it being built in 923. It consists of three naves, all round arches of the old Gothic, and here the archives of the city are kept in a handsome chest. The cornice is composed of the heads of animals, the capitals of the pillars carved with animals and human figures, and the windows are small, long, and narrow.

The Alcazar, or royal palace, is supposed by Mr. Clarke to have been built in the eighth century. The front is about fifty feet long: there are two conic turrets at each wing; and the façade is adorned with several diminutive turrets in the same style; above the skilling or span-roof of the first front, there rises another skilling-roof adorned with turrets in the same style; and between the wings in the middle rises a lofty square brick tower, surrounded with small circular turrets ending in a console. Along the front of the first building runs a neat, small, open gallery, just under the cornice. The whole of the fabric appears to be in the old Moorish style, and is extremely pretty and light. You go to it through a sort of a court, over a small bridge; it being on one part encompassed by a deep foss, and on the other sides by steep precipices, it standing on a rock. Having passed the bridge, you enter a cloyster, where there is a court within and a fountain, and having passed through a large hall, enter into a state-room, with a rich ceiling, carving of stucco upon the walls, and Dutch tiling round the room at the bottom. This brings you to a second apartment in much the same taste, but a much richer

ceiling; then you enter a magnificent room, called the Hall of the Kings, it containing the wooden or waxen images of nineteen kings of Castile, six of Leon, two of the Asturias, and sixteen of Oviedo, all placed over your head, about the middle of the wall, round the room, with their queens, and four counts, or dukes, placed under them. Round all the rooms are inscriptions containing prayers and pious sentences; in old Gothic characters.

This is the famous tower or castle of Segovia, so celebrated in Gil Blas and other romances, the ancient receptacle of state prisoners. There is another large prison in the middle of the city; but that is only for common felons.

The Placa Mayor is a very tolerable irregular square, but the buildings are in the old Spanish style; and tho' wood is scarce, and cracks with the sun, the fronts of most of them are of deal, and most miserable buildings.

This city has a famous university: it is the see of a bishop, who has an annual revenue of twenty-four thousand ducats.

The town-house is a good modern structure; but the city, upon the whole, has a strange appearance: the buildings look wild and odd, sometimes being raised upon the uneven and craggy parts of the rock, and consisting of all the styles of architecture, Roman, Gothic, Moorish, Saxon, and Spanish.

But what is most worthy of notice among the buildings of this city, is the Segovian aqueduct, which extends to a small river, called Rio Frio, which rises in the skirts of a pass in the mountains, and takes from it as much water as would fill a duct that would contain a human body. It is received into an arch of stone, five hundred paces from the city; and from thence begins to run in the channel of the aqueduct, which does not require more elevation than seventeen feet. By little and little, the height increases as it comes to deeper ground, but without requiring more than one range of arches, till the water has passed over sixty-five arches, where the arches have a height of thirty-nine feet, close to a Franciscan convent. There they begin to wind from east to west, requiring two ranges of arches, one arch being put upon the other; that being the lowest part of the valley, which is the little square, now called Azoguejo. In that part the aqueduct is one hundred and two feet high; the channel entering by the battlements of the walls, with an extreme elevation from the ground to the top of the arch. The aqueduct goes through the middle of the city, from east to west, with an arched duct so large, that a man may walk in it: and from thence dividing, it extends to the public fountains, and the cisterns of convents and private houses. This structure consists of one hundred and sixty-one arches, of hewn stones of a bluish granite, placed one upon another. This was doubtless built by the ancient Romans, and some attribute it to Trajan. In two niches on the highest part was formerly statues of Hercules, which are now changed for those of our Lady of St. Sebastian.

In this city is fixed the principal mint of all Spain, which, when at work, can coin thirty thousand ducats in a day. Here they make good paper; but the woollen manufacture of this city is the best and most considerable in all Spain; the blankets of Segovia are, perhaps, the finest in the world; for they have a vast quantity of the finest wool, produced from the numberless flocks bred in the neighbouring plains. Here are also several other manufactures, particularly of linen, which is carried on with great success.

Valladolid, anciently called Pindia, is a large, beautiful, and populous city, eighty-six miles to the north-west of Madrid. It is situated in a spacious and delightful plain, watered by the Pisuerga, over which it has a stately bridge: besides which, it has about nineteen small ones over the Esquera, a small river that runs thro' several of the streets, and thence through a delightful landscape of gardens, orchards, meadows, and fields, which it waters in its course. The city is walled round; but is a place of no great strength, and has six gates. It has long broad streets, with large and lofty houses, splendid palaces, spacious and elegant squares, and fountains; seventy convents, among which the Dominican convent

of St. Paul has a magnificent church, and the college of St. Gregory, and that of the Jesuits are particularly worthy of notice.

The great square, or piazza, is built after the model of that at Madrid, and consists of five hundred arches with gilt balconies, three thousand windows all in view, and three hundred and thirty gates or doors. It is in circuit seven hundred paces, and is capable of containing thirty thousand persons. Near one side of this square is a large well-built street, chiefly inhabited by gold and silversmiths.

Here is a royal palace, near the Dominican convent; an university, founded in 1346; a geographical academy, lately erected; a court of inquisition; and a tribunal of justice, composed of one president, fifteen counsellors, four criminal judges, one supreme judge for Biscay, four judges of nobility, two fiscals, and an alguazil mayor; yet the revenue of its bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Toledo, does not exceed twelve thousand ducats per annum.

The inhabitants of Valladolid are as polite and well-bred as any people in Spain. They not only carry on a considerable trade abroad, but cultivate several manufactures at home, in which they are very expert and ingenious.

Burgos, the capital of Old Castile, stands on a hill between the rivers Alanzo and Arlanza, and is encompassed with mountains. It is situated in forty-two degrees thirty minutes latitude, and in four degrees five minutes west longitude, one hundred and ten miles to the north of Madrid. It has old but strong walls, seven gates, and has a good bridge over the Arlanza, and on the north-side is a castle seated on a steep rock. The air is here so disagreeable, that the Spaniards have a proverb, that Burgos has nine months of winter, and the other three of hell; the former meaning rainy and cold weather, and the latter excessive heat. This city is large, but irregular, and most of its streets are narrow and crooked. It has, however, many fine squares, public buildings, and noblemen's houses. This city has fifteen parish churches, with five hospitals, six chapels, a college, ten monasteries, and nine nunneries, one of which is the royal foundation of Huelgas, of the order of St. Bernard; its lady abbess is a woman of the first quality, and next in rank to the royal family; she having seventeen monasteries, sixteen towns, and fifty villages subject to her. In this abbey are one hundred and fifty nuns, all gentlewomen; and its revenue amounts to eighty thousand ducats a year. The convent of St. Augustine has what they term a miraculous crucifix, which they pretend was made by Nicodemus.

The cathedral, which is one of the noblest and richest in Spain, has five large choral chapels, with an organ in each, yet so inclosed and remote, as not to disturb each other. The archbishop has a revenue of forty thousand ducats a year. Bega, one of its suburbs, exceeds it in convents and hospitals. The inhabitants of both sexes are here more industrious, and carry on a greater number of trades and manufactures, than is common in the large cities of Spain.

S E C T. XII.

Of the Kingdoms, or Provinces of Navarre and Biscay; their Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers; their History, and Principal Cities.

NAVARRÉ, which to distinguish it from the country of the same name belonging to the French, is called Upper Navarre, is bounded on the west by Old Castile and Biscay; on the south by Arragon; and on the east by Arragon and the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from French Navarre; and also by the same mountains towards the north. It is an hundred miles in length, and about sixty in breadth; it is mountainous and colder than the rest of Spain; and as the greatest part of the province lies among the Pyrenean mountains, its chief wealth consists in cattle. Hence it produces very little corn, wine, or fruit; but has abundance of excellent timber, and some iron-mines. The

mountains also abound in game of all kinds, as bears, stags, roe-bucks, wild-fowl, &c. It is watered by three rivers, all of which fall into the Ebro; these are the Arga, the Ega, and the Arragon, which issues from the kingdom of the same name.

The king of Spain receives no revenue from this country, all the imposts and duties being by compact to be employed in the public services. Navarre, from the year 718 to 1512, had its peculiar kings of different families; but in the last mentioned year, was reduced by king Ferdinand the Catholic, under the idle pretence that John D'Albert, its king, by being an ally of Lewis XII. of France, with whom pope Julius II. was at variance, had been declared an enemy to the church, and excommunicated by the pope.

Pampeluna, anciently Pompeiopolis or Pompelo, from its being built by Pompey the Great, is the capital of Navarre; and is seated on a plain near the Pyrenees, by the river Arga, one hundred and sixty seven miles to the north-east of Madrid. It is a place of tolerable extent, and has two castles, one within the city, and the other without, on a rock. Its squares are handsome, and adorned with shops full of rich merchandize. Its bishop is subject to the archbishop of Burgos, and has an annual revenue of twenty-five thousand ducats. It has also an university, founded in the year 1608, and is the residence of the viceroy of Navarre.

The province of Biscay is bounded to the west by the Asturias; to the northward by the sea, which is here called the Bay of Biscay; to the east by Navarre; and to the south by Old Castile. Its extent from north to south, is between eighteen and seventy-five miles, and from east to west one hundred and eight.

The air here is mild and temperate; but the soil is stony and uneven, so that in some places hardly any thing grows; but in others they have a little wine, called chacolino, which is pleasant, and drank as small-beer. They have corn sufficient for the use of the inhabitants, and have apples in great plenty, of which they make excellent cyder, which in some measure supplies the want of wine. The coast also abounds with oranges and lemons, which they sell very cheap, and in the forests is excellent timber fit for ship-building. The mountains yield mines of iron and lead; while the valleys produce some flax.

Its commodious situation on the sea, in the neighbourhood of France, renders the trade very flourishing: they particularly export great quantities of iron-work, with all sorts of powder and fire-arms, which are very neatly finished, and a great deal of tar. Here they ship off large quantities of wool, which is mostly brought from Old Castile: but their own produce in this last article, being neither so fine, nor produced in such quantities, they manufacture wholly at home. The sea also furnishes this province with all kinds of excellent fish.

The natives of Biscay are of Celtic extraction, and like their progenitors, generous, brave, hardy, choleric, active, and of few words. They are also reckoned the best soldiers and sailors in Spain, and enjoy many privileges, of which they are extremely jealous. They have a particular language of their own, called the Basque, or Biscayan, that has no affinity with the other European tongues, and there are few who do not speak it readily; having preserved this, with their genius, ancient laws, government, and manners, without innovation.

Till the year 859 the Biscayans were governed by counts, or governors, sent them by the kings of Oviedo and Leon; but under the latter they revolted, and chose themselves a chief, which they retained till they were subdued by Peter the Cruel, who, under the title of a lordship, united Biscay to Castile.

This province contains the three following subdivisions, Biscay Proper, Guipuscoa, and Alaba; the principal places in which are the following:

Bilboa is a corruption of Bello Bado, and signifies a fine ford, one lying near it. It is the capital of the province, and is seated in a plain environed by high mountains, six miles from the sea, in latitude forty-three degrees thirty minutes, and in three degrees ten minutes west longitude. The tide which flows up here into the river Ybañabal, the antient Nervius, forms a secure harbour, which is very much resorted to; small vessels

coming up to the mole, while those that are larger lie farther out in the road. The greatest export of this place consists of fine wool and excellent iron, most of the latter in bars, though great quantities of it are wrought into swords, fire-arms, and other military implements; they also export saffron and chesnuts. This city is large and populous; it has a bridge over the river, and contains twelve hundred houses, five parish-churches, the like number of monasteries, and seven nunneries. It has a good air, and is surrounded by a fruitful country, whence provisions are plentiful and cheap.

There is also in this province Ordunna, a sea-port city, seated in a pleasant valley formed by high mountains, twenty-five miles to the south-west of Bilboa, and two other small towns.

Guipuscoa, the second subdivision of Biscay, runs along the coast of the north bay, and is bounded to the westward by Biscay Proper, and part of Alaba; to the southward by Navarre; and to the eastward by Navarre and France. It abounds in most things, except wheat. The principal places it contains are the following:

St. Sebastian, a city of considerable size, situated in forty-three degrees thirty-seven minutes latitude, and in one degree fifty-six minutes west longitude, has a secure harbour at the mouth of the little river Gummea, and is seated at the foot of a mountain, which serves as a defence to it against the tempestuous sea. The harbour is secured by two moles, between which only one ship can pass at a time. Near its entrance is also a fort defended by a garrison. The town is surrounded by walls defended with bastions and half-moons, and on the mountain under which it lies, is a citadel. The streets are long, broad, straight, and clean; they being paved with white flag stones. The houses are pretty handsome, the churches very neat, and the environs extremely pleasant; one side affording a prospect of the sea, and the other a distant view of the Pyrenean mountains.

A considerable trade is carried on here in iron and steel, which some take to be the best in Europe, and also in wool. This town was taken by the French in the year 1719. In time of war with the English there are many privateers here, and the prizes are generally brought into this harbour.

Fontarabia, or Fuentarabia, is a little neat town, seated on a peninsula on the sea-shore, twenty-two miles to the south-west of Bayonne. It is fortified both by nature and art, and has a pretty good harbour, though it is dry at low water. This town is built in the form of an amphitheatre, on the declivity of a hill, and on the land-side is surrounded by the lofty Pyrenean mountains. It is a very important place, it being accounted the key of Spain on that side.

The young gentlewomen of this city have something particular in their dress; for their braided hair falls on their shoulders, and on their heads they wear a small muslin veil, which flutters about their necks, round which they have necklaces of coral: their garment is a waistcoat with loose sleeves, and they are very alert and active: but this is chiefly to be understood of those who inhabit the adjacent villages.

In 1638 this place held out a siege against the French, for which it was honoured by the king with the title of a city; but in 1719 was taken by them. Near the city runs the river Bidassoa, or Vidosso, which is here very broad, and is the boundary between Spain and France.

Pheasant island, which is formed by the river Bidassoa, and separates France from Spain, is worthy of notice, both on account of the peace of the Pyrenees, which was concluded in 1659, and for the treaty of marriage transacted there between Lewis XIV. and Mary Theresa, the infant of Spain. In 1722 were exchanged at this place the infant Maria Anna Victoria, and Mademoiselle de Montpensier, daughter to the duke of Orleans, regent of France. It is called by the French *l'Isle de la Conference*, and *Isle de Paix*.

Tolosa, the capital of Guipuscoa, is seated between two mountains in a delightful valley, at the confluence of the Araxas and Oria, over which there are two handsome bridges, and at a small distance several fine natural cascades. It is not large, but inhabited by a great number of persons employed in making sword-blades.

The province of Alaba, the last of the three divisions of Biscay, is bounded on the north by Guipuscoa and Biscay Proper, on the east by Navarre, on the south by Old Castile, and on the west by Biscay Proper and Old Castile. It is pretty fertile in rye, barley, and several kinds of fruit, and has also tolerable wine. It has likewise very rich mines of iron.

The capital of this little district is the city of Vittoria, which lies about thirty miles to the south of Bilboa, is seated on an eminence, at the end of a pleasant valley, and is environed with double walls. In the principal square are the town-house, two convents, several well built houses, and in the middle is a fine fountain. The large streets are bordered with trees, which are a good defence against the heat of the sun. The monasteries are magnificent, and the convent of St. Francis is in particular very large. There are here some rich merchants, who carry on a great trade in iron and steel, sword-blades, wool, and wine.

S E C T. XIII.

Of the Principality of the Asturias; its Situation, Extent, Produce, History, and principal Cities.

THE principality of the Asturias is bounded on the north by the bay of Biscay, on the east by the province of Biscay, on the south by Old Castile and Leon, and on the west by Galicia; and takes its name from the Asturians, a Celtic nation, who came hither from Gaul, and whose valour rendered all attempts by other nations abortive. Its greatest extent is about forty-eight miles from south to north, and about a hundred from east to west. The air is tolerable; but the country uneven, rugged, and thinly peopled; yet the soil produces a pretty deal of grain, fruit, and wine. Its horses were antiently very famous, and much sought after on account of their spirit and goodness.

The nobility of this province value themselves on being descended from the Goths, and on their blood not being adulterated by a mixture with that of the Jews and Moors. For after the unfortunate battle which the Goths, commanded by king Roderic, fought with the Moors near Xeres, Pelagius, the Gothic prince, retreated with a considerable number of the nobility into the mountains of the Asturias, where he assembled a small army; but being unable to face the enemy in the field, retired with a thousand brave Goths to a large cave in the mountain of Ausena, and upon the approach of the Moors sallied out and entirely defeated them. The bold stand made by the Goths is still so celebrated in Spain, that all the inhabitants of this mountain enjoy particular privileges; and though they are but peasants, and go in great numbers from this mountain to seek for work in the other provinces of Spain, both great and small give themselves the appellation of illustrious Goths, or illustrious mountaineers; and, amidst their poverty, think it a disgrace for them to marry with the great and rich families of any other race. Indeed they are so highly esteemed, that other families frequently give considerable sums to marry among them. This district belongs to the hereditary prince of Spain, who takes his title from it. It is divided into two unequal parts, and hence arises the name of the Asturias in the plural number.

These divisions are called Asturia d'Oviedo and Asturia Santellana: the former lies to the westward, and is the largest division; and the latter to the eastward.

Oviedo, the antient Brigetum, the capital of all Asturia, and the only place that bears the name of a city, is seated on a plain, in a kind of elevation between the little rivers Ove and Deva, fifty miles to the north-west of Leon. The bishop of this place, who enjoys an annual revenue of twelve thousand ducats, is immediately subject to the pope. The cathedral boasts of possessing a vast number of relics that were brought hither from all parts of Spain, in order to secure them from being taken by the Moors; and here is an university, erected in 1580.

Villa Viciosa, a town seated twenty-two miles to the north-east of Oviedo, and has a good harbour on the bay of Biscay, into which the river Asta discharges itself.

Santellana, in Latin Fanum Sanctæ Julianæ, the capital of the other division, lies ninety-four miles to the west of Bilboa. It is small, has a harbour on the bay of Biscay, with a collegiate church, and gives the title of marquis to the duke of Infantado.

There are several other towns in this province; but they are all of them very inconsiderable places.

S E C T. XIV.

Of the Kingdom or Province of Leon; its Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, and principal Cities.

THE kingdom of Leon is bounded on the east by Old Castile, on the south by Estremadura, on the west by Galicia and Portugal, and on the north by the Asturias. Its extent from north to south is about a hundred and sixty-five miles, and from east to west between sixty-seven and ninety-three. The soil in some places produces all the necessaries of life, and particularly very good wine. In this province are likewise mines of turquoise; but a great part of the country is a naked, dreadful, barren rock, except where it is covered with a few pitiful firs or shrubs. "I turned round, says Mr. Clarke, to take a view of Leon from one of the highest mountains, and was almost frightened at the sight; a brown horror, as Mr. Pope expresses it, was spread over the whole; sands, rocks, and craggy precipices formed as savage a prospect as can be imagined."

The principal rivers of Leon are the Pisuerga and the Carrion, which rise in Old Castile; the Esla and Orbego, both which have their sources near the city of Leon; the Torto and Tera, which run into the Orbego; and Formes, or Rio de Salamanca, which, on the frontiers of Portugal, falls into the Douro.

The most remarkable places in this province are the following:

Leon, the capital of the province, was built by the Romans in the reign of the emperor Galba, and called Legio Septima Germanica, from whence it derived the name of Leon. It is seated in the forty-third degree ten minutes north latitude, and in the sixth degree twenty minutes west longitude, between both the springs of the river Esla, and at the end of a large plain bounded by the mountains of the Asturias, fifty miles to the south-east of Oviedo. The bishop, whose annual revenue is twelve thousand ducats, is immediately subject to the pope. The cathedral is famous not only for its beauty, but for its being the burial place of several saints, thirty-seven kings of Spain, and one emperor. This city was formerly both larger, richer, and more populous than at present. It was indeed the first city of any consideration that was retaken from the Moors; Pelagius making himself master of it in the year 722, when he fortified it, and it continued a royal seat till 1029. It contains thirteen parishes, six monasteries, five nunneries, fifteen chapels, and four hospitals.

The city of Astorga, in Latin Asturica Augusta, is situated in a wide plain on the river Astura, or Torto, in the forty-second degree north latitude, and in the sixth degree twenty minutes west longitude, and is well fortified both by nature and art; but neither large nor populous. Its bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of St. Jago, and has an annual revenue of ten thousand ducats. The cathedral is a noble Gothic building, and has a basilica, consisting of six pointed arches, supported by tall, light, neat pillars in a good taste. There are here seven or eight fine altars, and the high altar is exceeding magnificent: it consists of twenty compartments of marble sculpture in alto relievo, the figures as large as the life; the subject is the history of our Saviour; and on the summit is God the Father crowning the Virgin Mary. The glory is well expressed; for being cut through the frame, and a light placed behind it, the light shews the rays. "We happened, says Mr. Clarke, to attend at the vespers; the music of the organ was fine; the number of the tapers, the richness of the altars, and,

"in short, the whole scene was striking." This city was formerly the capital of the Asturias; but it at present only gives the title of marquis to the family of Osorio.

The city of Salamanca is situated in forty-one degrees five minutes latitude, and in six degrees sixteen minutes west longitude: it is of a circular form, built on three hills and two valleys, and on every side surrounded with prospects of fine houses, noble seats, gardens, orchards, fields, and distant villages; and is antient, large, rich, and populous. Its walls are six thousand three hundred and sixty paces in circuit, and adorned with thirteen handsome gates and stately towers. Within the city are a hundred and sixty-two streets, five thousand houses, many of which are magnificent buildings, seventeen squares, twenty-five parish-churches, twenty monasteries, eleven nunneries, two houses of retirement for young women to lead a penitent life, sixteen chapels, six hospitals, and twenty-five colleges. The river Tormes, which runs by it, fertilizes the neighbouring country. The university, which in 1239 was removed hither from Palencia, is the most famous in all Spain. The university-college is a very spacious structure, and near its stately entrance is an infirmary for sick poor scholars: it contains twenty-four other colleges, in each of which live thirty students; and among these the four most considerable are termed the great colleges, and appropriated to persons of rank. Most of the colleges are noble structures and well endowed, and the great public schools, and other buildings, are extraordinary magnificent. The Spaniards term this city the mother of virtues, sciences, and arts.

Roderigo, an episcopal city, which, after its being ruined by the Goths, was, in 1102, rebuilt by Don Roderigo Gonzales Giron, and from him received its name. It was afterwards destroyed in the wars, and rebuilt by Ferdinand II. in order to be a check upon Portugal; it being only about twelve miles from the frontiers of that kingdom. It stands on the little river Agneda, or Agujar, twelve miles from the frontiers of Portugal, and has good strong walls, nine gates, three squares, fifty-four streets, two thousand houses, eight parishes, two monasteries, two nunneries, ten chapels, and three hospitals. The bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of St. Jago, and has an annual revenue of ten thousand ducats. This city is one of the three places of rendezvous for the Spaniards, when they are at war with Portugal.

The city of Zamora is situated on the Douro, over which it has a fine bridge, and stands in a fertile country, thirty-four miles to the north of Salamanca. The Moors gave it the name of Zamora, or Medinato Zamorati, which signifies the Town of Turquoises, most of the rocks in its neighbourhood containing that kind of gems. The bishop of this place has an annual income of twenty thousand ducats, and is suffragan to the archbishop of Toledo. In this city is kept the body of St. Ildefonso, formerly bishop of Toledo.

S E C T. XV.

Of the Province of Galicia; its Situation, Extent, Rivers, Produce, and principal Cities.

THE province of Galicia is bounded on the east by Asturia and Leon, on the north and west by the sea, and on the south by Portugal. It receives its name from the antient Gallazi, the most powerful and numerous of the several nations who inhabited it. Its extent from north to south is about a hundred and twenty-seven miles, and from west to east about a hundred and twelve.

This is the most maritime of all the Spanish provinces, and accordingly enjoys the greatest number of seaports; among which Corunna and Ferrol are the most considerable. Cape Finisterre, one of its promontories, is seated on the west, and is well known to all navigators.

The coasts enjoy a temperate air; but in the inland parts, it is somewhat colder, and very damp. This country is so mountainous, as to admit of few plains, and the sea-coast excepted, is but thinly inhabited; it has

no less than seventy rivers, and smaller streams, the principal of which are, the Minho, the Ulla, the Tamba, and the Mandes.

This province produces little corn; but has plenty of wine, lemons, and flax; it has also very fine pastures. Its forests afford timber fit for ship-building, and the sea abounds in excellent fish. But the universal poverty of the inhabitants induces many of them to seek a living in the neighbouring provinces, where they perform the most servile and laborious employments. Yet for this humble industry, they are despised by the other Spaniards.

This province contains sixty-four cities and towns, but few of the latter are any way considerable.

Bayona, a small town on a bay, which forms a convenient harbour. The sea in this place abounds with fish, and the district of land belonging to the town with fine fruit. At the entrance of the bay lies certain islands, formerly called the Islands of the Gods.

The city of Corunna, commonly called the Groyne, stands on a small bay and peninsula, in the forty-third degree twenty-eight minutes latitude, and in the ninth degree twenty minutes west longitude, sixteen miles to the south-west of Ferrol. The harbour presents you with a fine prospect as you sail into it; on your right are the tower of Hercules, the fort and the town; before you the shipping, terminated by an agreeable view of the country: on your left, you see cape Prior, the entrance of Ferrol, and a ridge of barren mountains, with a large river running between them. The city is divided into the Upper and Lower Town; the former is defended by the castle of St. Diego, the latter stands on a neck of land, surrounded with water on three sides. Thus the city is in form of a half-moon, with a castle at each point. This city is the seat of the royal audience of Galicia, and here the English packet-boats usually come. It has a collegiate church, and in its neighbourhood is a quarry of jasper. In short, Corunna is well built and populous; but, like most other Spanish towns, has an offensive smell. Their method of keeping the tiles fast on the roof of houses, is by laying loose stones upon them.

The poorer sort, both of men and women at Corunna, wear neither shoes nor stockings; but those in better circumstances have a great flapped hat, a cloak reaching down to their feet, and generally carry a sword under their arm; the women wear a short jacket of one colour, a petticoat of another, and either a white or black woollen veil.

Vigo, a town seated on a small bay, one hundred and five miles to the north-west of Madrid, is surrounded by a wall that has some bastions, and defended by an old castle and a fort which stands on an eminence, but is incapable of making a long resistance. This harbour is rendered famous by a sea-fight in 1702, between Sir George Rooke, commander of the English and Dutch fleet, and a squadron of French men of war, with thirteen Spanish galleons under their convoy; when, after admiral Hopson had broke through the boom laid across the mouth of the harbour, the English took four galleons and five men of war, and the Dutch five galleons and one large man of war. Four galleons and fourteen men of war were destroyed, with a great quantity of plate and other rich effects. However, a great deal of silver was taken, though a considerable quantity was carried on shore before the engagement. While this was doing, the duke of Ormond, with a large body of land-forces, drove the Spaniards from the castles which defended the harbour. In the year 1719, the English again got possession of this place, but relinquished it after raising contributions.

St. Jago de Compostella, the capital of the whole province; situated in forty-two degrees fifty minutes north latitude, and in eight degrees twenty minutes west longitude, between the rivers Tamba and Ulla, in a most fertile plain, surrounded with hills of a moderate height, which shelter it from the nipping winds which blow from the mountains. The public squares and the churches are very magnificent; it has also a great number of monasteries for both sexes, and about two thousand houses. The cathedral is particularly worthy of notice, and in it is kept the pretended body of the apostle James the younger, the titular saint and patron of all Spain; which to-

wards the close of the ninth century, they say, was discovered by a divine revelation. This draws a great number of pilgrims thither, who walk in procession to the church to adore his wooden image, which stands in the great altar and is illuminated with forty or fifty wax candles. They kiss it three times with a very respectful devotion, and then put their hats on its head. In the church are thirty silver lamps always burning, and six chandeliers of silver five feet high. Those pilgrims who are poor, are admitted into an hospital that stands near the church, and has galleries of free-stone, supported by large pillars. The archbishop is one of the richest prelates in Spain, his annual revenue amounting to sixty thousand ducats, and that of the cathedral to no less; but out of this sum he pays the king eighteen thousand ducats a year. The order of St. Jago takes its name from this city, which also maintains a certain number of knights. The university was erected in 1532, and there is here also a tribunal of the inquisition.

Orense, a city seated forty-seven miles to the south-east of St. Jago de Compostella, in a delightful country on the banks of the Minho, and abounding in excellent wine and fine fruit. One part of it stands at the foot of a mountain, in which is felt a sharp cold that is of long continuance; while the other part of the city, which lies on the side of the plain, enjoys all the pleasures of spring and the fruits of autumn. This is said to be in some measure owing to the springs, which warm the air with their exhalations. Some of these are so moderately warm, that a person may bathe in them; while the water of others, on the contrary, is so hot that eggs may be dressed in them; but they are both salutary in several distempers. Its bishop, who has an annual revenue of ten thousand ducats, is suffragan to the archbishop of St. Jago.

SECT. XVI.

Of the Province of Estremadura; its Situation, Extent, Climate, Produce, Rivers, and Principal Cities.

ESTREMADURA is bounded on the north by Leon; on the east by New Castile; on the south by Andalusia; and on the west by Portugal. Its extent from north to south is pretty nearly one hundred and twelve miles, and from east to west between sixty and one hundred.

The inhabitants are inured to the air; but the summer heats are intolerable to the foreigners who travel there. Those who live at the foot of the mountains have good water; but the inhabitants in the plains are obliged to put up with what is taken out of pits dug in the ground. The soil abounds with corn, wine, and fruit; and its pastures are so good, that great numbers of cattle are brought hither from other provinces to fatten. The rivers Tagus and Guadiana run quite through the country of Portugal, and in many places are joined by several streams.

The district of Vera de Plazencia, or the Orchard of Plazencia, consisting of alternate mountains and valleys, is extremely delightful, and, next to Andalusia, the most fertile in all Spain. The finest and most delicious fruits and vegetables, with wholesome and odoriferous plants, grow here in the greatest abundance. Here is also excellent wine, fine springs, and pleasant brooks that abound with trout. In short, every thing in this district wears a smiling aspect.

The city of Plazencia, or Placentia, from which the district takes its name, is a beautiful well-built city, sixty-seven miles to the south-west of Madrid: it is seated on an eminence between mountains, on the little river Xerte, and is defended by a good castle. Its bishop, who has a revenue of fifty thousand ducats per annum, is subject to the bishop of St. Jago, and under its jurisdiction are two small towns.

Alcantara, a fortified town a hundred and seventy-two miles to the north-west-by-west of Seville, is seated on the Tagus in a fruitful country, near the frontiers of Portugal, and takes its name, which signifies a stone bridge, from an ancient stately one, built on this river in the

reign of the emperor Trajan; it being two hundred feet high, six hundred and seventy long, and twenty-eight broad. It was taken by the earl of Galway in 1706, and retaken by the French the same year.

Badajoz, the capital of Estremadura, and a frontier town against Portugal, stands upon an eminence on the south side of the Guadiana, and is divided into the Upper and Lower Town. It is not a large place, but has good houses, pretty broad streets, fine churches, some convents, and a jesuits college. The bishop, who has an annual revenue of sixteen thousand ducats, is suffragan to the archbishop of St. Jago. Its fortifications are antique, but it has some wooden out-works, particularly a castle fortified in the modern taste, called St. Michael's; and on the farther side of the river the castle of St. Christoval, which covers an old Roman bridge of stone that extends over the river, and is seven hundred paces long and fourteen broad. On this bridge the Portuguese were defeated by Don John of Austria in 1661, and in 1705, the city was besieged by the allies, but not taken. The neighbouring country is extremely fruitful, and its flocks of sheep produce very fine wool.

SECT. XVII.

Of the Province of Andalusia; including the antient Kingdoms of Seville, Cordova, and Jean. Its Situation, Extent, Rivers, Produce, and principal Cities; with a more particular Description of Seville, Cadiz, and Gibraltar.

THE name of Andalusia, which this province owes to the Vandals, is divided from Vandalenhaus, or the habitation of the Vandals, and formerly extended also over the kingdom of Granada, then called Upper Andalusia. This country is bounded on the north by Estremadura and New Castile, from which it is divided by a range of mountains, called the Sierra Morena; on the east by Granada and Murcia; on the south partly by the Mediterranean, and partly by the streights of Gibraltar; and on the west by the Portuguese districts of Alentejo and Algarve, extending from east to west about two hundred and twenty-five miles; but its breadth is very different, and where largest, not above one hundred and twelve.

The river Guadalquivir, by the antients called Bætis and Tartessus, traverses the whole country, and the Guadiana separates it to the west from the Portuguese Algarve. Of the other small rivers some run into the sea, as the Odier, or Odriel; the Tinto, or Azeche, the water of which cannot be drank, it being noxious even to herbs and the roots of trees, and having neither fish or any living creature in it; and the Guadalate, or river of Oblivion. Others fall into the Guadalquivir, as the Xenil, and the Guadiamar.

Andalusia is esteemed the best province in all Spain, it abounding in exquisite fruit of all kinds, honey, excellent wine, grain, silk, sugar, fine oil, numerous herds of cattle, particularly horses, with metals, cinnabar, and a certain species of quicksilver. The heat in summer is indeed very great; but the inhabitants generally sleep by day, travelling and following their other employments in the night. The air is, however, in other respects good, and is sometimes refreshed with cooling breezes.

This province is properly composed of three antient kingdoms, which, in the king's titles, instead of the common names, are expressed by that of Andalusia. These are the kingdoms of Seville, Cordova, and Jean.

Seville, the antient Hispalis, the capital of the kingdom of the same name, is seated in the thirty-seventh degree fifteen minutes north latitude, and in the sixth degree five minutes west longitude, two hundred miles to the south-west of Madrid, in a large plain on the banks of the Guadalquivir. It is almost round and of considerable extent, but not proportionable to the number of its inhabitants: the streets are narrow, but the houses fine, though in the Moorish taste: they are clean built round a square court, with green lattices, and shaded from the sun by a canvas extending from the top of the houses across the court.

The cathedral is a fine Gothic structure, raised on noble pointed arches, and adorned with good painted glass windows. It consists of five naves; but the whole is spoiled by the skreen of the choir, which intercepts the view of a magnificent altar, and a pretended miraculous virgin at the east end. Before that altar is a sarcophagus of silver, within which lies the body of Fernando Santo. There is much plate belonging to this church; particularly one whole altar and frontispiece of plate, and a most beautiful silver custodia. The tower of the cathedral, which is about forty-four feet square, and upwards of a hundred and thirty feet high, was built by the Moors in the year 1000, with turrets, and a cupola has been added by the Christians, which makes it about three hundred feet to the top of the image upon the dome. The ascent of the tower is so easy, that a horse may ascend to the top, there being no steps. The chapter-house is a fine oval room, and in this structure are many fine chapels.

In this city are reckoned twenty-nine churches, forty-four convents for monks, and thirty nunneries, all which are rich and well-built, twenty-four hospitals, and as many squares. Of the convents, the most remarkable and magnificent are those of the Franciscans, Nuestra Señora de la Merced, and the Dominicans. Its university was founded in 1504. The great college stands near the king's palace. St. Thomas's college was built in the fifteenth century, and the Jesuit's college is also worth seeing.

The royal palace, called Alcaçar, stands near the cathedral, and is very spacious: it was built by the Moors, and has been considerably enlarged by the kings of Spain, but the new works are inferior to the old. Some parts of this vast structure are very grand, but want the conveniencies of modern architecture.

The exchange, which stands behind the cathedral, is a large building. To the suburbs of Triana is a passage over the river, by a strong bridge of boats. The circuit of the city, including the suburbs, is computed at near fourteen miles; but that of the walls is only eight. They are pretty strong, and have fifteen gates, and a hundred and sixty-six towers. Quite along the river are commodious quays, where vessels of a large burthen may lie with safety; and near the water-side is a stately tower, which commands the whole river, city, and suburbs. The archbishop of Seville has a yearly revenue of a hundred thousand ducats. Here are several public offices and a court of inquisition.

This city was once famous for its flourishing manufactures; but these have so dwindled, that from a thousand artificers in wool and silk, scarce four hundred remains at present. The adjacent country abounds in wine, corn, and fruit; great quantities of oil are particularly made here. Without the city is a long Moorish aqueduct, worthy the notice of the curious traveller.

Puerto de Santa Maria, or Port St. Mary's, the capital of an earldom belonging to the duke of Medina Celi, is seated at the mouth of the river Guadalete, directly opposite to Cadiz, and exceeds that city in bigness: the streets are also broader and better paved, and the houses handsome, though it contains scarce eight thousand inhabitants. It is only walled round, and has a little castle of small force. Here are great numbers of French, English, Dutch, Genoese, and other merchants, who carry on a flourishing trade; and here also are made vast quantities of salt. In the year 1702 the English and Dutch made themselves masters of this place without opposition.

Cadiz, by the Romans called Gades, a celebrated trading city, stands on an island in the thirty-sixth degree thirty minutes latitude, and in the sixth degree forty minutes west longitude, on the north-west end of a long neck of land, that extends from the south-east to the north-west, and is also joined to the continent, from which it is divided by a narrow freight, by means of the bridge of Suaco, both ends of which are defended with redoubts, and some other raised works of earth. This island from Fort St. Catalina to the island of St. Pedro, is about eighteen miles long, and from the south point

near the island of St. Pedro to the northern one near the bridge of Suaco about seven in breadth. It produces little grain, but some of the best wine in Spain is made there. It has also some pastures, and on the side next the harbour is made large quantities of salt. It has also a considerable fishery, particularly of tunnies, which are here commonly between six and eight, and sometimes ten feet in length.

The city of Cadiz is of pretty large circumference, yet the whole neck of land which extends from the island is not built upon; the west side, which is very delightful, being almost uninhabited, the only buildings upon it are a spacious hospital and two chapels, it being less commodious for shipping than the east side. Most of the streets are narrow, crooked, ill paved, and dirty; but a few of them are broad, straight, and well paved. The houses are generally three or four stories high, and many of them are handsome buildings; but house-rent and provisions are dear, and good fresh water very scarce. It contains about thirteen convents, among which the college of the Jesuits is the finest in all Andalusia; but has only one parish church, which is the cathedral, tho' the settled inhabitants are computed at forty thousand. The bishop of this city is suffragan to the archbishop of Seville, and has an annual revenue of twelve thousand ducats. Here is established the West India company, which in 1717 was removed hither from Seville. Indeed at the earnest request of the last-mentioned city, it was restored to it again in 1725; but in 1726 was a second time brought back to Cadiz. Both before and after the arrival of the Spanish American fleet, this city is said to be crowded with strangers to the number of fifty thousand, who resort hither on account of trade, which causes an extraordinary circulation of money. Cadiz is the center of the whole American trade, to which the English, French, Dutch, and Italian merchants send their goods, which are shipped off here in Spanish bottoms to America, by Spanish factors in their own names. Besides these nations, all others who carry on any traffic here by sea, have also their agents, correspondents, and factors, in this city; and the consuls of those nations make a great figure.

Both the harbour and bay of Cadiz are spacious and secure, the entrance being defended by Fort Matagorda, which covers the harbour and bay of Cadiz, and by Fort Puntales, which stands opposite to it, on a point of that neck of land on which Cadiz is built. The Spaniards commonly call both these Los Puntales. The entrance into the harbour, between these points, is said to be five hundred fathoms wide. During the time of ebb a good part of the harbour, which is ten miles in circumference, is dry. Cadiz is fortified with walls and irregular bastions, and on the south side there is no approaching it, on account of the high and steep shore; on the north side the access is dangerous from the many sand-banks and rocks that lie under the water. The south-west side will indeed admit of landing; but is defended by Fort St. Catalina. On the south-south-west point is a ridge of rocks, part of which at full sea is covered with water; the outermost of these forms a small island, on which is a guard and light-house, with two chapels; and Fort St. Sebastian.

No people are happier than the merchants of Cadiz; for they seldom risk any thing upon their own account, and enrich themselves at the cost of those who send them goods; so that let things go as they will, they are no losers. But it must be said to their honour, that they are distinguished in a remarkable manner, by the strict honesty and integrity of their dealings; whence foreigners, with the utmost confidence, trust their effects and fortunes in their hands.

In 1596 this city was plundered and burnt by the English; but was again rebuilt by the Spaniards. In 1702 the English made another attempt upon it, but without success.

Algeziras is at present a poor old town in the Straights, and has a decayed harbour, with only a few shattered houses. The word Algezira, in Arabic, signifies an island, and the harbour being formed by two islands, it has been called in the plural number Algeziras. Here the

Moors first landed, and held the place almost seven hundred years.

Between the mountain and promontory, near Algeziras, and the mountain on which Gibraltar stands, is a bay. The last-mentioned mountain is a high and steep rock, joined to the continent by a low neck of land about four hundred yards broad, bounded to the west by the above bay, and to the east by the Mediterranean, where this rock is of an uncommon height, and almost perpendicular; yet towards the bay, or on the west side, the ascent is not so difficult. It divides itself into several parts, between which the sea flows, and its capes are defended by walls, bulwarks, and towers. This rock abounds with very wholesome herbs, among which is the ranunculus. The mountain formerly known by the name of Celpe, according to Busching, lies directly opposite to Cauta, in Africa, and is also called Sierra Ximiera and Sierra de las Mona, or the Apes Hill; but was formerly named Abyla. These two mountains are generally allowed to be the celebrated pillars of Hercules.

To the westward, at the foot of the first mountain towards the bay, lies Gibraltar, called by the Moors Gibel-Tarif, or Taric, that is Mount Tarif, or Taric, from the name of a Moorish general, who, at the beginning of the eighth century, bringing the auxiliaries of three Moorish princes to Spain, landed at the foot of this mountain, to which he gave his name, and the town afterwards built upon it was so called from him; Gibraltar being evidently an abbreviation of Gibel-Tarif, or Taric. It is not so considerable either for its extent or beauty, as for its strength and situation, which renders it one of the keys to Spain; and, what is still of more consequence, the key to the Mediterranean and Levant. It is accordingly provided with all the artillery, stores, and forces necessary for its defence. Exclusive of Europeans of most nations, here are Jews, Turks, and Moors, who are all permitted to enjoy a free trade. The harbour is formed by a mole, which is well fortified and planted with guns. It is accessible only on the land side by a narrow passage between the rocks and the sea, but that walled and fortified both by art and nature, being there so inclosed by high steep hills, as to be almost inaccessible that way. It has but two gates on that side, and as many towards the sea. Across this isthmus the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, chiefly with a view to hinder the garrison of Gibraltar from having any intercourse with the country behind them. Those who have the courage to climb to the top of the rock will find it a plain, that affords a prospect of the sea on each side the strait, and of the kingdoms of Barbary, Fez, and Morocco; besides the cities of Seville and Granada, in Spain: for the strait is here only fifteen miles in breadth; and twenty-four in length. There is always a strong current running through it from the ocean into the Mediterranean. The garrison of Gibraltar is, however, confined within very narrow limits; and as the ground produces hardly any thing, all their provisions are brought them either from England or from Ceuta on the coast of Barbary.

This city was taken in 1704 in two days by a combined fleet of English and Dutch ships under the command of Sir George Rooke: but the same year the Spaniards attempted its recovery, at which time it stood out a memorable siege, in which between four and five hundred of the enemy having crept up the rock that covers the town, were the next morning driven down headlong: after which it was ceded to the English by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. The Spaniards again made an attempt, in the year 1727, with a powerful army; but were at last obliged to raise the siege, after lying before it several months, and even endeavouring to blow up the rock, which they found to be impracticable; it therefore still belongs to the crown of Great Britain. Since the above siege this fortress has been more strongly fortified, new works and improvements being daily added: it is rendered impregnable by any other means than treachery or surprize, for it cannot be starved while our fleet can bring supplies.

We

We now come to Cordova, the next kingdom included in the province of Andalusia, which, though much smaller than that of Seville, is equal to it in fertility.

The city of Cordova, antiently called Corduba and Colonia Patricia, is large, beautiful, and finely situated in a wide plain, on the banks of the Guadalquivir, at the foot of a ridge of mountains that are a branch of the Sierra Morena, in thirty-seven degrees fifty minutes north latitude, and in four degrees fifty-three minutes west longitude. Within its circuit it contains several gardens and vineyards; but its streets are narrow, and it is not very populous in proportion to its extent. Its fine suburbs have the appearance of so many towns. The bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Toledo, has an annual revenue of forty thousand ducats. The cathedral is a large antique and magnificent square building, its roof being supported by three hundred and sixty-five stately pillars of alabaster, jasper, and black marble; and was built by the Moors for a mosque. It has nineteen naves running from north to south, separated by small beautiful pillars, some with fine Corinthian capitals taken out of the old temple of Janus Augustus, as appears by an inscription on a pillar of green marble, which in Mariana's time stood in the Franciscan convent in this city. These pillars would have a beautiful effect, were not the view of them interrupted with cross walls, altars, the choir, and the presbytery, which is built in the middle. The episcopal palace is a large structure. The inquisition stands by the river side, and the king's palace, which is at the west end of the city, is very spacious. In 1586 Cordova suffered very much by an earthquake.

The adjacent mountains are covered with delightful gardens and plantations of olives, oranges, lemons, and figs. They are also interspersed with pleasant valleys, refreshed by springs of good water. When the above-mentioned trees are in blossom, they diffuse a fragrant all over the country. Besides the excellence of the wine, and the plenty of fruits and vegetables, this country breeds the finest Spanish horses.

Andujar, or Anduxar, an antient and pretty large city, thirty-two miles to the east of Cordova, is situated on the river Guadalquivir, over which it has a stately bridge, and is defended by a strong castle. It contains three thousand families, has five parishes, six monasteries, three nunneries, and two hospitals; besides other stately and handsome buildings. It vends great quantities of silk. The neighbouring country abounds in corn, wine, oil, honey, and all sorts of fruit; and likewise yields excellent game.

The kingdom of Jean is the smallest of the three comprehended in the province of Andalusia.

The principal city it contains is Jaen, which stands at the foot of a mountain, and is defended by a castle. It is populous, and has some fine churches and monasteries; but the greatest devotion is paid here to St. Veronica. Its bishop, who is under the archbishop of Toledo, has a yearly income of twenty thousand ducats. It was once the capital of a Moorish kingdom; and the country, besides producing great plenty of corn, wine, oil, and fruit, particularly abounds in silk.

SECT. XVIII.

Of the Balearic Islands, Majorca, Minorca, Ivica, and Formentera. Their History, Situation, Extent, Produce, Inhabitants, and principal Towns.

THE four islands of Majorca, Minorca, Ivica, and Formentera, formerly composed the kingdom of Majorca. These islands are situated to the west of Spain; yet it is not known by whom they were originally inhabited: but Strabo mentions a colony of Greeks, who settled there from the isle of Rhodes. Afterwards the Carthaginians became masters of them, but were subdued by the Romans. In the fifth century the Vandals possessed themselves of these several islands, and towards the end of the eighth and beginning of the ninth century these were dislodged by the Moors, who, after a much shorter possession were expelled by the emperor Charle-

magne; but the Moors soon recovered them again, and had their particular king over them. Numerous wars were carried on between them and the Catalonians with various success, till towards the conclusion of the year 1229, James I. king of Arragon, dispossessed them of all the island of Majorca: in 1232 he also reduced Minorca, and in 1234 Ivica; and thus the whole kingdom of Majorca became annexed to the crown of Arragon.

These four islands, with the smaller ones lying near them, were by the antients divided into the Balearic and Pithyusæ. The former are Majorca and Minorca, which, with some smaller islands, were termed by the Latins Baleares, and by the Greeks Balearides, which signify the islands of Slingers, the inhabitants excelling in the dexterous use of the sling, as the Minorcans do to this day.

Mallorca, or, as it is pronounced by foreigners, Majorca, is situated about eighty miles south of the Spanish coast, and is the largest of these islands, it being about sixty miles in length, and forty-five in breadth. It has four chief capes which lie to the four cardinal points; these are Pedra on the east, Palermo on the west, Salinas on the south, and Formentella, or St. Vincent, on the north. This island is divided into two parts, that towards the north and west is mountainous, but not barren; and the other, which lies to the south and east, is level and laid out in corn-fields, vineyards, orchards, and pastures. The air is temperate and wholesome; but the excessive heat and drought frequently occasions a scarcity, though the island in general is well supplied with water, and naturally abounds in corn, wine, oil, honey, saffron, large and small cattle, wool, cheese, rabbits, partridges, deer, wild fowl, fish, and horses, without any ravenous wild beasts. The whole island is encompassed with strong towers, from which an enemy may be observed at a distance, and it has several good harbours and anchoring-places.

The inhabitants in their manners and customs resemble the Spaniards, and particularly the Catalonians. People of fashion speak the Spanish tongue, but the language of the commonalty is a medley of Spanish, Latin, and Limosin, which is a corrupt kind of French, Greek, and Arabic. The island maintains twenty companies of foot, five troops of horse, and two companies of matrosses, for the defence of the capital; besides four regiments stationed in other parts of the island.

Majorca, the antient Palma, is the capital, and is seated on a bay between two capes, in thirty-nine degrees forty minutes latitude, and in two degrees thirty-six minutes east longitude, on the west side of the island. It is fortified in the modern taste; is large, and has broad streets, spacious squares, stately stone houses, and twenty-two churches, besides chapels and oratories. The largest square is that of Born, which is encompassed on every side with grand buildings, from whence the principal inhabitants view the bull-fights and other shows. The cathedral is a large and magnificent structure, and the bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Valencia. In the city are six hospitals, and three other foundations for women. It has a royal audience, in which the governor presides, an university, and a court of inquisition. The inhabitants are computed at about ten thousand. This city was taken by the English in 1706, and retaken in 1715.

There are several small towns in the island besides the capital, and round it are a considerable number of small islands, the principal of which are,

Cabrera, which is so called from the multitude of goats found there. It is all over mountainous, and uninhabited, except its spacious and secure harbour, the entrance into which fronts Majorca, and is defended by a castle, in which is always kept a small garrison. This island is a place for exiles.

Las Bledes is of some consideration; it was formerly very populous, and is still distinguished by having a good quarry of marble.

Dragonera is about a thousand paces in length, nine hundred broad, and twelve hundred from Majorca. It is uninhabited, and only produces an edible bird of prey called a Spaniard. It has, however, a fortress on a hill called Mount Popia.

We now come to Minorca, a considerable island fifty miles to the north-east of the island of Majorca. It is about thirty miles in length, twelve in breadth, and is chiefly valued for its excellent harbour of Port Mahon. The south shore of the island is smooth, but towards the north very rugged; and may in general be considered as a mountainous country, with some fruitful valleys. The sea has so withdrawn from this island, that near the harbour are several new flats, which are turned into garden-grounds. The air is moist; the heat in Fahrenheit's thermometer placed in the sun rises only to a hundred and two degrees, and is consequently not very intense: nor is the quicksilver known to sink very often under forty-one, which is short of the freezing point. The soil cannot be extolled for its fertility; besides, the water being hard, nephritic disorders are common here. The hedgehog is in this island esteemed a venomous animal, it being supposed to corrupt the water, particularly in rutting-time in the spring. One of the most profitable commodities of the country is salt, which the sun prepares in cavities between the rocks. Some of the wine is excellent, and the inhabitants are said to sell to the English as much of it as amounts annually to twenty-seven thousand pounds sterling. Here is great plenty of fish, particularly of wilks, which are of great service to the commonalty in Lent. Rabbits are to be met with here in great plenty; here are also wool, honey, wax, and capers, which grow upon the walls; but these, as well as olives and cotton, are also cultivated in plantations. The palm-trees here bear no fruit. The opuntia is very common, and plentifully eaten, as are also the acorns; and the myrtles, which abound here, are of great advantage to tanners. The inhabitants, however, are obliged to have their chief necessities, as corn, beef, brandy, tobacco, linen, stuffs, books, relics, Agnus Deis, from abroad; and all these together are said to stand them in no less every year than seventy-one thousand two hundred pounds sterling.

The natives live mostly on vegetables, love dancing, and have such a turn for poetry, that the very peasants challenge each other to trials of their poetic genius. They are very dexterous with their slings, and with them command their cattle; but as they are far from being industrious, they neglect many advantages they might

enjoy by husbandry and trade. The houses on the island are computed at about three thousand and eighty-nine, though the inhabitants are said to amount to twenty-seven thousand.

The English took this island from the Spaniards in 1708, after which it was confirmed to them by the treaty of Utrecht; but it was invaded by the French in 1756, when, after a very brave resistance under general Blakeney, the garrison was obliged to surrender, the French having invested Fort St. Philip with an army of fifteen thousand men, well provided with all military stores; but it was again restored to the English by the late treaty of peace. The principal places in the island are the following:

Port Mahon is defended by the castle of St. Philip, and works of great strength cut in the rock, on account of its being esteemed one of the most commodious harbours in Europe. Its entrance is indeed somewhat difficult, from the several rocks within it; but on the inside it is landlocked, and perfectly secure from tempests. Near it lies the little trading town of Mahon, from whence it takes its name.

Citadella, the capital of the whole island, and the seat of the governor, is fortified, and consists of about six hundred houses.

The island of Ivica, or Yvica, the antient Ebusus, lies fifty-six miles to the south-west of the island of Majorca, and is about five miles in length and four broad. The soil is not unfruitful; but is little cultivated, most of the inhabitants being taken up with the salt-trade, as being most profitable. It is very mountainous, yet, besides pines, produces fruit-trees of various kinds. Ivica, the capital, is fortified in the modern manner; but is much dwindled from what it was in the times of the Carthaginians and Romans. It is the residence of the governor, from whom there lies an appeal to the royal audience at Majorca.

Formentera, the antient Ophiusa and Collubaria, or the Adder Island, was formerly well inhabited, but at present is forsaken and desert, which is owing to the African corsairs, who are continually swarming about it. The island contains some harbours, and good anchoring-places; but all that is to be seen there is a kind of wild ass.

C H A P. XXVII.

Of the Kingdom of PORTUGAL.

S E C T. I.

Its Name, Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, Produce, and Rivers.

THIS country was formerly called Lusitania; but its boundaries were then different from those it has at present. The name of Portugal is by some thought to arise from Portus Gallus, or Portus Gallorum, from the multitude of French which came to the city of Porto, on the river Douro, in order to assist the Christians against the Moors. But the more general opinion is, that it is derived from a town on the river Douro, by the antients called Cale; but by the moderns changed to Gaya: opposite to this place a new town, with a harbour, was built by the inhabitants, who gave it the name of Portucale, or the Port of Cale, which, by its uninterrupted prosperity, proved the origin of the present flourishing city of Porto; and the whole country from hence received the name of Portugal.

This kingdom, which is the most western in Europe, is bounded on the north by the Spanish province of Galicia; on the east by the provinces of Leon, Estremadura, and Andalusia; and on the south and west by the Atlan-

tic ocean; extending from the thirty-sixth degree fifty minutes to the forty-second degree three minutes north latitude, and between the seventh and tenth degree of west longitude from London. Its length from Valença, the most northern town in it, to Sagres, the most southern, near Cape St. Vincent, is about three hundred and ten miles; and its greatest breadth, from Peniche, a sea-port in Estremadura, to Salvaterra, on the frontiers of Spain, is a hundred and twelve.

The climate is much more temperate than in Spain, though it is a little different in the several provinces. The northern parts feel a kind of painful cold in winter, though this is chiefly owing to the rains which fall at that season, and in the southern the summer heats are very great. However, both winter and summer are very supportable; for cooling sea-breezes, during the latter, refresh the country, and the season of spring is extremely delightful.

The country is in many parts mountainous, and these mountains contain the ores of silver, copper, tin, and iron: but the Portuguese being supplied with metals from their possessions in other parts of the globe, and particularly with abundance of gold from America, no mines are worked in their own country. Gems of all kinds, as

turquois and hyacinths, are also found in the mountains; and particularly a beautiful variegated marble, with many other curious fossils of the lapidary kind, of which several sorts of work are made: here are also very good mill-stones, and on the hill of Alcantara, not far from Lisbon, is a remarkable mine of salt-petre.

Though the soil is very fruitful, agriculture is so much neglected, that above half the country lies waste, and the inhabitants are supplied with a great part of their corn by the English and Dutch, and have Indian corn from Africa. Portugal, however, abounds in excellent wine and oil; the greatest part of the latter is made in the province of Alentejo, for the olive-trees thrive better here, near the sea, than up in the country. Here are also abundance of oranges, lemons, figs, pomegranates, raisins, almonds, chesnuts, and other fruit. It produces great plenty of fine honey, and consequently of wax. The best honey found in the fields is almost of a white colour, and of a most agreeable flavour; and the wood-honey is more agreeable to the taste than in other countries.

As Portugal has some excellent pastures, particularly in the country about Montefrella and near Ourique, the grazing is in some places very considerable, and there are seen an uncommon number of horned cattle and sheep; but in most places it is at so low an ebb, that the greatest part of their oxen come from Spain. The horses are not large, but very fleet; and they have fine mules, which sell for a great price. The Portuguese breed more asses than horses, the latter being clandestinely imported from Spain.

From the mountains issue several streams and small rivers, which fertilize the valleys and fields, and either join the great rivers in their course, or discharge themselves separately into the sea: but all the great rivers of Portugal have their sources in Spain. The principal of these are the Minho, the Lima, or Lethe, the Douro, the Tajo, or Tagus, the largest river in the kingdom, and the Guadiana, with the Cayado; which last rises in the mountains of Trazos, and discharges itself into the sea below Barcelos.

All these rivers abound in fish; and the three principal, namely the Douro, the Tagus, and Guadiana, divide the kingdom into three parts.

S E C T. II.

The Manners, Customs, Persons, Dress, Houses, Furniture, Method of Travelling, Religion, &c.

EMANUEL de Farca, a Portuguese writer, describing his countrymen, says, "The nobility think themselves gods, and require a sort of adoration; the gentry aspire to equal them; and the common people disdain to be thought inferior to either." This pride is the characteristic both of the Spaniards and Portuguese; and here the grandees and their ladies carry their haughty spirit to such an extravagant height, that they stand upon the nicest punctilios with respect to rank and titles. The ladies of quality are served by their maids and slaves on the knee; and indeed the women of quality will scarce be spoken to by mean people in any other posture: a degree of haughtiness practised in no other Christian country, and which they probably received from the Moors. But this is far from being the worst part of their character; for it is become a proverb, that a Spaniard stripped of all his good qualities, makes a perfect Portuguese. Indeed they are generally characterized, as being cruel, treacherous, malicious, and revengeful, both to one another and to strangers; crafty in their dealings, and the meaner sort addicted to thieving. But to this general character there are many noble exceptions.

The Portuguese ladies are small of stature, with their complexion pretty much upon the olive; their features delicate; but their visage thin: their hair is black and shining, and their eyes sparkling; nor do they want a good share of wit. In short, they are for the most part generous, charitable, and modest. They wear hoops, and several gowns, one over another, of rich stuffs trimmed with gold and silver lace; but the uppermost is said to be of coarse black stuff, and so long that it trails upon

the ground. Their shoes are of black Spanish leather, straight as a glove, and without heels; whence within doors they seem to slide along rather than to walk. When they go abroad they have pattens, which are a kind of silk sandals fastened to rings or plates, that raise them half a foot from the ground, and make them walk very awkwardly; but in the house they neither wear hoops nor pattens. The stays, in which they have but little bone, are high before, but scarce reach half way up their backs behind, and consequently would expose the tawny complexion of their skins, if their shoulders were not covered with paint. Their hands and feet are small and well proportioned, and their wide sleeves, with broad ruffles, buttoned at the wrists, make their hands appear less than they are. The people of quality wear very fine linen, and as this is scarce and dear, the meaner sort have none; for rather than wear coarse linen, they will go without. The ladies wear about their necks a broad laced tucker, and instead of a girdle tie a string of medals or relics, or perhaps the cord of some religious order, about their waist, the ends of which reach down to the ground. Across the top of their stays they have a kind of breast-plate of diamonds, from whence there hangs a chain of pearls, or ten or twelve little knots of diamonds. They have likewise bracelets, rings, and pendants in abundance; but no necklaces. In their hair they wear a variety of precious stones, sometimes in the form of artificial butter-flies, or other insects; sometimes they adorn their hair with ribbons and feathers of various colours. When they go abroad they throw a veil over all, and women who are advanced in years wear a fine coil over their hair; but many of the young ladies have none.

The Portuguese gentlemen commonly wear black, and those of the court frequently follow the French fashions.

With respect to their houses and furniture, they have usually a great many rooms on a floor. The floors and ceilings are formed of a plain white plaster, that looks like polished marble. They change their furniture and apartments according to the season of the year; and upon the lower floors of their summer apartments they usually throw water every morning, which soon dries up, and leaves a refreshing coolness. Upon these floors they spread fine mats, and cover the walls with them chair-high; above these are hung pictures and looking-glasses, and all round the rooms of the ladies apartments cushions of silk or velvet are laid upon the mats, which they sit upon cross-legged, as hath been already observed with respect to the Spanish ladies. Between these cushions are fine tables and cabinets, and, at certain distances, vases of silver, in which are orange or jessamine trees, and in their windows they have frames of straw-work, to keep out the scorching beams of the sun.

In the upper apartments the hangings, cabinets, looking-glasses, paintings, and plate, are extremely rich, and the floors are frequently covered with Turkey carpets. In winter their beds and hangings are of velvet, trimmed with gold or silver lace; but in summer they use no curtains, except very thin ones, made of gauze, or some other slight stuff to keep out the gnats.

Vessels of copper, tin, or pewter, are said to be never seen in the houses of persons of quality, where they only use silver, or earthen-ware, and have many dozens of silver plates, and a great number of dishes of the same metal, with other utensils in proportion. But amidst all this wealth, the bad œconomy of the grandees is scarce credible, and reduces them to a necessitous condition, even while they make this glittering appearance. Most of them pass their lives in or near the capital, without ever visiting their estates, unless they happen to be disgraced at court: they leave every thing to their steward, and are above inspecting his accounts. Their tradesmen deliver their goods upon trust, and set down their own prices, being pretty well assured their bills will not undergo a strict examination. It is beneath a person of quality to endeavour to beat down the price of a piece of silk, or other goods, or even to take change of a shopkeeper out of a piece of gold; and as the tradesman frequently gives seven or eight years credit, he is obliged to set down double the price the goods might be bought for with ready money. They seldom, however, lose their debts, for the

the Spanish and Portuguese quality are men of such honour, that they readily assign a part of their rents for the payment of their debts, when pressed for money by their tradesmen.

The houses of the nobility are crowded with domestics; but their wages are very low, they having only eight-pence or ten-pence per day to purchase diet, cloaths, and every thing else; and a gentleman belonging to a grandee has only about fifteen crowns a month, though he is obliged to dress in velvet in winter, and silk in summer. Indeed the servants lay out the greatest part of their salaries in cloaths, living upon onions, pease, beans, and other pulse. One reason of the Portuguese nobility having such a number of servants is a custom which prevails among them of keeping all in their pay who have served their ancestors; so that some of the grandees have four or five hundred of both sexes, the greatest part of whom are merely for show, and seldom appear but on days of ceremony.

The quality, besides their ordinary servants, retain abundance of dwarfs of both sexes, who are dressed as fine as possible; they have also a pretty many slaves who are Moors, and are valued at four or five hundred crowns a piece. Over these they had formerly the power of life and death; but at present the government will not permit their killing them. Where two slaves marry, their children are slaves; but if a freeman marries a slave, the children are free. These slaves are their best servants, for the others will sometimes pride themselves on having as good blood as their masters. The very beggars rather demand than supplicate an alms, alledging their being descended from old Christians; and if you give them no money, must be dismissed with a compliment, upon which they go away contented.

The food of the Portuguese is nearly the same with that of the Spaniards, and they are equally sober and abstemious. The men mix water with their wine, and the women generally drink only water. It is customary with the Portuguese to betake themselves to sleep about noon, on account of the heat, and to transact most of their business in the morning and evening, or even at night.

The method of travelling here is much the same as in Spain, except their having fewer coaches, and travelling more by water than the Spaniards, from their country lying along the sea-coast, and its being crossed by many great rivers that rise in Spain. The mule or the litter are generally used on a journey; their horses, which are sprightly and well made, serve indeed for short visits, to prance at a procession, or before the windows of their mistresses; but the mules being stronger and surer-footed, are fittest to climb their mountains; but have only a slow pace.

Their language is a compound of the Spanish, Latin, Moorish, and French.

With respect to the religion of the Portuguese, they are the most bigotted Papists; but though the exercise of the Jewish religion be prohibited by the fundamental laws of the kingdom, yet all authors agree, that great numbers of secret Jews still remain among the Portuguese, and these too among the nobility, bishops, prebends, monks, nuns, and the very inquisitors themselves; and when unable to conceal themselves, escape to England or Holland, and there openly profess Judaism. The inquisition, which was introduced by king John III. and has since been set up in all the Portuguese dominions, except Brazil, is very active in detecting them, and those they call heretics, and no less rigorous in punishing them. Impious, cruel, and inhuman as this tribunal is, yet its festivals or solemn burnings, called *auto da fe*, or the act of faith, afford the highest delight to the infernal bigots, who, while their fellow-creatures, the supposed heretics, are burning in the flames, cry aloud, "Oh, what great goodness! Praised be the holy office." King John IV. in some measure, however, curtailed the power of the inquisition, commanding that all its sentences should be laid before the parliament, and that the accused should be allowed council for making their defence; and enacted, that only blasphemy, sodomy, heresy, sorcery, pagan customs, and the conversion of the Jews, should come under their cognizance.

The being an antient Christian, or in other words of an antient Christian race, is esteemed in Portugal a very high degree of pre-eminence, and far superior to what they call a new converted Christian, or a half new converted Christian; by which last they mean those whose new converted ancestors have married the antient Christians.

The number of convents in Portugal is said to amount to nine hundred, and most of them are very rich; but the Jesuits, who in multitude and opulence surpassed all the other orders, have lately been banished.

With respect to the ecclesiastics, there is a patriarch of Lisbon, who must always be a cardinal, and of the royal family. Next to him are three archbishops, who rank with marquesses, and the first of them the archbishop of Braga, who is primate of the kingdom, and lord spiritual and temporal of his city and the neighbouring country. The bishops hold the rank of counts. Besides those in Europe, the Portuguese have archbishoprics and bishoprics in the other three parts of the world.

The king of Portugal, besides the nomination of all bishops, receives a fourth of their revenue. The pope confirms the bishops, publishes his bulls in the kingdom without the king's previous consent, and, by his legate, governs the clergy, who with respect to taxes and contributions depend on him. He has also the gift of many small prebends. The pope's nuncios have here so lucrative a post, that they never fail of raising vast fortunes before they return to Rome.

S E C T. III.

The State of Learning and Arts; with the Commerce, Measures, Weights, and Coin of Portugal.

WITH respect to the state of learning in Portugal, it is at as low an ebb as possible. Indeed there are universities at Coimbra and Evora. At Lisbon is a royal academy for the Portuguese history; at Santarene is an academy of history, antiquities, and languages; and at St. Thomas an academy of sciences, on the same footing as that of Paris: but while bigotry continues here at its present enormous height, it is impossible for science to flourish. An Italian Capuchin, in 1746, published a work in the Portuguese tongue on the true method of study, in four volumes quarto, which he dedicated to the king of Portugal, and there asserts, that the schools of this country are places of retreat for those errors which by Newton and Des Cartes were driven out of the other parts of Europe; and according to him Galilæo, Des Cartes, Newton, and Gassendi are considered in Portugal as atheists and heretics, not to be mentioned but with some marks of execration. D'Oliveira, a Portuguese, says, in the preface to the first volume of *Memoirs*, "In our country we live in ignorance, without knowing it; but on leaving Portugal our eyes seem suddenly to open, and we immediately see that ignorance in which we were involved. Foreigners allow us understanding, docility, morals, discernment, and a genius for comprehending what is commendable and good; but our conceit, our gravity, our confined manner of life, which deprive us of all freedom of thought, expose us to just censures, and give rise to those hateful opinions other nations entertain of us. The main source of our ignorance, and the miserable cause of offence to all nations, is the custom in Portugal of publishing such a multitude of books, &c."

The Portuguese not only neglect agriculture, but all arts and manufactures, though the country has the finest materials; the greatest part of these are disposed of unwrought to foreigners, and when worked up are purchased again at a high price. The Portuguese indeed make a little linen, a variety of straw-work, and candy several kinds of fruit, particularly oranges. They have likewise some coarse silk and woollen manufactures; but these are trifling articles that support only a very small part of the nation.

The Portuguese, however, carry on a very extensive trade; but from this they reap little profit, being obliged to

to vend not only their own produce, but all the merchandize and riches brought from their settlements in other parts of the globe; and especially from America to the Europeans, particularly the English, in exchange for corn and manufactured goods of all kinds, with which they supply both Portugal and its possessions abroad. The chief commodities of the Portuguese consist of imports from their own colonies, particularly from Brazil, as tobacco, cacao-nuts, sugars, spices, drugs, ivory, ebony, brazil-wood, hides, gold, pearls, diamonds, and other valuable gems. In 1755 a new trading company to Grosplan and Maragnan was established here, and foreign merchants admitted to shares.

The Portuguese ships seldom frequent the other countries of Europe or the Levant, their voyages rather lying to the coasts of Africa, particularly the Gold Coast, whence they carry negroes to Brazil, and also purchase some gold and ivory. They likewise trade to their East India colonies of Goa, Diu, and Macao; but this traffic, though once very important, is now greatly declined. Brazil, however, is still a plentiful treasury to Portugal, and foreigners are entirely excluded from all commerce with that country. However, the Portuguese carry on a considerable clandestine traffic with the Spaniards, which chiefly consists in the exchange of gold and silver. From Brazil the Portuguese bring not only sugar and tobacco, but a great quantity of gold and diamonds. The fleet which annually sails to Brazil goes and returns in seven or eight months, and when homeward bound is convoyed by some men of war which are sent to meet it. Their ships from Africa or the East Indies also return home in company.

The long measure used by the Portuguese consists of *barros* and *cavidos*; a hundred *barros* make one hundred and sixty-four *cavidos*, or one hundred ninety-five and a half *Hamburgh* ells; but an hundred *cavidos* are only equal to sixty-one *barros*, or about one hundred and nineteen *Hamburgh* ells.

Of the Portuguese weights, we shall only mention the *arrobas* and *quintals*. In Portugal, an *arroba* is thirty-two pounds, and a *quintal* is four *arrobas*.

All sums of money are reckoned in Portugal by *reis* and *crusadoes*, which are not real, but only imaginary coins. The gold coins of Portugal are the double *moe-das* of one pound seven shillings value, the quarter of which is called a *millrei*, or a thousand *reis*, and has therefore the number one thousand marked upon it; and the *Johns*, worth three pound twelve shillings, which are subdivided into halves, quarters, eights, and sixteenths. The silver coins are the *vintain* of twenty *reis*; the half *teston* of fifty; and the whole *teston* of one hundred.

SECT. IV.

Of the Number of the Cities, Towns, and Inhabitants; with a concise history of Portugal, the present Nobility, the Titles of the King, the Orders of Knighthood, the Government, public Offices, Courts of Justice, Revenue and Forces.

WITHIN the kingdom of Portugal are nineteen cities, and five hundred and twenty-seven villages, or smaller towns. The number of the inhabitants may be pretty nearly computed, as lists of all the parishes in the towns and villages throughout the whole kingdom, and of the souls in every parish, have been made; and according to one of these lists in the year 1732, there is in the whole kingdom, three thousand three hundred and forty-four parishes, and one million seven hundred and forty-two thousand two hundred and thirty souls. But this list is said not to include the ecclesiastics, monks, and nuns, who amount to about three hundred thousand; so that in all Portugal, there were above two millions of people. The foreign merchants and colonies greatly diminish the number of inhabitants, and the multitude of convents must hinder their increase.

Portugal passed from the Phœnicians and Carthaginians into the hands of the Romans, and by the emperor Augustus was made a Roman province. Towards the beginning of the fifth century the Alans, and afterwards

the Swabians and the Visigoths, successively made themselves masters of this country. In the eighth century it was over-run by the Moors and Saracens, but gradually wrested from them by the Christians. Henry duke of Burgundy distinguishing himself by his eminent services against the Moors, Alphonso VI. king of Castile, gave him his daughter Theresa in marriage; created him earl of Portugal, and in 1110, left him that kingdom. Alphonso Henriques, his son and successor, obtaining a signal victory in 1139 over the Moors, was created king by the people; and in 1181, at an assembly of the state, the succession of the crown was settled. Alphonso III. added Algarve to the crown of Portugal. In 1383, the legitimate male line of this family becoming extinct in the person of Ferdinand. John I. his natural son was two years after admitted to the crown, and in his reign the Portuguese made settlements in Africa, and discovered the Islands of Azores. In 1482, his great grandson John II. received the Jews who had been expelled from Spain, and gave great encouragement to navigation and discoveries. Afterwards, in the reign of king Emanuel, Vasco de Gama discovered the way to the East Indies, by doubling the Cape of Good Hope. In 1500, Brazil was discovered by Don Pedro Alvarez, and the Spaniards made numerous discoveries in the East Indies, where they soon erected forts, subdued the neighbouring inhabitants, and carried on a bloody war in Africa. The power of Portugal was then at its height; but in 1580, on the decease of Henry the Cardinal, the male line of the royal family became extinct, and the succeeding year the kingdom became united to Spain. The Portuguese now lost most of the advantages they had obtained under their own monarchs; their possessions in the East Indies, in Brazil, and the coast of Africa, were neglected, and many of them wrested from them by the Dutch, who were at war with Spain, and by the other maritime powers, while at home the Portuguese were much oppressed; but in 1640, they shook off the Spanish yoke, by electing John duke of Braganza for their king. This prince, who assumed the title of John IV. drove the Dutch out of Brazil, and from him all the succeeding kings of Portugal have been descended. Alphonso VI. was dethroned by his brother Peter, who in 1668, concluded a treaty with Spain, by which Portugal was declared an independent kingdom. Don Joseph, the present king, ascended the throne in 1750; but his reign has been filled with a variety of calamities, which have deeply affected the kingdom in general, and particularly Lisbon: an earthquake, a fire, famine, an assassination plot against the sovereign, executions upon executions, the scaffolds and wheels for torture reeking with the noblest blood; imprisonment after imprisonment of the greatest and most distinguished personages, which produced the expulsion of the Jesuits, who are said to have been concerned in the horrid scheme of murdering their king. The invasion of the kingdom by a stronger and more powerful nation; the numerous troops of the enemy laying waste the country with fire and sword, and rolling like distant thunder towards the capital. "The Spanish ministry, says Mr. Clarke, had already decreed the doom of Portugal, and nothing was to be heard at the Escorial, but Carthage is fallen. Carthaginian, perhaps, or Jewish story, may possibly afford a scene something like this, but for the shortness of the period, not so big with events, tho' in their final destruction superior. From that, indeed, under the hand of Providence, the national humanity and generosity of Great Britain has preserved the Portuguese: and it remains now to be seen, in future treaties, how that people will express their gratitude."

The nobility are extremely numerous; many of them are of the royal blood, and descended from the natural sons of the royal family. The nobility are divided into the high and low: the higher, styled titled nobility, consist of dukes, marquises, counts, viscounts, and barons. Those who are *grandees*, and styled *dons*, are, like those of Spain, divided into three classes, and receive from the royal treasury a pension sufficient to support their respective dignities. The sons of a duke are also *grandees*, and his daughters hold the rank of marchionesses. The inferior nobility, or gentry, are termed *fidalgos*, and are

are incapable of bearing the title of don, unless they obtain the king's permission.

The king's titles run thus, Joseph by the grace of God, king of Portugal, and of the Algarves on this and the other side of the sea of Africa; lord of Guinea, of the conquest, trade, and navigation in Æthiopia, Arabia, Persia, India, &c. and in 1749, Pope Benedict XIV. conferred on him the title of Most Faithful Majesty.

The arms of Portugal are a shield argent, with five small shields azure, placed crosswise, on each of which are five silver pieces in the form of a St. Andrew's cross. On the border of the shield are the arms of Algarve, which consists of seven ancient castles.

The principal order of knighthood is that of Christ, instituted by king Dennis, soon after the abolition of the knights Templars. They have four hundred and fifty commanderies, and wear for a badge of the order, a red cross within a white one.

The order of St. James, has forty-seven small towns, with one hundred and fifty commanderies, besides the splendid convent of Santos o Novo, a little to the west of Lisbon. The badge of this order is a red sword, in the shape of a cross, the hilts resembling those of ancient swords.

The order of Aviez has forty-nine commanderies, and the badge belonging to it, is a green cross in the form of a lily. These three orders are all religious; but the knights have leave to marry, and the kings of Portugal are perpetual grand masters. The knights of Malta have also twenty-three commanderies here.

With respect to the government of Portugal, the king is in many respects an unlimited monarch; but on the imposition of new taxes, the settlement of the succession, and other important concerns, the consent of the cortes, or states, which consist of the clergy, the high nobility, and the commons, is necessary. The clergy are here represented by the archbishops and bishops, the high nobility are, as hath been already said, the dukes, marquises, counts, viscounts and barons, and the representatives of the commons are chosen by the cities and towns. Among them are also reckoned the lower nobility, and the masterpieces of the order of knighthood. This assembly never meets but by the king's proclamation, and though the crown is hereditary, yet the consent of the several states is necessary to the succession of a brother's children. The crown too devolves to the female line; but this right is forfeited, if they marry out of the kingdom.

The highest office is the council of state, in which all the great affairs of the kingdom are transacted, with the disposal of all ecclesiastical and temporal offices, as the nomination of all archbishops and bishops, viceroys, captain-generals, governors of the provinces, with every thing relating to peace and war, embassies, alliances, &c. In the year 1732, this council consisted of five ecclesiastics, and an equal number of officers, with the secretary of state.

The council of war regulates all military affairs, and every thing relating to them.

The council of the palace is the highest tribunal, to which causes may be brought from inferior courts by appeal; it nominates to all offices belonging to the law, besides disputes of jurisdiction, between the lay and spiritual courts; examines the briefs of the Pope's nuncios; and, besides a variety of other business; draws up all laws, orders, edicts, privileges, and grants. This court consists of a president and several counsellors, whose number is not limited; five secretaries, each of whom has his particular department. And under this tribunal is the chancery, which consists of a chancellor, a treasurer, and other officers.

The *Casa da Supplicação*, is the first and highest tribunal of justice, and without appeal in civil and criminal cases. To its ordinary jurisdiction belong the provinces of Estremadura, Alentejo, and Algarve; and to it lie final appeals from the following court.

The second high court of appeal, has its seat at Porto, and to its ordinary jurisdiction belong the provinces of Entre Duro e Minho, Trazos Montes and Beira. All processes not exceeding twenty-five thousand reis in moveables, and three hundred thousand in immoveables

are finally determined in this court, which consists of twenty-three officers.

The treasury court is divided into three offices, one of which superintends the finances of the kingdom; the other those of Africa; and the third, those of the Indies, the magazines, and armaments.

For the inferior administration of justice, each of the six provinces of the kingdom have inferior courts.

The king's revenue arises first, from the hereditary estates of the royal house of Braganza, to which belong fifty villas. Secondly, from the royal domains. Thirdly, from the customs, of which those of Lisbon are most considerable. Fourthly, from the taxes. Fifthly, from the excise, which is very high, and paid even by the clergy. Sixthly, from the monopoly of Brazil snuff, which, in 1755, was farmed for three millions of crusadoes. Seventhly, from the coinage. Eighthly, from the sale of indulgencies, which the Pope renews to the king every three years by a special bull. Ninthly, from the grand masterpieces of the order of knighthood, which the king holds in his own hands. Tenthly, from the ecclesiastical tithes in foreign countries. Eleventhly, from the duty of the fifth part of all gold brought from Brazil, which annually amounts to three hundred thousand pounds sterling; and lastly, from the farm of the Brazil diamonds.

The military forces in time of peace, when complete, amount, according to Dr. Busching, to no more than fourteen thousand men, and the same author observes, that the Portuguese navy in 1754, consisted only of twelve ships of war, and these but weakly manned.

The Portuguese foreign dominions, which were formerly extremely considerable, are now greatly diminished.—They at present possess in the Atlantic ocean, the Cape de Verd islands, St. Thome, &c. In Africa, fort Magazan on the coast of Morocco, Cacheo on the Negro coast; several forts in the kingdom of Congo, Loango, Angola, and Monomotapa; a fort in Monomotapa; the town of Mosambique in the kingdom of that name, and the town of Sofala. In Asia, the towns of Diu, Goa, Onor, Macao, &c. In America, Brazil, part of Guiana, and Paraguay.

The provinces of Portugal beginning at the south east, are the following, Estremadura, Beira, Algarve, Alentejo, Estremadura, Beira, Trazos Montes, and Entre Duro e Minho. We shall begin with the former, and treat of them in this order.

S E C T. V.

Of the Province of Algarve, or Algarva: Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns.

THE kingdom of Algarve, or Algarva, is the most southern province of Portugal, and is bounded on the north by the province of Alentejo, from which it is separated by the mountains called Caldeirao and Monachique. On the east it borders on the Spanish province of Andalusia; and on the south and west on the sea. Its length from north to south is computed at about eighty-four miles, and from east to west at about twenty-four.

As palm-trees abound in Algarve, the poor people employ themselves in working up the leaves into a variety of forms. But this province, notwithstanding its maritime situation, commodious harbours, and inland fertility, seems to have been treated by the kings of Portugal rather as a conquered country, than a province of the kingdom.

Algarve anciently comprehended a much larger tract than it does at present; for it extended, not only beyond the whole coast of Cape St. Vincent, as far as the town of Almeria, in the kingdom of Granada, but along the opposite coast of Africa; hence the kings of Portugal stile themselves kings of Algarve, both on this and the other side of the sea, in Africa; they having formerly made themselves masters of Tangiers, Ceuta, and several other parts of the African coast in the Mediterranean.

The face of the country is generally mountainous ; but affords plenty of wine, figs, raisins, oil, and almonds, which are however inferior to those of Spain ; and it likewise abounds in dates ; but they have not always corn sufficient for their own use.

It contains four cities, twelve towns, and sixty villages, some of which are very populous ; with sixty-seven parishes, and sixty thousand six hundred and eighty-eight inhabitants. This province is divided into three jurisdictions, the principal places in which are

Lagos, a city in a fine bay, navigable for the largest ships, it is seated in latitude thirty-six degrees fifty-one minutes, and in nine degrees thirty-six minutes west longitude, about five leagues to the eastward of Cape St. Vincent. Its situation will not admit of a regular fortification ; but the city is walled, and the harbour well secured by two forts. The inhabitants amount to about two thousand six hundred ; it contains two parishes, and four convents, some chapels, an house of mercy, and is the residence of the governor and captain-general of Algarve, of a corregidor, and other officers. Here the English fleets, bound to the Streights, usually take in fresh water.

Tavira is a city pleasantly seated on a bay, which has a harbour defended by two forts, and lies twenty-five miles to the east of Faro. The little river Sequa, which runs into the bay, divides it into the east and west-town. Besides its walls, and the above ports, the town is defended by a castle, and contains above four thousand seven hundred inhabitants, two parish churches, one house of mercy, one hospital, and five convents.

Faro is a considerable port, strongly situated on the ocean, in a level country, in the thirty-sixth degree forty-eight minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree twelve minutes west longitude, twenty-four miles to the east of Lagos, and is defended by a good modern fortification, with a castle and other works. It contains four thousand five hundred inhabitants, and is the see of a bishop ; but has only a cathedral, one church, a house of mercy, an hospital, and four convents. The town is subject to the queens of Portugal. The sea in its neighbourhood produces abundance of good fish, and most of the inhabitants are employed in the fishery.

S E C T. VI.

Of the Province of Alentejo ; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Cities.

THE province of Alentejo, which is one of the largest in the kingdom, is bounded on the north by Estremadura and Beira, on the east by Andalusia and Spanish Estremadura, on the south by Algarve, and on the west by the Atlantic ocean ; extending from north to south about a hundred and twenty-seven miles, and nearly as much in breadth. It is called Alentejo, from its being situated beyond the Tejo, or Tagus.

Its principal rivers are the Tagus and Guadiana ; and though it contains some mountains, it is for the most part level and very proper for tillage. Its principal products are wheat and barley ; it also produces excellent wine and admirable fruit ; the best sweet or China oranges come from hence, and they have abundance of game and fish. Their mutton and beef are good, and they make better cheese than in any other province. Here are also several kinds of marble, and in some parts are found various gems. The fertility of this province has frequently rendered it the theatre of war ; and on this account the king of Portugal has here several good fortifications. The whole province contains four cities, eighty-eight towns, three hundred and fifty-six parishes, and about two hundred and sixty-eight thousand and eighty souls ; and is divided into eight districts, the principal places in which are the following :

Evora, a city sixty-eight miles to the south-east of Lisbon, is seated on a hill, which is at some distance almost surrounded with mountains : on the north and east stands Mount Ossa ; to the south, the mountains of Portal and Viana ; and to the west, Montemaro. The inhabi-

tants amount to about twelve thousand : it has five parish-churches, including the cathedral, one house of mercy, one royal and several other hospitals, and within its circuit and neighbourhood are twenty-one convents and colleges. It has been lately fortified with twelve whole and demi-bastions, and on the north side is defended by a quadrangular fort, with four bastions, and a like number of ravelins. It was antiently only a bishop's see, but in 1540 was raised to an archbishopric, under which are the bishops of Elvas and Faro. It is the capital of the province, and has an university.

Estremos is a city which stands six or seven leagues to the north-west of Evora, on a hill which it entirely covers, and is divided into the Higher and Lower Town. The houses of people of condition make a handsome appearance, being built with white marble, which they find near the city. It contains three parish-churches, one house of mercy, one hospital, and six convents, with above six thousand five hundred inhabitants. Without the town is so large a spring, that it turns several mills near its source. It was strongly fortified when Portugal shook off the Spanish yoke, it being not far from the frontiers of Andalusia. They make here a very fine red earthen-ware, great quantities of which were formerly exported to England and other parts of Europe.

Villa Viciosa, or the Delightful Town, stands in a most fertile pleasant country between Elvas and Estremos, and is also defended by a castle which commands the place. It is particularly remarkable for having a large and beautiful palace, with an adjoining park three leagues in circumference. The city contains only two parishes, six monasteries, three nunneries, a house of mercy, and an hospital, with about three thousand seven hundred inhabitants. In the suburbs is an old temple formerly dedicated to Proserpine, and now to St. James. Many inscriptions have been found here in honour of that pagan deity.

The city of Elvas stands about twenty-four miles to the eastward of Estremos, and six from the frontiers of Spanish Estremadura ; it is seated on a hill, defended by a castle, and strongly fortified ; the works being of hewn-stone. It contains three parish-churches, besides the cathedral, one house of mercy, one hospital, and seven convents. The inhabitants of this place and its district, which consists of ten parishes, amount to about twelve thousand four hundred persons. One of its principal curiosities is a very large reservoir, or cistern, so spacious, that it is said to hold water enough for the inhabitants for six months. The water is conveyed into it through an aqueduct about four miles in length, supported in some places by three arches one over the other.

Olivenza is seated in a large plain on the east side of the river Guadiana, fifteen miles to the south of Elvas ; and as the Spanish Estremadura lies near it, it is fortified after the modern way, having nine bastions, eight ravelins, with a castle, and other works ; it has also two parish-churches, one house of mercy, a monastery, two nunneries, and an hospital ; and, including its district, in which are four parishes, contains about five thousand three hundred souls.

Campo Mayor is a modern fortification, in which are four whole and five demi-bastions, which lie about the distance of a musket-shot from the town. It is seated in a wide plain, ten miles to the north of Elvas ; and though it contains only one parish-church, two convents, one house of mercy, and an hospital, has no less than five thousand three hundred inhabitants.

Portalegre is a fine city, situated at the foot of a lofty mountain in an agreeable country, ninety miles to the eastward of Lisbon, and near the frontiers of Spain. It is fortified after the antique taste, with walls and towers, and contains about five thousand six hundred inhabitants. It has a cathedral, four parish-churches, five convents, a house of mercy, and an hospital. In the year 1550 it was erected into the see of a bishop, in whose diocese are forty-one parishes.

Beja stands on an eminence in the midst of a fertile plain, ninety miles to the south-east of Lisbon, and nine to the westward of the Guadiana. It was formerly called Pax Julia, and also Pax Augusta. It is of a round form,

form, and defended by an antique wall and towers. It was antiently a Roman colony, and three of the present gates are said to be of Roman architecture. This city contains six thousand two hundred inhabitants, and is divided into four parishes, seven convents, one house of mercy, and an hospital,

Serpa is situated on a rocky and uneven eminence, eighty-three miles to the south-east of Lisbon, and about a league to the eastward of the Guadiana; it contains two parishes, a monastery, and a house of mercy, with about four thousand inhabitants. The adjacent fields are extremely agreeable, being planted with groves of olive and fig-trees.

S E C T. VII.

Of the Province of Estremadura; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Cities; with a particular Description of the City of Lisbon.

ESTREMADURA, or Extremadura, is bounded on the north by the river Mondego, which separates this province from Beira; on the east by the same province of Beira, and that of Alentejo; on the south by another part of Alentejo; and by the ocean on the west; extending about an hundred English miles in length, and forty-five from east to west.

It obtained its name from a custom observed by the kings of Leon, during the dominion of the Moors in Spain, of nominating their conquests, of which the present kingdom of Portugal was a part, by their situation with respect to the Douro, all the countries beyond that river being called *Estrema Durii*.

The soil is esteemed the most fruitful in Portugal, it producing collectively what is found only separately in the other provinces; particularly corn, wine, oil, millet, pulse, and fruit of all kinds. The country that lies between Lisbon and Abrantes is a most delightful plain, thick set with olives and other fruit-trees. This province also produces and exports great quantities of sea-salt. Through it runs the large river Tagus, which, after forming a spacious and secure harbour at Lisbon, loses itself in the sea.

Estremadura at present contains three cities, an hundred and eleven towns, and three hundred and fifteen parishes, which in 1732 were computed to contain two hundred and ninety-three thousand five hundred and ninety-eight souls, exclusive of the inhabitants of the parishes of the east part of Lisbon, which are not brought into the account; and the province is divided into eight jurisdictions, the principal places in which are the following:

Lisbon, the metropolis of the kingdom, is situated in the thirty-eighth degree forty minutes twenty-five seconds north latitude, and in the fifth degree thirty-seven minutes fifteen seconds west longitude. It extends from east to west along the north side of the river Tagus, and resembles an amphitheatre, containing within its circuit seven steep hills. The length of the whole city is near two miles; but its breadth is inconsiderable. The valleys of these hills form streets above a mile in length; but most of them are very narrow, ill paved, and dirty. Those streets that have a descent, and are washed clean by the rain, are much the sweetest; for the rest are so full of all manner of filth thrown out of the houses, that it is not easy to pass them. The houses of the citizens are generally old ill-contrived buildings, with lattice windows, which are no great ornament; but those of the nobility are very handsome structures, built with hewn-stone, and have both yards and gardens that take up a great deal of ground; but few of them have courts before them. This city contained, before the late earthquake, forty parish-churches, besides the cathedral, and about as many monasteries of both sexes. The finest square is that before the royal palace, which forms one side of it, another side runs along the river, and on the opposite side is a range of fine buildings. This square, before the period just mentioned, was extremely delightful; for here were the most elegant buildings in the city: here they celebrate their bull-fights; and here they more

barbarously burn those unhappy people who have the misfortune to be condemned by the inquisition. Near this is another square on the bank of the river, where the principal market is held; but the largest is that called the Rucio, where the several hills about it form a kind of amphitheatre, and it is adorned with several magnificent houses of the nobility.

The king's palace is the most remarkable building, and makes a very splendid appearance. The apartments are grand, very commodious, and richly furnished in winter; but in summer they take down the hangings and curtains, and there only remain the bare walls, which are, however, adorned with pictures. In it are two galleries about a hundred paces in length, in the first and second stories, with balconies in the windows. In the third story is the royal library, which contains a great number of valuable books in presses. Within the palace are also several large rooms where the cortes, or states, the council of war, and the courts of justice assemble. The king's chapel is an elegant building, richly adorned, and shining with gold and azure, the very silver alone being valued at about a million sterling. Adjoining to the palace is a square court surrounded with a piazza, where the merchants meet, and expose their goods to sale.

Since the erection of the royal chapel into a patriarchate, the city, with respect to its ecclesiastical jurisdiction, is divided into two dioceses: East Lisbon, which is subject to the archbishop, and contains sixteen parishes; and West Lisbon, under the patriarch, contains twenty-one parishes. The pomp assumed by the patriarch on festivals is said to surpass even that of the pope.

The churches of Lisbon are very fine, but the cathedral is a very heavy building, though it is handsome and richly ornamented within; as indeed are most of their churches, with a profusion of paintings, images, crosses, pixes, &c. costly vestments for the priests, and dresses for the saints; many of them enriched with diamonds, and other precious stones; with a vast quantity of silver candlesticks and other ornaments. The convents and colleges amount to thirty-two for the monks, and eighteen for nuns; some of these have most magnificent churches, particularly that of the Dominicans, in which are three chapels shining with gold from the pavement to the roof; this structure is very large, and on the day of an *Auto da fé* is the rendezvous of the procession; and in it the sentence of the unhappy sufferers is publicly read. In the church of the Augustines, called Our Lady of Grace, is a cross of gold adorned with precious stones, which is valued at a hundred thousand crowns, and carried in procession at their grand festivals. The most remarkable of the other convents are, that of St. Bento, belonging to the Benedictines; St. Domingo Graça, where the Augustine hermits reside, which, besides a delightful prospect, resembles a stately palace.

Among the many noble hospitals in this city is the celebrated house of mercy, which is under the direction of a society composed of persons of the highest rank in the kingdom, the king and princes of the blood being frequently members of it. They not only breed up sixty boys, and give portions to a hundred and fourteen maidens, but distribute an incredible number of other charities, as relieving prisoners for debt, maintaining decayed persons that cannot beg, and assisting families that are ashamed to let their wants be publicly known.

The great hospital is obliged to receive all persons of whatever nation or religion; nor is this charity confined to the sick, or to such as meet with casual misfortunes, as broken limbs, blindness, &c. but extends to ideots, lunatics, and foundlings.

The inhabitants of the city do not at most exceed a hundred and fifty thousand. The government of Lisbon is lodged in a council, which consists of a president, who is always a person of the first rank, six counsellors, and several other inferior officers.

The trade of this place, and the navigation to and from it, is so very considerable, that the custom-house, which lies on the Tagus, is the principal source of the king's European revenues; and this is the grand magazine of all the goods which the Portuguese fetch from their foreign colonies. The harbour is very large, deep, secure, and convenient; and has two entrances, that on

the north, called the Corredor, lies between the sand-bank, the rock of Cachopos, and Fort St. Julian: the southern entrance, which is much broader and very convenient, is between Cachopos and the fort of St. Laurence. The city is walled round, having seventy-seven towers on the walls, and thirty-six gates. It has so increased by degrees, particularly toward the west, that the old walls now divide the two dioceses. In the center of the city, on one of the hills, stands a citadel that commands the whole place, and has caverns in it, in which four regiments of foot are constantly quartered. Close by the sea, at the distance of about ten miles from the city, both the entrances to the harbour are defended by two forts; that on the north stands on a rock in the sea, and is called St. Julian; the other to the south is built on piles on a sand-bank, and is named St. Laurence, but is more commonly called Bogio. Two Portuguese miles from St. Julian, and one from Lisbon, stands the fort of Belem, which commands the entrance into the city, where the masters of all ships coming up the Tagus must bring to, and give an account of themselves; and directly opposite to it on the south side is the fort of St. Sebastian, commonly called the Old Fort, which stands on the angle of a mountain, along which a little way on the other side of the city the passage is defended from the beginning of the harbour by a chain of twelve forts.

If we take a view of Lisbon from the river, or from the opposite shore, it affords an admirable prospect; for the city being built in the form of a crescent, and the palace, churches, convents, and other buildings rising gradually from the river one above another, we command the whole city at once. On the other hand, the view of the Tagus, from those windows of the town which command it, is remarkably pleasing: the small boats which sail with any wind or tide, and are continually passing; the river crowded with ships of all nations; the coming in of a Bahia or Brazil fleet; the opening of the river towards the bar, with the castle of Belem on the right, the king's palace, and the castle of St. Julian's on the left; all together form a fine and agreeable view.

In order to convey as distinct an idea as possible of the present condition of this city, and what it has suffered by the late dreadful earthquake, which happened on the first of November, 1755, we shall give the observations of the Rev. Mr. Clarke, who was there in the latter end of the year 1761. "After landing, says he, "we passed through some streets, near a mile in length, "where the houses were all fallen on each side, and lay "in that undistinguished heap of ruin, into which they "sunk at the first convulsive shocks. Not that the reader is to imagine, that the greatest part of that fine "city fell on that fatal morning; so far from it, that, I "believe, not above one-fourth part of it was destroyed: for it prevailed more in one particular quarter than "the rest; and there the desolation was almost universal, "scarce an house or building that was not thrown down. "In the other parts of the city, some single ill-conditioned, or ruinous buildings fell, but the rest stood. "And there is scarce a street but you will see shores, and "props fixed to the buildings on each side, to prevent "their falling even now; they having suffered so much "from the shocks they had received. Considering how "much time has elapsed since the earthquake, little has "been rebuilt in proportion.—They have built a custom-house, an arsenal, a theatre, and some few other "buildings. All agree, that the fire occasioned infinitely more havock than the earthquake. Thousands of "the inhabitants, unhappily, in the first confusion of "their fear, taking the ill-judged step of thronging in "to the churches; the doors of which being sometimes "shut by the violence of the crowd, and sometimes "locked by mistake, when the fire seized the roofs of "those buildings, these unhappy sufferers were most of "them destroyed; some by sheets of lead, that poured "like a molten deluge upon their heads; others mangled by the fall of the roofs, and the rest burnt alive. "One's imagination can scarce form a scene of confusion, horror, and death, more dreadful than this. "After the shocks were over, the fire continued burning "for many weeks; and it is thought, was one principal

"cause of their escaping the plague, as the putrefaction "of the bodies was by that means much less.

"The calculation of the number that perished, as "they kept no registers, must be in great measure conjectural; but that thousands and ten thousands were "destroyed, there is no doubt. The morning on which "it happened was most remarkably serene and pleasant, "particularly about ten o'clock, and in one quarter "more, all was involved in this dreadful scene of terror "and destruction. As this event produced many changes, "those among the commercial parts of the city were "not the least remarkable. One, who yesterday was "at the eve of bankruptcy, found himself to day with "his books cleared; and hundreds, who lived in ease "and affluence, as soon as they had recovered from their "first panic and dismay, saw want and poverty stare "them in the face."

The same author observes, that some of their churches, the arsenal, the theatre, which is an elegant building, and above all the aqueduct of Lisbon, deserve the attention of every traveller; the center arch for its height being one of the noblest perhaps in Europe. One thing, he observes, is remarkable, that during the earthquake this building stood, though many of the key-stones fell several inches, and hang, only because a small part of the key-stone was caught by the centers closing again.

Belem, about a mile from Lisbon, is a small town, where stands a port already mentioned, and a monastery belonging to the monks of St. Jerom, founded by king Emanuel. Its large and magnificent church, which was dedicated to our lady of Judah, whence the palace obtained the name of Belem, or Bethlehem, was lined with jasper and the finest marbles from top to bottom, and here were interred several kings and queens of Portugal; but in the year 1756, this structure suddenly sunk into the earth.

Mafra, a small town, containing about one thousand and forty inhabitants, near which king John V. erected a building of extraordinary magnificence, in a sandy, barren spot. This was done in pursuance of a vow made in a dangerous fit of illness, when he promised to found a convent for the poorest friary in the kingdom. Upon enquiry, the poorest convent appeared to be at Mafra, where twelve Franciscans lived together in a hut. To accomplish this vow, the king procured from Rome the draught of a building that was greatly to exceed the Escorial. This he erected: in the center stands a temple built entirely of marble, and behind the choir is a house endowed with a large revenue for two hundred Capuchins, who officiate in this pompous church as chaplains. To the right of this building is a superb and spacious palace for the king, the royal family, and the chief officers of the court. On the left is another palace, equal in grandeur to the former, for the patriarch and twenty-four canons, who have the privilege of wearing mitres. Twelve thousand people were employed in raising these structures, and, by certain computation it cost three fourths of the royal treasure, and of the gold of the Brazil fleets. At the distance of a mile from the church stands an elegant house, with a small wood, which has a beautiful effect in this sandy waste. The palace at Mafra looks towards the sea, and serves for a landmark.

Torres Vedras is seated in a low place among the mountains, and in its neighbourhood are all kinds of fruit. It is one of the most ancient towns in the kingdom: to the north it is washed by the little river Sigandro; it contains about two thousand two hundred and fifty inhabitants, four churches, three convents, and a castle, with one house of mercy, and an hospital.

The mountain of Cintra consists of large rocks of flint, some of which are ten feet in diameter, and lie on one another without any connection. It is also very rich in ore, and produces a great number of remarkable plants, and also a vein of loadstone. Near the summit are the ruins of an old Moorish town and fortress, with a reservoir which contains very fine water, to the depth of ten feet. Among the wastes and rocks between the mountain of Cintra, and the top of Cabo da Roca, is a tract ten miles in length, which abounds in wolves and a species of wild goats. At the foot of the mountain

of Cintra, is a town of the same name, which contains about one thousand nine hundred inhabitants, with four churches, and is defended by an old castle built in the Moorish taste. The air here is thought to be the best in all Portugal, it enjoying a pleasing coolness, while the heat of Lisbon is extremely sultry.

Thomar, a town seated in a pleasant plain near the ruins of the old city of Nabancia, from which it is separated to the north by the river Nabao. The inhabitants are about three thousand six hundred, and besides its two churches, one of which is collegiate, it contains one house of mercy, one hospital, and four convents, among which is that of the religious order of Christ, situated on a hill to the west of the town. This is the principal place belonging to the order, and the superior of the convent bears the title of prior and general of the order of Christ. In 1752, the king founded an academy of sciences here on the same footing as that of Paris, and not only assigned a liberal income for its support, but declared himself president. This place formerly belonged to the knights templars, and on their suppression, the order of Christ succeeded to their possessions, and to the government of Thomar.

Santarem, a town on the Tagus, about twelve or thirteen miles to the north east of Lisbon, is seated on a delightful plain, environed with mountains beautifully intersected with valleys. In its form it resembles an half moon, and is defended by a citadel erected in the modern taste. It contains thirteen churches, eleven monasteries, and two nunneries. One of its churches is collegiate, and belongs to the order of Aviz; it has also an academy of history, antiquities, and languages, founded in 1747; one house of mercy, one royal hospital, and two others.

Setubal, by the Dutch and English called St. Ubes, is a strong town, seated about twenty-two miles to the south of Lisbon, on a small bay, into which the river Sandao discharges itself; and has a harbour capable of receiving ships of any burthen. Besides its old walls and towns, it is strengthened with eleven whole, and two demi-bastions, with several other out-works. It has likewise a strong citadel called St. Philip's, in which is a spring of excellent water; with the fort of Outao near the harbour, which also serves for a light-house; and two smaller forts. In it are four churches, one house of mercy, one hospital, ten convents, and an academia problematica founded by John V. The town is under the jurisdiction of the order of St. James.

S E C T. VIII.

Of the Province of Beira; its Situation, and Extent; with a particular Account of the Mountain of Estrella, the Produce of the Country; and its principal Towns.

BEIRA is one of the largest provinces of Portugal, it being bounded on the north by the provinces of Entre Douro e Minho and Trazos Montes; on the east by Estremadura and Alentejo; and on the west by the sea. Its extent from east to west is about one hundred and two miles, and about the same from north to south. It is divided into Upper and Lower Beira, the former being the northern part, and lying on the sea-coast, and the latter towards Spain and Estremadura.

The mountain of Estrella, the Mons Herminius of the Romans, is very remarkable. The ascent from Villa St. Romæo at its foot, up to the summit, takes up two hours and a half. In several places it is found to be hollow, and the noise of a rapid stream running through it is distinctly heard. It has also a fine quarry of alabaster, and on the top the traveller is agreeably surprised to find verdant pastures and rivulets of a very clear and pleasant water; but what is most worthy of attention, is a lake environed with high rocks, the water of which issues out of the ground, and is very clear and tepid, with a kind of tremulous motion in the middle; and from the strong attraction towards one certain place, it is conjectured that it has an aperture through which it runs off again, and is the spring of another lake a little lower; and from these is formed a river that takes its course to the foot of the mountain. The snow of a deep valley in one part of it

furnishes Lisbon the whole summer, though it is at the distance of above sixty leagues.

This province produces wheat, rye, and millet; and in several parts excellent wine and oil, in such plenty, that considerable quantities of each are exported.

This province contains four cities, two hundred and thirty-four towns, a thousand and ninety-four parishes, and in 1732 it had five hundred and fifty-one thousand six hundred and eighty-six inhabitants. John V. erected it into a principality in honour of his grandson, the eldest son of the prince of Brazil. The principal places in this province are the following:

Coimbra, a city on the river Mondego, formerly called Colimbria, or Conimbriga, contains eleven thousand nine hundred inhabitants, a cathedral, nine parish-churches, eight convents, eighteen colleges, among which the Jesuits college was extremely large, and esteemed the finest edifice in the place. There are also one house of mercy, and an hospital. The cathedral and the rest of the churches and monasteries are handsome buildings, well adorned and beautified; but the streets and private houses have no great elegance in them, and, as the city stands on the side of a hill, they are generally uneven. Among the other public buildings is the bridge, which is a fine structure built with stone, and consists of two rows of arches, one above the other, forming a covered way, through which people pass without being exposed to the weather. The aqueduct which brings water to the city, is also admired.

The bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Braga; but has under him no less than three hundred and forty-three parishes. Here is an university, which is a magnificent structure, and has a rector, a governor, a chancellor, who is always prior of the convent of Santa Cruz in this city, with other professors and officers. The number of students is said to be two thousand. Here is also a court of inquisition.

The country about this city is extremely pleasant, and well planted with olives and vines.

The city of Lemego is situated near the river Douro, in a low country surrounded with mountains, and contains about four thousand four hundred inhabitants, two parish-churches, including the cathedral, four convents, one house of mercy, and an hospital. Its bishop is suffragan to the patriarch of Lisbon.

Aveiro is seated on a small bay into which the Vouga discharges itself, seven leagues to the south of Oporto, and nine to the northward of Coimbra. It has a harbour fit for ships of burthen, and is separated from the sea by sand-banks, with several little islands in which salt is made. The town consists of five wards, the fourth of which is the most antient, as well as the principal, and is walled in. The inhabitants amount to about four thousand four hundred, and the town contains four parish-churches, six convents, a house of mercy, and an hospital.

S E C T. IX.

Of the Province of Trazos Montes; its Situation, Name, Extent, Produce, Rivers, and principal Cities.

THE province of Trazos Montes is bounded on the north by Galicia, and on the east by Leon in Spain; on the southward also by Leon, and the province of Beira last described; and on the westward partly by the province of Entre Douro e Minho, and partly by Beira. It obtained its name from its situation with respect to the province of Entre Douro e Minho, it lying on the other side of the mountain of Marao. Its extent from north to south is about ninety miles, and from east to west about sixty. It is for the most part mountainous, wild, barren, and thinly inhabited; but has fertile and delightful valleys, that produce wheat, rice, fruit, and wine.

Besides the Douro, which divides the north east part from Leon, and then turning to the westward divides it almost into two equal parts, it has the rivers Tamega, Corgo, Tuela, and Sobor; all which run into the Douro.

It contains two cities, fifty-seven towns, five hundred and forty-nine parishes, in which were computed, in

1732, a hundred and thirty-five thousand eight hundred and four persons; and is divided into twenty-four jurisdictions, the principal places in which are,

Miranda de Douro, thus called from its standing on that river, to distinguish it from Miranda in Castile: it is strongly situated on a rock, in a barren mountainous country, at the confluence of the Douro and the little river Fresno, and, besides its works, is defended by a castle and fort; it being a place of importance, as it opens a passage into the province of Leon, which lies exposed to incursions on this side. It is a city and bishop's see, though the only church in the city is the cathedral, and it contains no more than about seven hundred inhabitants, a house of mercy, an hospital, and one seminary. To the district of this city belong twenty-two parishes.

Braganza, the antient Brigantium, is seated thirty-two miles to the north-west of Miranda, in a spacious plain near the river Travença. It is divided into the city and the town; the former is surrounded with walls and towers, and has within it a good castle; the latter is also fortified, and has a fort on an eminence which covers them both. The whole consists of two parishes, two monasteries, as many nunneries, a house of mercy, and an hospital. Braganza is the capital of a celebrated duchy belonging to the present king of Portugal, whose ancestors were dukes of Braganza, the most illustrious house among the nobility, they being descended from their antient kings. This place has a variety of silk manufactures, and is one of the most antient cities in the kingdom. The district of this city includes no less than a hundred and twenty-three parishes.

Chavez, or Chaves, a pretty good fortified town on the river Tamega, twenty-seven miles to the west of Braganza, is supposed to have been built by the emperor Vespasian, who gave it the name of *Aquæ Flaviæ*, and it has still some traces of its antient extent and grandeur. It is situated two leagues from the frontiers of Galicia, and is defended by a double wall and two forts, one of which has the appearance of a citadel, and contains a convent within it. Between the town and the suburb called Magdalena is a Roman bridge of stone over the river Tamega, above ninety-two geometrical paces in length; but not much above three in breadth. The town has one collegiate church, which is also the parish-church, two convents, and two hospitals.

Villa Real, the best and largest town of the province, is seated fifteen miles to the north-east of Lamego, between two small rivers which discharge themselves into the Douro. The greatest part of the houses stand without the walls, and the few within them are called the Old Town. It has two parish-churches, three convents, and an hospital.

S E C T. X.

Of the Province of Entre Douro e Minho; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns; with a particular Description of the Cities of Porto and Braga.

THIS province receives its name from its being situated between the Douro and Minho; it being separated by the river Minho from the Spanish province of Galicia on the north, and by the river Douro from the province of Beira on the south; the province of Trazos Montes bounds it on the east; as does the Atlantic ocean to the west. Its extent from north to south is about sixty-seven miles, and from east to west about forty-five.

This province is naturally well defended, it being separated from Spain on the north and east by rivers and almost inaccessible mountains, and on the west washed by the ocean. The inhabitants enjoy a sweet serene air, and an almost perpetual spring; but they have little grain, and that chiefly rye and millet: however, the country abounds in wine and fruit; and its rivers, which discharge themselves into the sea, with its good harbours, particularly those of Porto and Viana, are so convenient for trade, that in proportion to its extent it is the most populous province in the whole kingdom. The principal places it contains are the following:

Guimaraens, a town which owes its origin to a convent of Benedictines, built there in the year 927. Its

walls are eighteen hundred and fifty paces in circuit, and it contains four parishes, two of which are in the suburbs, six convents, besides another a little way out of the town, three hospitals, one house of mercy, and five thousand inhabitants.

Viana is situated near the mouth of the river Lima, fifteen miles to the west of Braga, and is a large, well-built, and strong city, defended by the castle of St. Jago. It contains seven thousand inhabitants, two parish-churches, seven convents, one house of mercy, and an hospital; but its harbour is only fit for small vessels.

Porto, Oporto, or Port a Port, is situated in forty degrees fifty-three minutes latitude, and eight degrees thirty-five minutes west longitude, eight miles to the south of Braga, on the side of a rugged mountain, the foot of which is washed by the Douro, and is about a league distant from the mouth of that river, which here forms a good harbour; but it has a very difficult entrance, from the rocks and sands, which form a bar, that can only be got over at high water, with the assistance of a coasting pilot. The harbour is safe against all winds; but when the floods or freshes in the river come down, no anchor can hold, at which times the ships are fastened to each other along the walls, in order to avoid the impetuosity of the torrent. The streets are well paved; but the inequality of the ground on which the city stands, renders it not very pleasant to walk in them. A fine quay runs along the banks of the river, close to which the shipping lie, so that a merchant may see his vessels unloaded from his own windows. It is fortified with an old wall and towers, and defended by a castle. In opulence, populousness, beauty, and commerce, it is the next city in the kingdom to Lisbon, and has an arsenal, docks, and yards, for building and fitting out men of war. It has four suburbs and seven parish-churches, including the cathedral, it being the see of a bishop, twelve convents, besides four others without the walls, some hospitals, one house of mercy, and above twenty thousand seven hundred inhabitants. The most elegant building in the city is the convent of the Augustines, in which is a beautiful gallery of a vast extent: the church belonging to it is of a circular form, and very richly adorned. Here is also one of the sovereign councils or courts of the kingdom.

On the south side of the river opposite to Porto is Villa Nova do Porto, a small town near the place where the old town of Gaya formerly stood, in respect to which it is called Villa Nova. It contains only one parish-church, one house of mercy, one hospital, and one convent, with two others near the town, and about two thousand nine hundred inhabitants.

Braga is an antient archiepiscopal city seated, according to F. Capassi, in forty-one degrees thirty-three minutes north latitude, and in eight degrees forty-four minutes west longitude, thirty-two miles to the north-west of Porto, in a pleasant plain between the rivers Cavado and Deste, and received its name from that of a kind of garment worn by its antient inhabitants. It is said to have been built by the Greeks; but afterwards fell under the power of the Carthaginians, Romans, Swabians, Goths, Moors, and the kings of Leon. The Romans gave it the title of Augusta, and the Swabian kings honoured it with their residence. The city contains four parish-churches, besides its antient large cathedral, eight convents, a seminary, a house of mercy for persons of both sexes well-born who are come to decay, and are settled in it for life, or provided for with wonderful privacy, and an hospital. Its inhabitants amount to about twelve thousand three hundred. The houses are generally old substantial stone buildings, but have no great elegance, any more than the archbishop's palace and the cathedral, which are more admired for their antiquity and extent, than for their beauty. The archbishop is both spiritual and temporal lord of the place, on which account he has a sword, as well as a cross, carried before him. His revenue is forty thousand ducats per annum, and he is primate of the kingdom. In this city are some stately remains of antique buildings, particularly of an amphitheatre and an aqueduct. The country about Braga produces corn, wine, and fruit; and here is a great deal of pasture, on which they feed large flocks of sheep.

S E C T. XI.

*Of the AZORES, or TERCEIRAS.**Their Names, Situation, Number, Climate, Produce, with a Description of each.*

AS the Azore Islands are situated in the Atlantic ocean opposite to Portugal, to which they belong, and are never included under the American islands, we can no where more properly place them than here.

The Azores, Terceiras, or Flemish Isles, derived their first name from the great number of hawks and falcons found there by the Portuguese at their first discovery; the second from Terceira, the name of the principal island; and the third from the Flemings, who discovered them much about the same time as the Portuguese.

These islands are situated to the west of Lisbon, between the thirty-sixth and fortieth degree of north latitude, and between the twenty-fifth and thirty-third degree of west longitude from London. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St. Miguel, Terceira, St. George, Graciosa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo.

All these islands enjoy a very clear and serene sky, with a salubrious air; but are exposed to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently suffered; as they have also by the violent agitations of the waves by which they are surrounded. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruit; and likewise breed large quantities of cattle.

Santa Maria is distant about two hundred and fifty Portuguese miles, or rather leagues, from Cape St. Vincent in Algarve, and was discovered in 1342 by Gonzalo Velho Cabral, and is about four miles long and three broad, with a harbour to the south-west defended by some redoubts. The principal place in the island is a small town named Porto, besides which there are a few villages.

St. Miguel is the first of the Azore islands in the passage from Lisbon, and lies about two hundred and twelve Portuguese miles from Cabo de Espichel. It was discovered in 1444, on the festival of the appearance of St. Michael, which occasioned its being called by this name. It is eighteen miles in length, and two in breadth. Its two principal harbours, named Ponta Delgada and Villa Franca, lie on the south side. This is the best peopled of all the Azore Islands, the inhabitants being said to amount to above fifty-one thousand five hundred, besides about thirteen hundred and ninety ecclesiastics, monks, and nuns; and though it has not long been entirely cultivated, it is the most fruitful, particularly in corn and wine; so that one year with another the wheat amounts to twelve thousand bushels, the millet to near as much more, and its wine to about five thousand pipes. This island contains one city, five towns, and twenty-two villages.

Ponta Delgada, the capital, is seated in a level country, on an open harbour defended by a fort, and contains about eighteen hundred and eighty hearths, three parish-churches, and seven convents, the palace of the governor, the custom-house, and poor-house.

Villa Franca, the most antient town in the whole island, is so called from its being at first a free port. An island about a mile in circumference lies before the harbour, and towards the sea the town is defended by a fort and some other works. It has eighteen hundred and thirteen hearths, two parish-churches, and two convents; with nine villages belonging to its jurisdiction.

In the year 1720 a little island appeared between St. Miguel and Terceira, which has since gradually vanished.

Terceira is the third island that was discovered, and is thirteen miles long, and six broad. The harbour of Angra, its capital, is two hundred and forty-five Portuguese miles distant from Lisbon; and the island is divided into two captainships, which contain one city, two towns, and several villages.

The city of Angra is situated on the south-east coast of the island. Its harbour is formed by a bay situated between two capes, the one lying west, and the other east, about a quarter of a mile from each other, and both about twice that distance from the town. On the west cape stands Fort St. Sebastian, and on a high mountain, called the Mount of Brazil, Fort St. John the Baptist. The harbour is spacious, and has good anchorage; but is exposed to the south-east winds. It is a populous city, in which are broad, straight, clean, and well paved streets, a cathedral, five other churches, and one poor-house, an hospital, and eight convents. The bishop of this place has all the nine islands of the Azores under him, and is himself suffragan to the patriarch of Lisbon. This city has the privilege of sending a representative to the cortes or assembly of the states.

St. George is situated about eight Portuguese miles or leagues from Terceira. To the north it is little more than a high rock, but in other parts the eminences and plains succeed each other. It is eleven miles long, and one and a half broad, exclusive of its two capes. On the south it has a harbour for small vessels. It is said to have been discovered on St. George's day, 1450. The south side of the island is well cultivated and inhabited, and has three towns and four villages. The principal town, named Vela de Velas, is but small, and has only one church, one convent, and the above harbour.

Graciosa lies directly east and west, and is about ten miles in length and seven in breadth, and contains two towns; the principal of these is Santa Cruz, which is seated on a bay that forms a harbour named Calheta, defended by a fort, and contains one church, one house of mercy, and a convent. This island is said to have received its name from its remarkable fertility.

Fayal is nine Portuguese miles in length, and three in its greatest breadth. The chief place in the island is Villa de Horta, situated on its western coast, which has an harbour land-locked on all sides, except to the east and north-east; and is defended by several forts. The town contains one parish-church, and five convents; and the island contains ten other parishes.

Pico is sixteen Portuguese miles in length, and five in breadth. This island is visible at a great distance on account of the height of its mountain, to which it owes its name, and which is said to rise three miles above the surface of the sea. This island is on the north separated from that of St. George, by a channel in some places six, and in others twelve miles over; and to the west from Fayal by another channel. Its principal harbour is at Villa Das Lagens; the second, which is called Magdalene, is only for small vessels. This island carries on a great trade in its excellent wines, and in wood, with which it also abounds, particularly in cedar, and in a firm red wood that is highly esteemed.

Flores, the next island, is about thirty miles long, and nine broad; but has only two towns, and a number of villages. The principal place is Santa Cruz, which is small, and contains only one church and a convent.

Corvo lies to the northward, opposite to the island of Flores, from which it is divided by a strait about three miles in breadth. The whole circuit of this island is but about ten miles, and the whole coast consists of a chain of rocks. It has two small harbours, one church, and an insignificant place called Nossa Senhora do Rosario, which is subordinate to the church of Santa Cruz, on the island of Flores.

C H A P. XXVIII.

Of the Kingdom of F R A N C E.

S E C T. I.

Its Name, Situation, Extent, Climate, Mountains, Minerals, Fossils, Rivers, Fruits, Vegetables, and Animals.

FRANCE obtained its present name from the Franks, who in the fifth century passed out of Germany into Gaul, and made themselves masters of the whole country, from the Rhine to the mouth of the Loire. This kingdom is bounded by the British channel, and the Netherlands, towards the north; on the east by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy; on the south by the Mediterranean sea, and Spain, from which it is separated by the Pyrenean mountains; and on the west by the Atlantic ocean; extending from the forty-third to the fifty-first degree of north latitude, and from the fourth degree west to the seventh degree east longitude. Did not the province of Bretagne extend itself above an hundred miles farther into the ocean, than any other part of the kingdom, it would be nearly of a square form, and the breadth and length almost equal, that is, about five hundred and forty miles; but allowing for the hills and valleys, with the winding of the roads, it would in a traveller's account be above six hundred miles over either way.

The air is mild and wholesome, particularly the interior parts of the kingdom. The winters, however, in the northern provinces are cold, and last four or five months. Indeed the cold is in that season generally much severer there than in England; for we being surrounded by the sea are less subject to continued frosts, and are besides better provided against the cold from our being much better supplied with firing. They have, however, the advantage of clear settled weather, and are but little troubled with fogs, which are so disagreeable in Great Britain and other countries. The summers in France are hotter than with us.

France, with respect to its situation, has the advantage of every kingdom in Europe, the seas which border upon it affording the inhabitants an easy communication with the rest of the world; the northern shores being washed by the British channel, the western coast by the Atlantic ocean, and the south by the Mediterranean. Hence no country can be better situated for the advancement of trade and navigation.

The chief mountains of France are the Alps towards Italy, the Pyrenees, which border on Spain, and those of the Cevennes and Auvergne.

With respect to minerals, Languedoc is said to have veins of gold and silver. In Alsace these metals have been found in the sand of the Rhine; and the mountain of Wasgau, in that province, yields a silver ore, which is worked, and farther discoveries are making after it. Plenty of iron ore is found in various parts of the kingdom, and in Alsace are mines of lead. Pit-coal is principally found in Hennegau, and all parts of the kingdom make salt-petre. Here is also no want of marble; for since Colbert's time, quarries, particularly in Languedoc, Provence, and Bourbonnois, are kept continually open. France, however, produces few gems; but has in Languedoc a mine of excellent turquoises.

The country is extremely well watered with navigable rivers, the chief of which are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. Of these the Loire is the largest. It rises in the mountains of the Cevennes, and taking its course north and north-west, runs to Orleans; and from thence directly west by Tours, Angers, and Nantes, falling into the Western ocean forty miles below the last city; having received in its course the Allier, Cher, Indre, Creuse, Vienna, and the Maine; and has a communication with the Seine, by means of the canals of

Briare and Orleans. Its whole course, with all its windings, is computed to be about five hundred miles.

The Rhone rises in the mountain of La Fourche, in the province of Uri in Switzerland, and running westward through the country of the Valais, passes through the lake of Geneva; and having visited that city, flows south-west to Lyons, where it joins the Soan, and then runs south till it falls by three several channels into the Mediterranean.

The Garonne receives its course in the mountains of Aure, in the county of Comenges. It becomes navigable at Muret, and, after being joined by several rivers, changes its name into the Gironde; and at length discharges itself by two outlets into the Atlantic ocean. This river has a celebrated canal, by which the Western ocean is joined to the Mediterranean.

The Seine rises near Dijon, in Burgundy, and running to the north-west visits Troyes, Paris, and Rouen in its way, and at length falls into the British channel near Havre de Grace.

The country of France is in general fertile, yet has many barren tracts and mountains. In some parts it produces plenty, and in all of them a sufficiency of the necessaries of life. In plentiful years it yields more corn than is necessary for the subsistence of the inhabitants; but a bad harvest is generally succeeded by a scarcity, and in war-time there has been often a great dearth of grain, which is the more felt in this country as bread is the principal food of the inhabitants.

Their roots differ much from ours; for here are no round turnips; theirs are long and small but well tasted, and being not so strong as ours, are more proper for their soups. They have few potatoes; but plenty of Jerusalem artichokes. They abound in vast quantities of large red onions and garlic; and also in shallots, rock-amboule, and leeks. These last are smaller than ours; but three times as long in the white part. Lettuces are the great and universal salad. In April and May the markets are served with vast quantities of white beets. Asparagus is here very plentiful; and they are so fond of sorrel, that large fields are planted with it. They are also particularly fond of mushrooms, of which they have several different kinds.

This kingdom enjoys great plenty of wine, which is produced in all its provinces. Among the several French wines that of Champagne is reckoned the best, it being a good stomachic, racy, and in taste and flavour exquisite, with an agreeable tartness. That of Burgundy, the best of which is produced about Beaume, has a fine colour, and a pleasant taste. The wines of Angers and Orleans are also delicate, but a little heady. In Poitou is produced a white wine that resembles Rhenish. The neighbourhood of Bourdeaux and the lower parts of Gascony produce excellent wines. Pontac grows in Guienne. Muscadel and Frontinac are the delicious products of Languedoc. Between Valence and St. Valliere, along the banks of the Rhone, is produced a very agreeable, but roughish red wine that has a taste not unlike that of bilberries; it is named hermitage, and is esteemed for its wholesomeness.

The territories for oil of olives are Provence and Languedoc. These and other provinces produce saffron, and the northern parts in particular have large orchards, and make great quantities of cyder, which is there the common drink of the inhabitants. Bourdeaux exports great quantities of prunes, and capers are principally produced in the country about Toulon. Flax and hemp thrive in several parts of the kingdom; but linseed is produced only in the north. Most of the provinces abound in wool, and silk is cultivated with great industry, especially in Languedoc, Provence, Lionnois, and Dauphiné; and,

and, during all the time in which the inhabitants attend on the silk-worms, public prayers are offered up for the prosperity of those useful insects.

France also produces horned cattle, sheep, and hogs; but they are neither so numerous, nor in general so fat and fleshy as those of Great Britain. Good horses are also produced here, as well as asses, and a great number of mules. Game and wild-fowl are in the greatest plenty, and extremely good. The people on the sea-coast employ themselves in fishing. The Pyrenean mountains furnish timber for ship-building, great quantities of which are also purchased out of Alsace, Burgundy, and Lorraine; but in the other provinces the scarcity of timber and wood for fuel begins to be more and more felt. This kingdom also produces plenty of sea and spring-salt.

S E C T. II.

The Persons, Dress, Food, Manners, and Customs of the French. Their Religion, Arts, Manufactures, Commerce, and Coin.

THE French are generally slender, nimble, active, and well-proportioned; their hair and eyes are for the most part black, their complexions brown, and the ladies fond of giving a high colour to their cheeks. The people in general are merry, sprightly, and seldom lay any thing to heart; they are familiar, and acquainted with a stranger at first sight; but many are extremely vain, and most of them remarkably talkative. The common people are in general extremely extravagant in their dress, though they live as meanly as possible with respect to provisions.

The French are far from eating the same quantity of flesh that we do, nor do they often dress it in the same manner, fricassees, ragouts, hashes and soups disguised with onions, herbs, and spices, are preferred before joints boiled or roasted; and what they do boil or roast has scarce a drop of gravy left. They keep their meat before they dress it till it is very tender: for as their meat is leaner, drier, and more stringy than ours, their keeping it longer not only makes it less tough, but improves the taste; especially as the dryness of the air preserves it from that disagreeable mustiness which stale meat acquires by the dampness of our moister climate. But as the French eat much less meat than we, and are excessively fond of soup, they usually eat twice the quantity of bread, which is generally exceeding light and good. As they are strangers to the fine fat sirloin and rump of beef, and other large joints which in Great Britain grace the tables of people even in middling circumstances, they are unacquainted with the many English dishes called by the general name of puddings. The wealthy, however, supply this deficiency with sweetmeats, and a number of little delicacies; but the poor mechanics, and all the labouring part of the nation, live almost entirely on soups and vegetables. In Lent the common people feed much on white kidney-beans, that is the seed boiled, and on white lentils, a sort of pulse not known in England; and a variety of sallads, some of which grow wild in almost every field.

The French are so far from being addicted to jealousy, that it is good manners to commend the beauty of a woman, and to extol her charms even before her husband's face. The women in general behave without reserve. The French are much commended for their obedience to their governors, and pride themselves on their profound veneration for their prince; but while the people had any thing to contend for, rebellions and civil wars were as frequent in France as in any other country. They had once the privilege of making their own laws; but their privileges are swallowed up by the prerogatives of the crown, and their parliaments are of little use with respect to their legislative capacity, except to register the edicts of the sovereign, which they may indeed remonstrate against, and present their petitions to have them rendered more favourable to the people; but if the king continues obstinate, they are at last obliged to submit. Their lands are so highly taxed, that small estates will scarce afford the proprietors a subsistence, who

have not a place; and indeed there is scarce a considerable family in the kingdom that has not some preferment in the church, the army, or the court.

The nobility and gentry of France never apply themselves to trade; they seem indeed naturally designed for the court or the army; and if they happen to be of a melancholy disposition, here are always convents, and numerous preferments to be met with in the church. As to their military virtues, it must be acknowledged that they do not want bravery, and have brought the art of war to great perfection, there being no people upon earth who attack or defend a place better than they, or are better skilled in fortification. As to their exercises, there are few French gentlemen who do not learn to dance, to fence, and to ride the great horse. The usual diversions of the French are gaming, of which they are very fond, walking, or taking the air in coaches, and attending plays and operas.

The French tongue is formed out of that of the Gauls, Romans, and Franks, with the additions and refinements made in it from time to time by persons of genius, till it arrived at its present perfection.

The established religion in France, since the repeal of the edict of Nantes in 1685, is the Roman Catholic; yet in Dauphiné, Languedoc, and other provinces, there are such a number of secret Protestants, that they have been computed to amount to no less than three millions; but those, on account of their religious assemblies, at which sometimes great numbers have been present, have been cruelly harrassed and persecuted; and in 1745 some Protestant preachers were hanged, laymen were sent to the galleys, women to the convents, and children forced away from the arms of their parents. The French Protestants now perform their public worship with as much secrecy as if it were a crime to hear the Gospel read, and to offer up their devotions to their Maker; for this purpose they meet in private cellars and caverns remote from public view. The clergy are frequently very active in persecuting them; but outward compulsion is lodged in the hands of the temporal magistrates alone, who are seldom backward in lending their assistance when it is required by a priest. In Alsace, however, the Protestants are openly tolerated by virtue of a treaty, and in many places even the Jews.

The privileges of the Gallican church, or the church of France, are pretty considerable. The principal of these are the following:

I. In temporal affairs, and such as relate to government, neither the sovereign, nor his officers, or magistrates, are subject to any church-discipline, inflicted either by the bishops or even by the pope himself.

II. The pope has no other jurisdiction in France than what the king is pleased to grant him; his nuncios and legates à latere are only considered as envoys from the court of Rome to that of France, and cannot in virtue of any papal mandate interfere in affairs of justice, unless such mandate has previously received the king's sanction, and has been formally registered in parliament.

III. The calling and holding all ecclesiastical assemblies, with the confirmation of their decrees, depends on the civil power, without requiring the knowledge and consent of the pope.

IV. The king is impowered to enact laws that merely concern the ecclesiastical constitution, and to limit the exercise of the power of the clergy; and without the king's permission and ratification, no law of the church, either by the bishops or the pope, can subject any one to outward penalties or punishment, or even to church-discipline.

V. The pope can levy no money in France, on any pretence whatever, except the fees and imports allowed him by the *concordat*; though the king can tax the clergy without standing in need of a papal mandate, a privilege which other princes must purchase by paying a quota of such tax to the see of Rome. It is but lately since the king enjoined the clergy to pay the twentieth penny, and for that purpose to deliver in an inventory of their estates and incomes. This indeed occasioned a great ferment, till in 1753 the clergy consented to pay the king the annual sum of twelve millions of livres, under the

name of a free gift; without being exempted from the usual free gift which they bring to the throne every five years.

VI. No ecclesiastical foundations, nor any new order of monks and nuns, are to be introduced without warrant from the king; and the rules of such order are subject to the cognizance and amendment of the civil power.

VII. The king nominates all archbishops and bishops, abbots and priors, except with respect to the latter, where the convent is indulged with the choice of its superior.

VIII. The ecclesiastical jurisdiction is so far subordinate to the civil power, that appeals from the sentences of the ecclesiastical courts are received by the parliament.

In the whole kingdom are eighteen archbishops, a hundred and thirteen bishops, twenty-two thousand two hundred and ninety-one priests, seven hundred and seven abbeys for men, three hundred and seventeen abbeys and priories for women, besides a great number of other convents, together with two hundred and fifty commanderies of the order of Malta, among which are six grand priories, and four principal commanderies. The annual revenues of the archbishops and bishops amount in the whole to four millions three hundred and thirty-seven thousand livres. The number of monks and nuns is computed in the whole at above a hundred and ninety thousand, whose income is said greatly to exceed a hundred millions of livres. The ecclesiastical state is composed of eighteen provinces, each of which consists of an archbishopric, and the bishops subordinate to it.

The French have always distinguished themselves by their skill in the arts and sciences. Painting was first brought to great perfection among them under Francis I. when Roux and Francisco Bolognese introduced all the beauty of that art into France; and since that time this kingdom has produced several eminent masters. In 1648 was instituted at Paris the royal academy of painting and sculpture; but it is said that the ingenious art of painting is now on the decline in France; and is supported by a frivolous taste, which is far from tending to the improvement of the liberal arts. Engraving has been brought to a perfection yet unequalled in any other part of Europe. France has also made great advances in statuary. It has also been famous for its architects; and the great Colbert, in 1671, founded a royal academy of architecture, who now hold their meetings in the Louvre. The French learned the art of ship-building from the English. Their reputation in military architecture is well known, and they also excel most nations in gunnery and fire-works. At Paris, besides the antient university and royal college, are four academies, namely the French academy, the academy of inscriptions and belles lettres, that of surgery, and the academy of sciences, with three others for the education of young noblemen. Besides these there are eighteen other universities in France, and several academies for the sciences and the polite arts.

The French manufactures and productions are supported and improved with the greatest diligence. By the advice of the above-mentioned Colbert, that wise encourager of manufactures and the liberal arts, Lewis XIV. erected the manufacture of the Gobelins at Paris, which is so called from two brothers, Giles and John Gobelin, who under Francis I. found out the method of dying a most beautiful scarlet, which was afterwards called by their name. The house of the Gobelins at Paris is full of the works of the most excellent masters in tapestry, filigree, and sculpture; and in the article of tapestry alone no less than two hundred persons are constantly employed. There are also considerable manufactures of tapestry in several other parts of the kingdom. The French historians inform us, that silk manufactures were first set up in France in the reign of Lewis XI. yet in the time of Henry II. silk was so scarce, that the king was the first who had ever been seen with a pair of silk stockings on, which were a part of his dress at the marriage of his sister. The succeeding kings made good regulations with respect to the culture of silk, and the planting of white mulberry-trees; but it was not till the time of Lewis XIV. that this was brought to any considerable degree of prosperity; and under his government the quantity of raw silk produced in the province of Dau-

phiné, Languedoc, and Provence alone, annually amounted to one million eight hundred thousand pounds weight. However, the revocation of the edict of Nantes has been of the greatest detriment to this trade, by compelling the manufacturers to fly from France, to seek that protection, and to enjoy that religious liberty, which they were not allowed to possess at home. Hence the art of weaving silk is become almost universally known, and England has been enabled to surpass in the elegance and beauty of their patterns the French themselves. Within these last hundred years the French have considerably improved their woollen manufactures, in which they have been assisted by the clandestine exportation of wool from Great Britain and Ireland. Hence the cloths and other woollen stuffs made at Abbeville, are little inferior either in fineness or goodness to the English. Several provinces abound in manufactures of linen, thread, and sail-cloth; and at Cambray is made the fine and beautiful linen called Cambray linen, or cambric; and St. Quintin excels in its lawns. The glass manufacture is also of great advantage to France. In 1688 one Abraham Thevert contrived a method for casting better and larger plates of looking-glass than had been before known. Vincennes has also a manufactory of very handsome porcelain.

The trade of France is very considerable, though it is nothing near so great as it was formerly: it consists of gold and silver brocades, gold and silver embroideries, silk stuffs, sattins, sewing silks, crapes, cambric, lawn, fine linen, laces, toys, and millinery-ware, tapestries of various kinds, fine cloths, plush, woollen stuffs, sail-cloth, looking-glasses, drinking-glasses, paper, parchment, scythes, knives, and other hard-ware; wines of many sorts, vinegar, brandy, corn, hemp, flax, walnut-tree wood, pot-ash, pitch, turpentine, oil of turpentine, linseed oil, and oil of olives, almonds, raisins, chestnuts, figs, prunes, capers, nuts, honey, saffron, salt, mules, &c.

The navigable rivers are of great advantage to the inland trade, and these have been joined at a vast expence by canals, the most famous of which is the royal canal in Languedoc. The coast trade is very considerable; for by this the maritime provinces reciprocally supply each other with their own produce. The land trade is carried on with Swisserland, by the way of Lyons; to Germany, through Metz and Strasburg; to Holland, by the way of Lisle; and to Spain, by the way of Perpignan and Bayonne. The French ports on the Channel and the Western ocean are frequented by all the trading nations of Europe. The trade with England, the United Provinces, and Italy, is of great advantage to France. However, but few French ships are seen in the ports of the northern nations. Their trade on the Mediterranean with Asia and Africa has for some years been very considerable, and the far greatest part of it is carried on by the city of Marseilles alone. They also carry on a considerable traffic to Guinea for gold, ivory, and slaves for their American colonies. The East India trade is in the hands of a company at Port L'Orient, in Brittany.

Accounts are kept in France in livres, sous, and deniers. One livre contains twenty sous, and one sou twelve deniers. The French livre is nearly of the value of ten-pence, one sou is worth a half-penny, and consequently the denier is the sixth part of a farthing. Three deniers make a liard, which is also a small piece of copper.

The French silver coin is the ecu, or crown, equal to three livres; sixty sols, or seven hundred and twenty deniers, equal to our half-crown. One louis blanc is five shillings.

The gold coin are the louis d'or, of one pound value; there are also double and half louis; and a pistole is eight shillings and four-pence.

S E C T. III.

A concise History of France. The Titles of the King; his Succession to the Throne: His Arms, Coronation, Ensigns of Royalty; the different Orders of the Nobility, and of Knighthood; the Parliaments; the great Officers of the Crown

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Crown and of the Household; the great Councils of State, and Courts of Justice; the Laws, Taxes, Land Forces, and Navy of France.

FRANCE was antiently inhabited by the Celtæ, on whom the Romans first conferred the name of Gauls, and Julius Cæsar reduced the country into a Roman province. In the fifth century the Burgundians, Visigoths, and Bretons, settled in several parts of Gaul. These were followed by the Franks from Germany, who under Merovie and Childeric conquered a part of Gaul, and under Clovis extended their dominion from the Rhine to the mouth of the Loire: for king Clovis, who was baptized in 496, quelled the Burgundians, Visigoths, and inhabitants of Brittany.

At this time the kingdom of the Franks was divided into Austrasia, or the east part, and Neustria, or the west; and on the decease of Clovis, his four sons divided their father's kingdom among them.

The lands of Gaul were on their being conquered by the Franks distributed among their officers, and these with the clergy formed the first great councils or parliaments. Thus the government appears to have been a mixed monarchy, in which nothing of moment was transacted without the grand council of the nation, consisting of the principal officers, who held their lands by military tenures: while the conquered Gauls were reduced to a state of servitude, and manured the lands for the Franks.

This was the constitution of the government, till Charles Martel in 732, usurped the sovereignty. This nobleman was marshal of France, or mayor of the palace, and had long exercised the sovereign power in the name of Childeric, a weak and indolent prince. The Saracens, who had made themselves masters of the south of France, penetrating into the heart of the kingdom, he entirely defeated them, and driving them out, was considered as the deliverer of Christendom: he there became so popular, that with the consent of the people, and even of the pope, he assumed the dominion of France; and having a victorious army at his command, not only deposed the king, but rendered himself an absolute prince, by depriving the nobility and clergy of their share in the government.

His son Pepin succeeded him in the throne, but restored the privileges of the nobility and clergy, on their agreeing to exclude the former race of kings. He also divided the provinces among his principal nobility, allowing them to exercise sovereign authority in their respective governments; till at length assuming a kind of independency, they only acknowledged the king as their head: and this gave rise to the numerous principalities, and their several parliaments, every province retaining the same form of government that had been exercised in the whole; and laws were made, or taxes raised, without the concurrence of the nobility and clergy.

Charlemagne, or Charles the Great, the son of Pepin, conquered Italy, Germany, and part of Spain, and was crowned emperor of the Romans, by pope Leo, in the year 800, and from him was descended the race of kings, called the Carolingian line. About eighty years after the death of Charlemagne, the empire was divided from France, and that country suffered much from the invasion of the Normans.

The Carolingian race of kings continued sovereigns of France till the reign of Lewis V. when in 987, Hugh Capet, a popular nobleman, assumed the throne, and began the Capetian line of monarchs. Crusades, or expeditions to the Holy Land, for the recovery of Jerusalem from the Saracens, being preached up by order of the pope, the princes of every kingdom in Europe engaged in these falsely called Holy wars, in which Christianity was to be propagated by fire and sword; and in which several hundred thousand Christians perished: but though they at length took Antioch, Jerusalem, and several other strong places, they lost them all again within two hundred years. Lewis IX. with most of the nobility, was taken prisoner in Egypt, in one of these expeditions, and their ransoms cost an immense sum.

In 1285, the kingdom of Navarre was added to the crown of France, by the marriage of Philip IV. with Jane queen of Navarre. During this reign the constitution of the government received a considerable altera-

tion; for the nobility and clergy refusing to grant the king the supplies he demanded, he summoned the deputies or representatives of the commons to parliament, and on their granting him what he wanted, constituted them a third state.

In 1344, Hubert count dauphin of Vienne transferred his dominions to the crown of France, on condition that the king's eldest son should ever after be styled dauphin.

Edward III. king of England, laying claim to the crown of France, on account of his being descended in a direct line from Philip IV. invaded that kingdom; and in 1346, obtained a complete victory at Cressy in Picardy, and the next year took Calais. In 1356, the French were again defeated at Poitiers, by Edward the Black prince, the eldest son of Edward III. and king John and his son Philip brought prisoners to England.

At length the French king Charles VI. being seized with a kind of phrensy, and becoming unfit to govern, the dukes of Burgundy and Orleans contended for the administration, and the quarrel grew to that height, that the duke of Burgundy caused the duke of Orleans to be assassinated in the streets of Paris, which laid the foundation for a civil war. About the same time Henry V. king of England, invading France, obtained a victory at Agincourt in 1415. The French now proposed a reconciliation between the duke of Burgundy and the family of Orleans; and a conference was held between the young duke of Orleans and the duke of Burgundy, to accommodate matters; but at a second conference, the dauphin and the duke of Orleans caused the duke of Burgundy to be murdered. Upon this the queen and the young duke of Burgundy joined the English, with whose assistance king Henry made an almost entire conquest of France; and a parliament being held at Paris, the king of England was made regent of France, during the life of the French king Charles VI. declared successor to that crown; and at the same time married the princess Catharine, the French king's daughter. King Henry dying, and leaving an infant son, that infant was crowned king of France at Paris, in 1431; but Charles the dauphin also causing himself to be proclaimed king, recovered all the countries that had been taken by the English.

In the year 1498, died Charles VIII. the last of the first line of the house of Valois, on which the crown descended to Lewis XII. duke of Orleans. Three of his sons succeeded him in order. Under the first, namely Francis II. the religious disputes began to break out in France, the Protestants were persecuted, and under Charles IX. these disputes occasioned two civil wars; after the conclusion of which, on the 18th of August 1572, was perpetrated the barbarous massacre of Paris, which left an indelible stain on the history of France. Afterwards king Henry III. being thought to favour the Protestants, was assassinated by one Clements, a monk. His legal successor was Henry IV. king of Navarre, the first of the house of Bourbon, that sat on the throne of France: but he being a Protestant, was obstinately opposed by the popish party; and though he changed his religion in order to please his subjects, yet having passed the edict of Nantes, for the toleration of the Protestants, he was assassinated in 1610, by one Ravilliac, a monk, in the streets of Paris.

Lewis XIII. a minor of nine years of age, succeeding to the throne, Mary of Medicis, his mother, was declared regent. She continued to invade the liberties of the subjects, and revived the persecution against the Protestants, which occasioned another civil war. Cardinal Richlieu, being about this time introduced into the ministry, entirely subdued the parliament of Paris, and put a final period to the liberties of the people.

On the death of Lewis XIII. and that of cardinal Richlieu, which happened about the same time, his son Lewis XIV. succeeded to the throne, and in his long reign carried the power of France to its greatest height. To his kingdom he added the provinces of Alsace and Roussillon, with a considerable part of the Netherlands, Franche Comté, or the earldom of Burgundy, and the principal city of Orange. He also enlarged his dominions in America and Asia, and placed his grandson Philip of Anjou

Anjou on the throne of Spain, while navigation and manufactures were improved throughout the kingdom. But the bravery and skill of the great duke of Marlborough set bounds to his conquests, which had been carried on with the utmost cruelty; and in particular on his invading the Palatinate of the Rhine in 1689, he burnt and destroyed all the fine towns in that country. He also repealed the edict of Nantes, and began a severe persecution against the Protestants, who fled into England and other countries, where they set up silk manufactures.

Lewis XIV. was succeeded by his great grandson Lewis XV. the present king, on the first of September 1715, and was crowned at Rheims on the 25th of October 1722. But we shall not here recapitulate the accounts of his reign, which are fresh in every one's memory.

The title of the king is Lewis XV. by the grace of God king of France and Navarre. The title of sire or lord, is given him by his subjects, as a mark of his unlimited power; and foreigners style him the most Christian king, or his most Christian majesty; but the king's subjects are not to make use of it. Since the year 1349, when Hubert count dauphin of Viennois, as hath been already intimated, united his country to the crown of France, the king's eldest son, and presumptive heir to the crown, has been styled dauphin.

According to French writers their king never dies, but as soon as his eyes are closed, the next prince of the blood succeeds to the throne, and is instantly invested with the supreme authority; but where the king is a minor, that is, before he has entered the fourteenth year of his age, the administration of the government is entrusted to a regent, usually the queen-mother, or a prince of the blood, according to the determination of the parliament at Paris, in which the rest of the kingdom generally acquiesce. But if the deceased king has appointed a regent by his will, that is seldom disputed.

When a new king enters into his fourteenth year, he goes in great state to the parliament of Paris, attended by the princes of the blood, the peers, and general officers of state. This assembly is generally called his bed of justice, and here he is declared to be of age; yet the regent frequently procures himself to be constituted prime minister, and under that title still continues to govern the kingdom till his majesty thinks fit to take the reins of government into his own hands.

The arms of France are three fleurs de lys or, in a field azure, supported by two angels in the habit of Levites, each holding in his hand a banner with the same arms: the crest is an open crown: the whole under a grand azure pavilion strewn with fleurs de lys, or, and ermine, and over it a close ground with a double fleur de lys or, on the sides of which are flying streamers, on which are written the words used in battle, *MON JOIE S. DENNIS*, and above them on the royal banner or oriflame, *LILIA NON LABORANT NEQUE NENT*; that is, the lily neither labours nor spins; which is supposed to be an allusion to the Salique law that excludes females from the supreme command.

The coronation of the king is performed whenever the court thinks fit. He is usually crowned at Rheims, by the archbishop of that city, assisted by five other ecclesiastical peers, and six noblemen, who represent the six ancient lay peers of France. The oil with which the king is anointed, according to a ridiculous tradition, was brought from heaven by a dove, and is kept in a phial called the Holy Bottle. The crown of Charlemagne is first placed upon the king's head; but being very heavy, it is exchanged for another. The other ensigns of royalty are the sceptre, which he wields in his right hand, and the hand of justice, which he holds in the left; the latter is a staff about two feet long, at the end of which is an ivory hand: this is chiefly used at the coronation, and the sceptre alone on other days of ceremony.

The nobility of France are divided into four classes: the first includes only the princes of the blood, consisting of the house of Orleans, and the two branches of the family of Bourbon, those of Condé and Conti. Next to these immediately follow the king's natural children who have been legitimated, and these precede all the nobility of the kingdom. To the second class belong the high nobility, as the dukes and peers of the realm, of which there

are forty-five in all, including the six princes of the blood, who are peers by birth. The principal duties and privileges of the peers are, the giving their assistance at the anointing of the king, their attending when he holds a bed of justice, and their enjoying a seat in the parliament of Paris, which is from hence called the court of peers. To this class also belong the other dukes, counts, and marquises, the principal officers of the court and other departments; the knights of the Holy Ghost, the governors of provinces, lieutenant-generals, bailiffs, &c. The third class is composed of the common ancient nobility, who in some provinces, particularly in Languedoc, are styled nobles; but in most of the others *ecuyers*. These are divided into the noblesse de race, and the noblesse de naissance; the first are those whose ancestors have been for a hundred years at least in possession of employments which confer nobility; and the second are those nobles whose ancestors were created such, and from whose patent it appears that they were commoners. In the fourth class are the new nobility, whom the king has either raised by patent, or ennobled by their employments: thus the officers of the crown, the king's secretaries, the counsellors of the parliament of Paris, and of other high tribunals in that city, are classed under this rank. The *etchevins*, or chief magistrates of the several cities are also ennobled. The military nobility are also of this class. The nobles enjoy particular privileges, they being exempted from paying the poll-tax, from the quartering of soldiers, the duties of franc-fief, with other privileges of less importance.

The highest order of knighthood is that of the Holy Ghost, founded in 1578 by king Henry III. the ensigns of which are a gold cross, with a white dove enamelled on one side in the middle, and on the other the image of St. Michael, appendant to a blue ribbon, passing from the right side to the left. The knights also wear on the left breast of their coats a silver cross, with a dove embroidered argent. The temporal knights are also knights of the order of St. Michael, and the greatest part of them likewise of that of St. Lewis.

The order of St. Lewis was instituted in 1693 by Lewis XIV. Its ensign is a gold cross enamelled argent, and adorned with golden lilies. On one side of it is a coat of mail with this inscription, *LUD. M. INSTIT. 1693*. On the other is a drawn sword, with a wreath of laurel at its point, and the motto *BELL. VIRTUTIS PRÆM.* Those called the *grands croix*, or great crosses, wear it on a broad flame-coloured ribbon over the shoulder, having also a gold embroidered cross on their coat. The commanders wear it in the same manner, but without the embroidered cross. The other knights wear the cross appendant to a narrow flame-coloured ribbon, fastened to a button-hole. Those knights of the Holy Ghost who are at the same time knights of the order of St. Lewis, wear the cross of the latter, with a narrow red ribbon near the cross of the Holy Ghost. Of the ten *grands croix*, each has a pension of six thousand livres per annum. Each of the ten commanders has four thousand; of nineteen others each three thousand, thirty knights have each two thousand, thirty-two others have each fifteen hundred, sixty-five others have each a thousand, and fifty-four others have each eight hundred.

The order of St. Michael was instituted in 1469 by Lewis XI. and revived in 1665 by Lewis XIV. The knights wear a gold chain of double scalloped shells, with a medal representing a rock, on which is represented St. Michael encountering the dragon.

The religious order of St. Lazarus owes its origin to the Holy Land, after the reduction of which by the Saracens the knights returned to France, where Lewis VII. in 1137, bestowed settlements on them at Boigni, Orleans, and St. Lazarus at Paris, which grant was confirmed in 1265, by St. Lewis. This order is divided into two grand masterships, one of which resides in France, and the other in Savoy. The knights wear a temporal habit, and are allowed to marry. In 1607 Henry IV. instituted the order of Our Lady of Mount Carmel, and united it with the order of St. Lazarus, which union was confirmed by Lewis XIV. The sovereign himself is grand master of the three first orders; but he nominates one for the fourth.

Formerly nothing of consequence in relation to the state was decreed or enacted without the consent of the three states of the kingdom, consisting of the representatives of the clergy, the nobility, and the representatives of the citizens; but these assemblies are entirely abolished, and have never been convened since the year 1614. The courts in which justice is now usually administered, are first the parliaments, which are the last resort when the court does not interpose. These are at present twelve, namely, those of Paris, Toulouse, Rouen, Grenoble, Bourdeaux, Dijon, Aix, Rennes, Pau, Metz, Besançon, and Douay. They principally consist of a certain number of presidents and inferior judges, who purchase their places either of the crown, or of those who are in possession of them: for all magistrates and officers of justice in France openly purchase their places, and the government makes a considerable revenue by these sales. They enjoy their posts for life, except they have been guilty of some crime in the exercise of their offices. The parliament of Paris is the most considerable in the kingdom, for hither the king frequently comes in person, and here the royal edicts are recorded and promulged; till when they have not the force of laws. It is composed of the princes of the blood, dukes, and peers of France, besides the ordinary judges, and takes cognizance of all offences committed by peers, where the court does not interfere.

This parliament consists of ten chief presidents, some honorary counsellors, or judges, four masters of the requests of the household, twenty-one presidents *a mortier*, so called from the form of their caps, and of two hundred and thirty-two other counsellors or judges; an attorney general, advocates, solicitors general, registers, notaries, secretaries, &c. These members are distributed into the grand chamber, five chambers of enquests, and two of requests. Besides these eight chambers there is another called the *tournelle*, which takes cognizance of criminal matters, in which the nobility are not concerned; for they are tried in the grand chamber. In the chambers of enquests depositions of witnesses are taken, and the proceedings are by way of bill and answer, as in the court of chancery in England; and the chamber of requests takes cognizance of causes relating to privileged persons. On days of ceremony the presidents of parliament wear a scarlet robe with a mantle lined with ermine, and a black velvet cap in the form of a mortar, bordered with gold lace; that of the chief presidents being distinguished by a double gold lace. The honorary counsellors, the masters of requests, the presidents of enquests and requests, the attorneys, and solicitors-general have scarlet robes, and caps bordered with ermines. The chief register for civil causes has a scarlet robe and mantle lined with ermines. The chief register for criminal causes, the four notaries, and the clerks or secretaries of parliament have also scarlet robes, and caps lined with ermines. The advocates have black gowns and caps, and all the rest of the officers have only black gowns.

The great officers of the crown are the chancellor, who presides in all courts and councils of state in the king's absence; the keeper of the seals, four secretaries of state, the marshals of France, the colonel-general of the horse, the great master of the artillery, the admiral of France, two vice-admirals, the general of the galleys, the four great officers of the order of the Holy Ghost, namely the chancellor, the master of the ceremonies, the great treasurer, and the secretary; the chief presidents of the several parliaments, with the governors and lieutenant-generals of the provinces.

The principal officers of the household are, the great master of the household, the great master of the horse, the great almoner, the great chamberlain, the gentlemen of the bed-chamber, the great butler, the great huntsman, the four captains of the guard du corps, and the great porter.

The great councils by which all affairs of state are governed are seven in number.

I. The supreme council of state, in which, besides the king and prime-minister, when there is one, it is composed of the three secretaries of state, and the comptroller-general of the finances.

II. The secretary of state's office, in which, besides the king, the dauphin, and prime-minister, sit the chancellor, the president of the council of finances, the four secretaries of state, and the comptroller-general of the finances. Here all affairs of the provinces are transacted; commissions, letters, and orders sent to the governors and other officers of the several provinces and cities. The secretaries of state make the motion, and every one expedites the resolutions taken on the articles of his department; the foreign and domestic affairs of state being divided among the members.

III. The council of finances, besides the king and chancellor, consists of a president, one of the six intendants of the finances, a member of the council of state, and the comptroller-general of the finances. This council has the direction of the royal revenues.

IV. The privy-council is convened by the chancellor on such days as he pleases. In the king's absence there is always a chair set for him. This council at present consists of the chancellor, or keeper of the great seal, twenty-one ordinary counsellors of state, the secretaries of state, the comptroller-general of the finances, the intendants of the finances, who are all ordinary members, and twelve state counsellors, who officiate only half yearly. The ordinary state-counsellors have each a salary of five thousand five hundred livres, the half yearly three thousand three hundred. In this council also assist twenty-two masters of requests, who belong also to the parliament, and lay before it any affairs committed by them.

V. The grand council, which has the decision of all causes relating to archbishoprics, bishoprics, and abbeys; and has also the power of determining all disputes of the other sovereign tribunals, in matters of jurisdiction and other contents. The president is the chancellor of France, assisted by several presidents, counsellors, and other officers.

VI. The high court of chancery consists of the keeper of the great seal, who is frequently the same with the chancellor of France; of four grand audiençiers, who peruse papers sent from the secretary of state's office to be sealed, and make report to the chancellor; of four comptrollers-general of the audience, who give the papers allowed to be sealed to an officer called *chauff-cire*, or chaff-wax, and receive them back from him; and four keepers of the rolls of the offices of France, who keep the registers of all the officers that require the great seal, with several clerks and other officers.

VII. The council of commerce, the members of which, besides the king and prime-minister, are the chancellor, two secretaries of state, and the comptroller-general of the finances.

Justice is administered in the kingdom by inferior, middle, and superior courts: to the inferior courts belong the prevotes, mayors, judicatures, chatellanies, and other jurisdictions dependent on the crown, or particular lordships. From these appeals lie to the bailiwicks, or precinct courts, and from these again to the provincial courts. The middle tribunals pronounce definitively in certain small cases both civil and criminal; but the more important cases are cognizable only by the parliament, which decides causes in the last resort.

With respect to the laws by which justice is administered, the civil law prevails in many of the provinces; while others have their own customary laws. Those of principal note among the latter are about sixty; but, including the juridical customs of single places, they make about two hundred and eighty-five. Besides these, there are ordinances, edicts, and declarations, which are of universal force. In 1666, under Lewis XIV. the civil and criminal processes were amended, and reduced to a general uniformity.

A strict distinction is made in France between the canonical and papal ecclesiastical law; and by the obligatory canons, or church ordinances, are only understood those canons of the first ages of Christianity, and the œcumenical councils, that have been confirmed by the consent of the churches bound by them, which could not be transacted without the approbation of the civil power. Thus the interpolated decretals of the see of Rome are absolutely

absolutely excluded. The king's ordinances issued for the protection of the liberties of the Gallican church, constitute the most considerable part of the ecclesiastical law.

The revenues of the king are both ordinary and extraordinary. The ordinary revenues comprehend the domains, which consist in lands, lordships, and forests: the aids or duty on wines, which are the twentieth part of the wine sold by wholesale, and the eighth or tenth of that retailed: the gabelle, or salt-duty, which is here extremely high. The province of great salt-duty contains the departments of Alençon, Amiens, Angers, Bourges, Caen, Chalons, Langres, Laval, Mans, Moulins, Orleans, Paris, Rouen, St. Quentin, Soissons, and Tours; in all which salt is sold at a high rate. The province of the small salt-duty includes the departments of Lyonnois, Dauphiné, Provence, Languedoc, Roussillon, Rouergue, and Auvergne, in which salt pays a much lower duty. The provinces where the salt-duty does not take place are Poitou, Limousin, Guienne, Gascony, and Brittany. In the three bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, and in French Compté, the price of salt is different. The other duties are the taille, or land-tax, the capitation, or poll-tax; the customs of all kinds, the duty on stamped paper, &c.

With respect to the customs, wine-license, salt and stamp-duty, tobacco, posts, &c. they are farmed out to the farmers-general, who have their under farmers and receivers. The great officer for levying the taxes is the comptroller-general, who keeps a duplicate of all receipts and discharges relative to the royal revenue.

The extraordinary impositions are of what number and kind the king pleases. Among these is the augmentation of the tax for the support of the army, the taillon, the tenth or twentieth part of the revenue of the whole kingdom in lands, houses, offices, &c. and the erection and sale of new offices.

The ambition and extensive views of France, with its various wars, have necessarily burthened the subjects with enormous taxes and impositions; and these being aggravated by the rapacity of the financiers and farmers, the people have often been reduced to the last extremity of wretchedness, from which, without the many resources nature and industry have put into their hands, they could never have recovered.

The number of people in France in the reign of Lewis XIV. were computed at twenty millions; but the persecution and expulsion of the Protestants, with the many wars in which the French have been engaged, have probably reduced the number to fifteen millions; for the celibacy of the priests, and the numerous convents, must ever prevent their increase, so as to supply the deficiencies made by the ravages of war.

The ordinary revenues of the crown, arising from the above taxes, amount to about ten millions sterling. An amazing sum, considering the lands belonging to the church, and what is paid to support the clergy; and the many thousand drones who, shut up in convents, are supported by the labour of others.

The land forces of France amount in time of peace to about two hundred thousand men, among which are a great number of Swiss, Germans, and other foreigners; and in time of war they are frequently augmented to four hundred thousand. The number of fortresses belonging to the kingdom is very great, and exact plans of them, as also of the foreign fortresses, to the number of a hundred and eighty, may be seen in the gallery of the Louvre, where there is a royal academy for training up young gentlemen in the several branches of the art of war. Besides the magnificent building of the invalids in the capital, where disabled seamen are admitted, there are in the whole kingdom above seventy other military hospitals.

The navy of France is also very considerable. Classes are instituted throughout all the maritime provinces, where the sea-officers and sailors, and others belonging to the navy, reside. Each class serves three or four years alternately, and those who are not in actual service on board the king's ships, may enter on board those of the merchants. In the beginning of the late war, France had a hundred and eleven men of war. Besides the sailors, there are three companies of marine guards stationed

at Toulon, Brest, and Rochfort, consisting entirely of persons versed in navigation, and the art of war. Another company has been erected under the title of guards of the admiral's flag, who always attend the admirals, and serve only on board flag ships. These are chosen out of the marine guards just mentioned. The king also maintains one hundred independent companies for the sea, each consisting of forty-five men, under the command of a lieutenant of a man of war.

France is now divided into thirty-six generalities, or general governments, in describing which we shall begin at the south-east of this extensive country.

SECT. IV.

Of the Situation, Extent, Climate, Produce, and Rivers of Provence; with a Description of its principal Cities, particularly Aix, Arles, Marseilles, Toulon, the Islands of Hieres, and the little State of Avignon subject to the Pope.

PROVENCE, which derives its name from the Latin Provincia, is bounded on the north by Dauphiné; on the east by the Alps and the river Var, which divide it from the territories belonging to the king of Sardinia; on the south by the Mediterranean; and on the west is separated from Languedoc by the Rhone. Its utmost length is about a hundred and forty miles, and its breadth from the isles of Hieres to the village of Sauze about ninety.

Upper Provence enjoys a pretty temperate air, and has a great deal of meadow ground, well stocked with cattle. It also produces corn, apples, and pears, though but little wine. On the contrary, Lower Provence is extremely hot, and near the sea-coast would be much more so, were not the air refreshed by a breeze, which usually lasts from nine or ten in the morning till evening. The north-west wind also cools the country, and sometimes, particularly after rains, blows fresh. Lower Provence does not produce half corn enough for the subsistence of its inhabitants; but the soil being dry and sandy, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, and olives; with mastich, cypress, palm, and the African acacia-trees, thrive extremely; as do also shrubs of all kinds, such as bruc, which resembles box, only the leaves are longer and more pointed, bearing a red fruit, which continues on all the year round, and by a peculiar singularity proceeds out of the middle of the leaf. The sea-cherry-tree has a leaf like the algermes, and its fruit resembles a cherry. The wine in Lower Provence is thick, luscious, and heady; but the sort most admired is muscadell.

In this part of France is the beccafigo, a small delicious bird, that feeds only on grapes and figs; and among the sea-fish here is a remarkable kind called the date, which is so named from the resemblance of its shape to that fruit, and is found within hollow stones in the road and harbour of Toulon. In order to get them out, the stone must be broke; they also abound along the coast of the marquise of Ancona, on the Adriatic. In this province are some quarries of black agate.

The rivers here are inconsiderable; these are the Durance, the Sourse, the Largens, and the Var, which divides France from Italy. Along the coast of the Mediterranean are several capes, bays, and harbours; the principal of which is Toulon.

Authors have variously divided this province; some French geographers divide it into two parts, some into three, and others into sixteen; we shall take that which is the most natural and least liable to perplex the reader, by dividing it into Upper and Lower Provence, and shall begin with the latter, the principal places in which are the following:

Aix, in Latin *Aquæ Sextiæ*, called *Aquæ* from its baths, and *Sextiæ* from its being enlarged and beautified by Sextus Calvinus. This city, which is the capital of Provence, stands in a valley of considerable extent planted chiefly with olives, in the latitude of forty-five degrees fifty-four minutes, and in six degrees ten minutes east longitude, twenty miles to the northward of Marseilles, and thirty-five to the south-east of Avignon. It is rather populous than large; the streets are well paved, and the houses

houses handsome, and most of them built of free-stone: there is a beautiful spacious walk within the city called *Orbitelle*, consisting of three rows of trees a mile long, interspersed with fountains, and on each side are elegant uniform buildings: this is the usual walk of the citizens. This city is the see of an archbishop, who enjoys a revenue of thirty-two thousand livres, out of which he pays to the court of Rome two thousand five hundred florins. In the cathedral is a consecrated rose of gold, the present of pope Innocent IV. to count Raymond Berenger. In this city are also two colleges, with an university founded in 1409, an academy of the polite arts erected in 1668, a public library in the town-house, eighteen convents, a palace formerly the residence of the counts of Provence, and now of the high bailiff. Here is also a mint, and this city is the seat of a parliament, of a chamber of accounts, a court of taxes, and many other public offices. The nobility of Provence reside here, especially in winter, so that this city is said to have the most agreeable company, next to Paris, of any place in the whole kingdom. In its suburbs the warm mineral spring, once so celebrated, was found a second time in 1704, but its ancient virtues are much decayed. The country in its neighbourhood produces excellent wine; but its principal trade consists in its fine oil; some stuffs are also made here.

Arles, the antient *Arellas*, *Arelata*, and *Arelatum*, is a large and well built city, seated on the east bank of the Rhone, in the forty-third degree thirty-two minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree forty-five minutes east longitude, upon very uneven ground, and almost surrounded by a morass, which renders the air thick and unhealthful. Over the Rhone is a wooden bridge, to preserve the communication with Languedoc. The cathedral is a vast Gothic structure, charged with an infinite number of figures, and the high altar is adorned with a tabernacle of silver, an admirable piece representing the martyrdom of St. Stephen, to whom the church is dedicated. The archbishop styles himself prince of Montdragon, has a province of fifty-one parishes, and an annual revenue of thirty-three thousand livres, out of which his taxation to the court of Rome is two thousand and eight florins. Besides the cathedral, it contains one collegiate, and seven parish-churches, with an abbey, fourteen convents, an hospital, and a royal academy of sciences founded in 1688. The town-house is an elegant regular structure, finely situated. It is of a square form, adorned with three orders of architecture, one above another; the portico is magnificent, and embellished with the busts of the counts of Provence, and the roof supported by twenty double columns.

Arles was antiently the capital of the kingdom of Burgundy, which was also called the kingdom of Arles, and the district belonging to this city is still very extensive. Several councils have been held here, the most antient and distinguished of which was in 1314.

Among the numerous Roman antiquities to be found at Arles is a large obelisk of porphyry, which was dug up here in the year 1673, and in 1676 set up again and dedicated to Lewis XIV. It is of one entire stone, fifty-two feet high, and seven feet in diameter at the base. On the top is placed an azure globe, strewed with golden lilies, and a sun, which was that prince's device; but its new plain pedestal of sand-stone ill agrees with the valuable monument above.

There are also the ruins of an amphitheatre, supposed to have been built by Julius Cæsar; it is of an oval form, and a hundred and ninety-four fathoms in circumference, the longest diameter of the area seventy-one fathoms, and the shortest fifty-two. The porticos are three stories high, built of free-stone of a prodigious size; each story contains sixty arches, which still remain, and the walls are of a surprising thickness, but very much decayed. However, this fine monument of antiquity is almost entirely concealed by the private houses built about it. There is here also the fragment of a circus, consisting of a door, with two columns of marble of the Corinthian order; the remains of a Roman capitol erected here, and a large collection of Roman sepulchral monuments, urns, and the like, kept in the archbishop's

palace; among which is an urn of very extraordinary dimensions, it containing above twenty gallons.

Near the city is what they call the Elysian Fields, and there the Romans used to bury the ashes of their dead. Accordingly there are here seen an incredible number of stone and marble sarcophagi, some standing half, and some entirely out of the ground. These fields afterwards became a Christian cemetery. The spot on which they stand may be called a mine of antiquities.

Near the city the Rhone divides itself into two large branches, forming the island of Camargue, called in Latin *Camaria*, which is one of the best and most fruitful tracts in this country, it being intersected with several canals.

Marseilles, in Latin *Massalia*, and *Massilia*, the second city of Provence, but the first in point of trade, is large, rich, and the most ancient place in all this province, and is said to have been a town five hundred years before the birth of Christ. It is seated at the foot of a rocky mountain near the sea, in forty-three degrees eighteen minutes north latitude, and in five degrees twenty-seven minutes longitude, twenty miles to the south of Aix, and thirty to the north-west of Toulon. It is divided into the Old and New Town: the former stands on an eminence, and consists of narrow crooked streets, with mean houses; but in the latter the streets are straight and broad, and adorned with handsome edifices. The Walk is a very fine street, with beautiful houses on each side, and in the middle two rows of lofty trees, which form a fine vista; and there are here a number of benches for resting places. This city is the residence of a high bailiff, and has a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Arles, who has a diocese containing thirty-six parishes, with an annual revenue of thirty thousand livres, and his taxation at Rome is seven hundred florins. This city has also a mint, with four parish churches, including the cathedral, which is said to have been a temple of Diana, and the most ancient in France, and two collegiate ones, with two abbeys, an academy of the polite arts, and an observatory. This city also contains a large arsenal, well stored with materials for fitting out the king's galleys. The large armoury, which consists of four walks crosswise, and is esteemed the finest in the whole kingdom, contains arms for forty thousand men. In the arsenal is a dock for building the galleys, which is roofed over, and has a communication with the harbour, which is in the form of a parallelogram, and has public and private buildings on the two long sides, and on one of the shorter. The other, which opens into the Mediterranean, is defended on each point by a fine strong fort. The entrance into the harbour, on account of a rocky cape near it, is difficult, and has not a depth of water sufficient for men of war.

On the land-side is one of the most beautiful plains in the world, in which there are said to be no less than eight hundred country-seats of the citizens with their gardens and vineyards, whither they retire from the noise of the town, which is very disagreeable from the multitude of slaves in the streets rattling their chains, some of whom serve as porters, and others have little shops and huts, where they are allowed to work at their trades.

Gold and silver stuffs are made here, and almost all the trade of France with Spain and Italy is carried on by Marseilles, which is also the center of the commerce of the Levant. To Italy the inhabitants export cloths, serges, honey, figs, prunes, olives, capers, fresh eels, a species of small sardines, oil, sail-cloth, aqua vitæ, cotton waistcoats, stockings, &c. and the returns are made in silk, hemp, sulphur, manna, anise, corn, and rice. To Spain they export all kinds of linen, silk, wool, gold and silver stuffs, gold, silver, and thread lace, with several home and Levant commodities; and their trade in silk to Constantinople, Smyrna, Athens, Candia, the Archipelago, Tripoli, and Alexandria, is very considerable. In the year 1720, this city was visited by a most dreadful pestilence, which raged till 1722.

Toulon, a pretty large city, seated in a bottom, almost encompassed with hills on the land-side, and on a bay of the Mediterranean, which forms a secure and commodious

dious harbour, in the latitude of forty-three degrees five minutes, and in the sixth degree two minutes east longitude; near four hundred miles south-east of Paris. It is defended by very strong fortifications towards the land-side, and the new part of the town is very handsome. The bishop of this city is subject to the archbishop of Arles, under whom he has a diocese of twenty-five parishes, with an annual revenue of fifteen thousand livres, out of which his taxation at the court of Rome is four hundred florins. Besides the cathedral, it has nine convents, a seminary, and a college, under the direction of the fathers of the Oratory, and the Jesuits had here a very fine house. The old and new harbour lie contiguous, and by means of a canal you pass from one to the other, both having an outlet into the spacious outer harbour, which is surrounded with hills, and formed by nature almost circular. Its circuit is of very great extent, and at the entrance on both sides is defended by a fort with strong batteries. The new harbour, which was made by order of Lewis XIV. is also well defended by batteries, and round it stands the arsenal, where every man of war has its own particular store-house; but the guns and cordage are laid up separate. In it are also spacious work-houses for blacksmiths, joiners, carpenters, lock-smiths, carvers, &c. The rope-house, which is built entirely of free-stone, is six hundred and forty yards in length, with three arched walks, in which as many parties of rope-makers may work at the same time. The general magazine, which supplies whatever may be wanting in the particular storehouses for single ships, contains an immense quantity of all kinds of stores, disposed in the greatest order. The cannon foundry is also worth viewing.

In the year 1707, the duke of Savoy laid siege to this city, but without success; and in 1721, it suffered greatly by the plague. The inhabitants make a kind of coarse woollen cloth, and its neighbourhood abounds in capers.

Hieres, the ancient *Areæ*, a small town, formerly much more considerable than at present; it having once an harbour where pilgrims used to embark for the Holy Land. This town has a district court, and several public offices; it also contains one collegiate, with two other parish churches, and five monasteries and nunneries. The soil is excellent, and being laid out in orchards, produces the finest fruit in France. A great deal of salt is made here, both from sea-water and a large salt lake; but the air was unwholesome, till this inconvenience was remedied by forming a canal, which extends from the lake to the sea.

This town gives name to the islands of Hieres, which lie in the neighbouring sea, and in conjunction with the continent, form a fine road. These islands are three in number. The principal, which lies nearest the town is Porquerolles, so called from the great number of wild hogs, which swim over hither from the continent, for the sake of the acorns, abundance of oaks growing here. It is four French leagues in length, one in breadth, and is defended by an old castle. The second is Portecroz, that being the name of the harbour where a fort is built. The third is called Titan, or Levant, from its situation to the eastward of the former; but though it is four French leagues in length and one broad, it is uninhabited. On these islands are said to be found the most curious medicinal plants of all the species that grow in Italy, Spain, Greece, and Egypt.

Frejus, the ancient *Forum Julii*, is a fortified city seated on the river *Argent*, at the distance of a mile and a half from the sea, and thirty-six miles to the north-east of Toulon. It has a court of admiralty, and is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Aix, and has within his diocese eighty-eight parishes, with a yearly revenue of twenty-eight thousand livres, out of which he is taxed one thousand florins at the court of Rome. This city contains four convents. Among the remains of Roman antiquities, there are here an aqueduct of considerable length, and an amphitheatre.

The principal place in Upper Provence is Sisteron, a city that has a small citadel, seated at the foot of a rock on the *Durance*, thirty miles to the south-west of Em-

brun, and is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Aix, who has sixty four parishes, and a revenue of fifteen thousand livres per annum, and his taxation at the court of Rome is eight hundred florins. Here is a cathedral and five convents, and on the other side of the river is a pretty large suburb called *La Baune*, which contains one parish church, and one convent.

Though the state of Avignon belongs to the pope, yet the greatest part is surrounded by Provence; and as the natives of Avignon enjoy the privileges of natives of France, it is proper to give that country in this place. The country we are now to describe is very delightful, and particularly abounds in corn, wine, and saffron. It is subject to few taxes, and pays only the tenth of its produce; so that the annual expence of the vice-legat, and the militia, exceed the income arising from it to the court of Rome. The French farmers-general have, by means of a sum of money, obtained the monopoly of salt and tobacco in this country, though that trade is still carried on in the pope's name.

Avignon, in Latin *Avenis*, is situated on the river *Rhone*, about twenty miles to the north of Arles, and is surrounded with a wall of fine free-stone; but has little trade, especially since the manufacture of printed linen, which afforded a comfortable subsistence to great numbers of the inhabitants, was suppressed in favour of the French East-India company, who purchased this prohibition of the pope by paying him a considerable sum. The vice-legat, as governor, usually resides in the papal palace, which is a large structure of free-stone, encompassed with moats; but is far from being a regular edifice. The arsenal is a long lofty building, but without any other fire arms than what are just necessary to be discharged on public rejoicings. The upper court of the vice-legat is called the *Rota*, and has a right of appeal to Rome. The cathedral, which stands on the same eminence with the palace, is not very large. In two chapels are to be seen the monuments of pope Benedict XII. and John XXII. and also the chair or throne of the ancient popes, during their residence here. In the church of the *Celestines*, are fine paintings of the pretended miracles performed by cardinal Peter of Luxemburg, to whom the church is dedicated. In this church is also a splendid chapel, and a monument in it erected in honour of some shepherds, who are said to have built the stone-bridge here over the *Rhone*. In the church of the *Franciscans*, is the tomb of the beautiful and learned Laura, immortalised by the poetry and passion of the celebrated Petrarch. In this town are two societies of Jesuits, to one of which belongs a fine college, with an university founded in 1303. The popes resided here from the year 1305 to 1377. In this city the Jews enjoy the free exercise of their religion.

S E C T. V.

Of the Province of Dauphiné; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Singularities; its Medicinal Springs, Rivers, and Principal Cities, particularly Grenoble, Ambrun, Vienne, and Valence.

THE province of Dauphiné is bounded on the north by the country of *Bresse* and the river *Rhone*; on the east it is separated from *Piedmont* by the *Alps* and *Savoy*; on the south it borders on *Provence*; and on the west on the *Rhone*. It is nearly of a triangular form, and each side of the triangle is about an hundred English miles in length.

Lower Dauphiné produces corn, wine, olives, silk, hemp, salt, wood, vitriol, crystal, iron, copper, and lead; but Upper Dauphiné, and indeed above two thirds of the whole province, being very mountainous, are so barren, that great numbers of the natives seek for subsistence in other parts; yet these mountains have some useful products, and contain many curiosities. In those of *Ambrun* and *Die*, are found *marcasites*. The golden mountain, as it is called, yields a species of crystal. Several mountains are covered with larch-trees, on the rind of which is gathered *manna*, benjamin of a delightful fragrance

fragrance, and agaric, which is used in physic and scarlet dyes. These mountains abound in beasts that are not found in any other part of France, particularly the chamois, bear, and marmot, which have been already described, pheasants, hawks, eagles, &c.

Ancient historians and modern geographers give very pompous descriptions of the wonders of Dauphiné, which some represent as seven and others more. The first is the burning spring, on a hill nine miles from Grenoble. It is a little brook, which issues from a soil emitting smoke, and even small flames have been sometimes perceived in it, which communicated heat to the water; but for these two centuries past, this rivulet has altered its course to the distance of twelve feet from that igneous soil, and is now as cold as common water. The second is the tower without venom, about a league from Grenoble, it being pretended that no venomous creature will stay in it; but this is a notorious mistake, it being known to swarm with adders and spiders. The third is the inaccessible mountain, which is a steep craggy rock, situated on a very high mountain, about two leagues from Die. But though it is extremely difficult to climb up to the top of it, this has been frequently done. The fourth is the caves of Saffanage, which are two excavated stones, that lie in a grotto above a village of that name. The country-people relate, that annually on the sixth of January they become full of water, and that the quantity of it in one of these stones, foretels whether they shall have a good or bad winter, and the other prognosticates whether they shall have a good or bad harvest of corn. For several centuries past this story has been kept up by the artifices of some of the inhabitants, who themselves take care to fill the stones with water.

There are several other supposed wonders in this province, among which is a water fall in a grotto near the above caves, and the floating meadow in the lake of Pelhotiers; but this supposed meadow consists merely of grass and rushes cemented, as it were, together, by the slime of the water.

The waters of La Mothe in this province, are highly esteemed, as a certain remedy against all disorders of the stomach, fluxes, and even lameness, they being much better than the water at Aix, in Savoy. La Mothe is a valley about five leagues from Grenoble, that runs between two high mountains, and enjoys no other prospect but that of bare and steep rocks. The only dwellings here are wretched huts of straw, so that the country is in every respect disagreeable. The Drac, a very rapid river, proceeding from the high part of the district of Gap, is, as it were, squeezed in at La Mothe between two high rocks. On its shore, at the foot of a very steep rock, is the mineral spring, which if the river rises but half a foot, is covered with its turbid water. To come at the spring, a person must clamber half a French league over steep rocks and dreadful precipices, which seem to threaten the passenger with immediate destruction; and therefore it is no wonder that these excellent waters are but little frequented. There are several other mineral springs in this province.

The principal rivers are the Rhone, the Durance, the Isere, and the Drome. In this province are two archbishopricks, and five bishoprics. The civil law takes place here; the inhabitants have also particular customs of their own, and likewise a parliament, which is also a court of taxes, with one provincial court of justice, seven prefectures, three bailiwicks, four royal jurisdictions, and as many private lordships. The governor and lieutenant-general of the province sit in the parliament, and take place above the chief president. The principal places in this province are the following:

Grenoble, in Latin Gratianopolis, the capital of the province, is pleasantly seated at the foot of a mountain on the river Isere, near the place where the river Drac discharges itself into it. Here the parliament meets. This city has also an intendency, a chamber of accounts, a court of taxes, a mint, and a court of the lord-treasurer of France. It is a pleasant populous city, and besides other fortifications, is defended by a citadel, called the Bastille. The bishop of this place is suffragan to the archbishop of Vienne, and has a revenue of twenty-eight thousand livres, out of which he pays one thousand flo-

rins to the court of Rome. The river Isere divides the city into two unequal parts, the smallest of which is called La Perriere, and contains one parish church, and one convent. The name of the largest is Bonne; this is the most beautiful, it being built with straight handsome streets, and contains several magnificent public buildings; as the bishop's palace, the palace in which are held the courts of justice, the cathedral, the arsenal, and a general hospital.

The grand chartreuse, the most celebrated of all the convents belonging to the order of Carthusians, is seated on the Alps, at the distance of three leagues from Grenoble. There are two ways leading to it, but both are carried over steep rocks and precipices of a dreadful height, the terror of which is increased by the roaring of the river Guyer la Mort, during its precipitate course among them. The convent, which stands on an eminence resembling a meadow, is environed with rocks and mountains covered with wood, that rise to a much greater height. This convent forms a spacious oblong square walled in, and without it are a few inns and stables. In the large hall of this convent is annually held the general chapter of the order of the Carthusians, where the German priors take the precedence of all others; and at their arrival may ride into the court of the convent, which none of the rest are permitted to do; but, like strangers, must alight at the gate. In the hall are fine paintings, representing the life of St. Bruno, and likewise the pictures of the generals of the order. The former are copies of the admirable paintings in the Chartreuse at Paris. In a large gallery may be seen views of all the Carthusian convents in Christendom, mostly executed by eminent hands. The church is not large, but very magnificent; and among other relics it is said to contain the arm of St. Bruno, his body being interred in Calabria. The first settlement of Bruno and his disciples was half a league from this place, and it having no particular name, was so called from Carthreufe, a village situated near it in a valley, and which is still in being. From the kitchen of this monastery above a hundred persons are daily fed; and among them thirty monks and forty lay-brothers; and all strangers are entertained here gratis. The wine-cellar consists of two lanes lined with casks of an extraordinary size, and which being immoveable, are filled through the roof by means of leather pipes. This convent is the head of the order, and chooses the general, who is obliged to reside here during life.

Briançon, the capital of a territory called Briançonnais, is seated forty five miles to the south-east of Grenoble, on the side of a steep rock, on the top of which stands a castle; near the town the two little rivers of Dure and Ance unite their streams, and thus form the river Durance.

Ambrun, or Embrun, the capital of the territory of Ambrunois, is situated on a steep rock, at the foot of which runs the river Durance, and is about twenty miles to the south of Briançon. It is a strong place both by art and nature, and is the see of an archbishop, who styles himself prince and count of Ambrun, and baron of Guillestre and Beaufort, who has also one-half of the lordship and jurisdiction of the city. His annual revenue amounts to twenty-two thousand livres, and his taxation at the court of Rome is two thousand four hundred florins. The episcopal palace is the finest building in the city, which, besides the cathedral, contains five parish-churches, with a Capuchin convent, and had lately a college of Jesuits.

Vienne, in Latin Vienna Allobrogum, the capital of a district in Lower Dauphiné called Viennois, is a very ancient city seated on the Rhone, seventeen miles to the south of Lyons. It is of pretty large extent; but the streets are narrow and ill paved. The cathedral is a beautiful structure, and in it are three chapters. Here is also a priory, nine convents, one seminary, and there was till lately a college of Jesuits. The church of Notre Dame de la Vie is said to have been a Roman prætorium. The archbishop of this place enjoys the title of upper primate of Gaul, and his annual revenue amounts to twenty-two thousand livres, out of which he is taxed eighteen hundred and fifty-four florins at the court of Rome. In this city are made anchors and sword-blades, with other manufactures in iron and steel, and also paper-mills.

Valence, in Latin Valentia, the capital of a district called

called Valentinois, is seated on the Rhone, forty-eight miles to the south of Lyons, and is pretty well built: it is large, and one of the most antient cities in France, having been formerly a Roman colony. The bishop is subject to the archbishop of Vienne, and has an annual revenue of sixteen thousand livres, out of which his taxation to the court of Rome is two thousand three hundred and eighty-nine florins. The episcopal palace is a fine building: besides the cathedral, it contains one chapter, and three abbies; with six convents, and an university.

SECT. VI.

Of the Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Rivers of Franche Comté; with a Description of Besançon, Salines, Dole, and Gray.

THE earldom of Burgundy, or Franche Comté, is bounded on the north by Lorrain; on the east by the earldom of Mumpelgard and Swisserland; and on the south and west by the government of Burgundy and Champagne. Its extent from south to north is about ninety miles, and from the south-east to the north-west sixty. Almost one-half of it is a level country abounding in corn, wine, pastures, hemp, &c. and the other half is mountainous, but produces a good breed of cattle, and some corn and wine.

This country contains mines of copper, iron, lead, and silver. Near the village of Touillon is a spring that runs and ceases at stated times, and the town of Salines has profitable salt-springs and marshes. In this district are likewise quarries of alabaster and marble; and also near the river Doux is a large grotto in which nature has formed pillars, and a surprising variety of figures; and near Leugne is a natural cavern of ice, which freezes in summer and thaws in winter.

The principal rivers of this province are the Saone, the Ougnon, the Doux, the Louve, and the Dain.

Franche Comté has a parliament of its own; it is subject to a governor, lieutenant-general, and sub-governor; and is divided into four large districts, the principal places in which are the following:

Besançon, in Latin Vesontio, and Besontium, the capital of the country, is a hundred and sixty miles to the south-east of Paris, and is the seat of an archbishopric, a parliament, an intendency, a bailiwick, a country and a mint-court, &c. It is divided by the river Doux into the Upper or Old Town, and the Lower or New Town, and is surrounded by a wall and other fortifications: it is also defended by a citadel that stands on a steep rock, and is an oblong square, flanked with four irregular bastions, the ground being too uneven to admit of regular works. Till the peace of Westphalia it was an imperial city, but at that time was transferred to Spain: it was afterwards taken by France, and its fortifications were greatly strengthened by Lewis XIV. The cathedral, which is dedicated to St. John, stands at the foot of Mount St. Stephen; and the archbishop, who styles himself a prince of the empire, has three suffragans under him, with a revenue of thirty-six thousand livres, out of which he pays a thousand and twenty-three florins to the court of Rome. The city also contains two chapters, eight parish-churches, two abbies of monks, and two of nuns, twelve convents, one university, three hospitals, and had a college of Jesuits. The town-house, the governor's palace, and that of Granville, are the most remarkable buildings in the place; the last of which is furnished with a great variety of excellent statues and pictures, and a library containing a great number of valuable books and manuscripts. In the neighbourhood of Besançon are the ruins of an amphitheatre, a hundred and twenty feet in diameter, and of some pagan temples, with a triumphal arch dedicated to the emperor Aurelian.

Salines, in Latin Salinæ, so called from an excellent salt-spring which yields the crown a great revenue, is pleasantly situated on a rivulet in a valley between two mountains, twenty miles to the south of Besançon, and two hundred to the south-east of Paris. It is a long town, chiefly consisting of one street, and has four chapters, four parish-churches, ten convents, one college, and one hospital. The hall, in which they have their

magazine of salt, and where their courts of justice are held, is a magnificent building. The town is defended by a wall, and near it stands Fort Belin, which is seated on a hill, and on another is Fort Brecon, and a castle. It contains five or six thousand inhabitants, and in its neighbourhood are quarries of jasper, beautiful alabaster, and black marble.

Dole, a town seated on the river Doux, eighteen miles to the south-west of Besançon, in a district of the same name, which, from its beauty and fertility, is styled Val d'Amours, or the Vale of Love, was formerly, while Besançon continued a free imperial city, the capital of the country, the seat of a parliament, of a chamber of accounts, and of an university. On its being taken by Lewis XIV. in 1668, he caused the fortifications to be demolished; it was afterwards taken by the Spaniards, who fortified it again; but the French retaking it in 1674, it was a second time dismantled, and the parliament and university afterwards removed to Besançon; but the chamber of accounts still remains here. It is still a pretty town, the streets are spacious, and the houses tolerably well built. The publick edifices most worthy of notice are the church of Our Lady, the Jesuits college, and the palace where their parliament was held. It has also one chapter, eleven convents of both sexes, and an hospital. The inhabitants are said to amount to between four and five thousand. Here are still the remains of several Roman antiquities, particularly of two aqueducts.

Gray, in Latin Gradicum, is a pretty trading town seated on the Saone, about ten miles to the north-west of Besançon, and was well fortified, till taken by Lewis XIV. in 1668, who demolished the works. It contains but one parish-church, a collegiate church, five convents, and had a college of Jesuits. The inhabitants are computed to amount to about four thousand. Here they embark great quantities of corn, iron, and other merchandize, which they transport to Lyons.

SECT. VII.

The Situation, Extent, Produce, and Mountains of Alsace. The Inundations of the Rhine; with the Gold Dust and beautiful Pebbles found in that River. Of the other Rivers of Alsace. The Number of its Inhabitants; the Manner in which that Country became subject to France; with a Description of Strasburg, and the other principal Cities of Alsace.

ALSACE terminates to the southward on Swisserland and the Franche Comté, to the eastward on Ortenau and Brisgau, to the northward on the Palatinate, and to the westward on Lorrain, extending from north to south about eighty-five miles. The country in general is very pleasant, and abounds in all kinds of grain, fruit, esculent vegetables, flax, tobacco, and wood: its wine is very palatable, and its pastures are also rich. The country between the rivers Ill, the Haardt, and the Rhine, is narrow and but indifferently fertile; but has some vineyards and a few pastures: here rye, barley, and oats, are the only grain; but that part which lies between the mountains, the Ill, and the plain of Soultz, in Upper Alsace, to the distance of six miles beyond Hagenau, yields an exuberance of grain, wine, and pastures. The mountains abound in wood, and, though they produce but little corn, they feed large herds of cattle. The country from Mount Saverne, and the levels about Strasburg to the Rhine, is incomparably fertile and delightful, it being rich in all kinds of grain, tobacco, culinary vegetables, saffron, and hemp.

The chief chain of mountains in this country is the Wasgau, in French the Vosge. This chain begins in the neighbourhood of Langres, and extending at first from west to east separates the country of Burgundy from Lorrain. After this, winding towards the north, it separates Lorrain from Alsace, and forms another curve towards the electorate of Triers. The summits and valleys of this chain, as well as the plains of Alsace, according to Busching, produce a hundred and fifty kinds of trees and shrubs, and fifteen hundred and fifty species of herbs, which all grow wild. This chain has also some excellent pastures, and the eminences, where the soil is favoured

with a sunny exposure, produce very agreeable red and white wine, of which a great deal of brandy, vinegar, and tartar is made. This chain of mountains has also for these several centuries been famous for its mines of silver, copper, and lead; several parts also abound in iron, antimony, cobalt, sulphur, and other minerals. It is also observable, that these mountains are thick set with an uncommon number of churches, convents, and chapels.

The Rhine, which serves as a security to this country, frequently causes terrible devastations, not only in winter, but in the midst of summer, when the snow melts on the Alps. Its inundations then ruin the fields, by covering them with sand. The violent torrents of the Rhine, which generally happen every year, frequently alter the situation of the islands within it. One singularity of this river is, that in its sand are found particles of gold, which the torrents in their fall wash from the Alps, and bring into the Rhine. Accordingly it is only below Basil that the sand contains this precious mixture, which in autumn and winter, when the river is at the lowest, is drawn out with the sand, and, after passing through several waters, the gold is extracted. The particles of this metal are seldom so large as a grain of millet; the gold is indeed very fine and beautiful; but is so scarce, that the city of Strasburg, which has the privilege of gathering gold for the length of four thousand paces, scarce collects five ounces in a year. The Rhine also contains many crystals, and particularly pebbles that receive a beautiful polish, and are much used in France under the name of Rhine pebbles.

The following rivers issue from the above chain, and run into the Lower Alsace, the Leber, the Cher, the Andlau, the Ergers, and the Breusch; these three last run into the Ill. The Serr, the Motter, the Seltzbach, the Lauter, and the Queich, which run into the Rhine. In Upper Alsace the Berre and the Ill, which also run into the Rhine.

The number of inhabitants in Alsace is computed at about half a million. In Upper Alsace and Sundgau are thirty-two large and small towns, in Lower Alsace thirty-nine, and in both are upwards of a thousand small towns and villages. The common language of the inhabitants is the German, and they are partly Lutherans and partly Roman catholics.

Alsace has been subject to several German families, and particularly to the house of Austria; but at the peace of Munster the emperor ceded to the crown of France all right to the town of Brisac, the landgravate of Upper and Lower Alsace, Sundgau, and the district of the ten united imperial cities in Alsace, with the whole sovereignty belonging to them. On the other hand, France engaged that the inhabitants should continue unmolested in the enjoyment of their freedom; and promised to be satisfied with the power which the house of Austria had enjoyed over them, and had transferred to France by that treaty. In the succeeding wars France took the ten imperial cities in Alsace, and as by the peace of Nimeguen no express stipulation was made for their restitution, the king treated them as a part of his acquisitions, and directed a chamber of appeals at Brisac, to which not only those cities, but the nobility of the empire, and all others holding imperial lands in Alsace, were to bring their processes, and not to the imperial chamber of the empire. At the peace of Ryswic, in 1697, the emperor and the empire ceded to France the perpetual sovereignty of the city of Strasburg, and of all its dependencies on the left side of the Rhine.

The principal place in Upper Alsace is Strasburg, in Latin Argentoratum, the capital of the whole country. It is a royal, free, imperial city, and the seat of a mint-court. It stands in forty-eight degrees thirty-six minutes north latitude, and in seven degrees forty-one minutes east longitude, near two miles distant from the Rhine, and is surrounded by the rivers Ill and Breusch, which also run through it; besides which an arm of the Rhine is conveyed to the city. It is not very well fortified, but by means of a sluice in the city may be laid under water. The ramparts are extremely pleasant and planted round with trees, and towards the Rhine it has a regular citadel.

The city is large and populous, it containing about thirty-two thousand houses, four thousand three hundred families, and thirty thousand inhabitants. The streets are in general narrow, two only excepted, and are adorned with few handsome houses. The public buildings are the town-house, the episcopal palace, that of the intendant, the arsenal, and the play-house. In the city hospital is kept corn of a great age, and they are said to have wine that is some hundred years old. The French hospital is a fine building, it being erected by Lewis XIV. for the reception of his soldiers.

The cathedral is a very antient structure, it being finished in the year 1449, and consequently the Protestants are not chargeable with the satirical sculptures which a few years ago were to be seen on the cornices and pedestals, representing monkies, asses, hogs, and other animals, in monkish habits; and among the rest a monk in an indecent posture with a nun. It is supposed that these were done by order of the secular clergy, to be revenged on the monks for the ill offices they were always doing them. The steeple of the cathedral is justly reckoned one of the highest in Europe, it being five hundred and seventy-four feet in height. The clock of this structure has been greatly admired; for it not only shews the hours of the day, but the motion of the sun, moon, and stars: among other things there is an angel which turns an hour-glass every hour, and the twelve apostles proclaim noon by each of them striking a blow with a hammer on a bell: there is likewise a cock which steps out and crows every hour. Among the curiosities within this church are the furniture and ornaments which Lewis XIV. presented to it, and are extremely rich and magnificent; fifty persons it is said were employed on them during eleven years, and they cost that prince six hundred thousand dollars; the principal of these is a splendid altar-cloth. There are here also a triple set of missal vestments and altar furniture, six large silver chandeliers, each so heavy that it requires a strong man to carry it, and a crucifix of double the weight. These seven pieces of plate put together weigh a thousand and sixty-six pounds eight ounces.

There are here also three collegiate churches, two of which are parochial; together with four others belonging to the Romish community; but the Lutherans are in possession of St. Thomas's church, in which the illustrious count Maurice of Saxony was interred in the year 1751; yet the Protestants perform their public worship at Wolfenheim, and not in the city. The university and gymnasium here are Lutherans; and here are also an anatomical theatre, a physic garden, a royal society founded in 1752, and particularly instituted for the natural history of Alsace: there are also six convents, and till lately a college of Jesuits.

The city council is half Lutheran and half Roman catholics; but most of the burghers are Lutherans: the college of magistrates consists of three chambers; to the first belong thirteen persons, who preside over matters of justice; the second is composed of fifteen persons, under whose care are the rights and privileges of the city, the hospitals, police, and finances; the other chamber is composed of twenty-one, in whom is lodged the ordinary government of the city. Over these is the grand council, which consists of thirty members, ten of whom are noblemen, and twenty burghers. It has also an inferior council, for the determination of affairs of less importance. The supreme magistrate here, since the city has become subject to France, is the royal prætor, who takes care of the king's rights, and that nothing be done in the college of magistrates, contrary to his majesty's pleasure. The inhabitants, however, pay nothing to the king; but all the imposts levied here are expended in the support of the city.

To this city belong five districts, or lordships. The bishopric of Strasburg also comprehends a considerable tract of territory, subject to the bishop, as a temporal lord. It lies scattered in Upper and Lower Alsace, and on the other side of the Rhine, where he has two districts. He styles himself prince of the empire, and landgrave of Alsace; and though at present subject to France, yet, by virtue of the districts on the other side of the Rhine,

Rhine, is actually a state of the empire, and has a seat and voice in the diet: he has also many vassals under him, and among them almost all the nobility in Lower Alsace, together with a great part of those in the Upper. His revenue is said to amount annually to two hundred and fifty thousand livres, and it was formerly much more considerable. As a bishop he is subordinate to the archbishop of Mentz.

Fort Louis is a very strong and handsome fortification, upon an island in the Rhine, twenty miles to the north-east of Strasbourg. It was erected in the year 1686, and consists of a spacious and regular quadrangle, with four large bastions, and the same number of half-moons. Near it is a small town, formed of straight streets, and the whole island is fortified round.

Zabern, a small town seated on the river Sor, fifteen miles to the north-west of Strasbourg. It was the usual residence of the bishop of Strasbourg, till this place embraced the Lutheran religion; and his palace and gardens here are delightful. Here is a collegiate church, one hospital, and two convents; but what is particularly remarkable, is the beaten broad road, carried, behind the city, to the top of a high mountain, the ascent to which is rendered so easy by such a number of windings, that a person may either ascend or descend without the least difficulty.

Colmar, the capital of Upper Alsace, is situated near the river Ill, thirty-five miles south by-west of Strasbourg, and had strong walls, which Lewis XIV. caused to be demolished in the year 1673; but after the treaty of Ryswic he encompassed it with new walls. The inhabitants are said to enjoy all their privileges, and, tho' most of them are Lutherans, have liberty of conscience. It contains about eight hundred houses, and seven thousand one hundred and forty inhabitants.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Dutchies of Lorrain and Bar; their Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers; the Manners and Language of the Inhabitants. The Manner in which they became subject to the present Duke of Lorrain; his Titles, and a Description of the principal Cities in those Dutchies.

THE dutchy of Lorrain derives its name from Lotharius II. grandson to the emperor Lewis I. and was formerly of much greater extent. It is at present bounded on the east by the Lower Palatinate and Alsace, from the latter of which it is separated by the Vogean mountains, on the south by Franche Comté, on the west by Champagne, and on the north by Metz. Its greatest breadth from north to south is about a hundred miles, and it is nearly as much from east to west.

It enjoys a very temperate climate, and has a fruitful soil, which particularly abounds in grain, though it has many woods and mountains; but in these are good game, and also excellent pasture. The country has also salt springs, with some mines of iron, copper, tin, and silver. In the mountains of Wasgau are found agates, chalcedonies, and other gems. Its lakes too abound in fish, particularly the lake of Lindre, the profits of which are said to amount to sixteen thousand livres per annum.

The principal rivers in this dutchy are the Maese, the Mosel, and the Saar. Here are also the small rivers of Voloy, Mortaire, and Meurte.

The inhabitants have always been reputed brave soldiers, and their modern dukes have constantly kept on foot a particular army, which have performed signal service. But the French have frequently had the policy to turn the power of Lorrain to their own advantage, and to the prejudice of the duke. The Lorrainers are also laborious; but have little trade with strangers, they having no navigable rivers, and all necessaries within themselves; but what little trade they have consists of corn and linen.

The language spoken here is French, except in the German districts, where that language is spoken. The Romish religion prevails all over the country.

Lotharius, the younger son of the emperor of the same

name, may be considered as the first founder of the state of Lorrain, its name being derived from him. The country, after his decease, was divided among his relations, and was afterwards sometimes possessed by the Germans, and sometimes by the French, and continual disputes arose between the emperors of Germany and the kings of France. At length, in 1733, France took possession of this dutchy; and in the preliminaries of peace in 1735 it was concluded, that not only the dutchy of Bar, but likewise that of Lorrain, the earldom of Falkenstein excepted, should be ceded to Stanislaus, king of Poland, and father-in-law to Lewis XV. and after his decease both duchies, together with the absolute sovereignty of them, should for ever belong to the crown of France. On the other hand, the emperor Charles VI. engaged in return to cede the great dutchy of Tuscany to his son-in-law Francis Stephen, the late emperor, to atone for his losing Lorrain. This was settled in 1736, and the following year Stanislaus took actual possession of the dutchies of Lorrain and Bar, and the duke of Lorrain became possessed of Tuscany.

The dukes of Lorrain bear the following titles: S. by the grace of God duke of Lorrain and Mercœur; king of Jerusalem and Marchis; duke of Calabria, Bar, and Guelders; margrave of Pont à Mousson and Nomeny; and count of Provence, Vaudemont, Blamont, Zutphen, Saarwerden, and Salem. From hence may be seen not only the countries the duke actually possesses, but likewise their pretensions. The eldest son, during the life-time of his father, is styled count of Vaudemont, and also writes himself, while unmarried, margrave of Pont à Mousson; but after his marriage he assumes the title of duke of Bar. The antient house of Lorrain, by virtue of a treaty concluded in 1736, retains all the titles, arms, and privileges, with the rank and quality of sovereign princes, which it formerly enjoyed, yet without any claim to the ceded countries.

The principal places in the dutchy of Lorrain are the following:

Nancy, the capital of the dutchy, and the antient residence of the dukes, is seated in a delightful plain near the river Meurte, seventy-five miles to the west of Strasbourg, and is divided into the Old and New Town. The former is both the smallest, and makes the meanest appearance, it being built with narrow streets; but in it stands the palace, which was begun by duke Leopold Joseph; yet only the main body is finished. The spacious long square, or wide street before it, has a fine appearance. In the palace are eighteen very exquisite pieces of tapestry, representing the achievements of Charles IV. duke of Lorrain. Here are also shewn the sabres of two Burgundians, who were killed with Charles the Bold; and likewise that duke's helmet, lined with red velvet, and a yellow crest on the top. This helmet used to be carried every year in procession by the captain of the Swifs, while two other Swifs carried the sabres. Near the palace is a beautiful garden upon one of the bastions, from which there is a very fine prospect. Adjacent to this garden stands the opera-house, which was built by Bibiena, an Italian architect, who also built the theatre at Vienna. This house is not remarkable for its largeness, but is extremely well contrived, and on each side of it is a good tribuna, which is a great ornament to it.

The New Town is larger, and contains broad and straight streets, with several beautiful houses; but, according to the fashion of this country, they are generally low. In this city are three parish and three collegiate churches, with two abbies, seventeen convents, one college, one hospital, an academy of sciences, and one commandery of the knights of Malta. Among the collegiate churches is the new stately cathedral, which is immediately subject to the pope. This is a magnificent building, it being adorned with two towers and a cupola after the Italian taste. The chapter consists of a primate and sixteen canons. The duke nominates the primate without consulting the canons. In the collegiate church of St. George stands not only the monument of Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, who was slain in 1476, but also the tombs of the antient dukes of Lorrain. The latter dukes are interred in the church of the Capuchins. The city was formerly

formerly fortified, but by the peace of Ryswic was dismantled, only the works of the Old Town still remaining.

Luneville, in Latin Lunaris Villa, a small, very ancient, and once fortified town on the river Vesouze, stands in a low marshy country, twelve miles to the south-east of Nancy. It is at present the capital of a provostship, and has a fine palace, in which not only the two last dukes of Lorraine chiefly resided, but was the residence of king Stanislaus, till in the year 1755, when the right wing of the palace was entirely burnt down. In this town is also an abbey, with a commandery of the knights of Malta, and three convents. The gymnastic academy in this place is altered to a foundation for cadets, one-half Lorrainers, and the other Poles.

It is remarkable that at a few miles distance from Luneville is Beaupré, an abbey of Protestant Benedictines, but they follow the Cistercian rule of St. Benedict. It is seated in a delightful country, and has an abbot, nine priests, nineteen religious and twenty-three lay-brothers, with a yearly revenue of eighty thousand Lorraine livres.

The duchy of Bar, or Barrois, was antiently an earldom, so called from the castle of Bar, erected in the year 964 by Frederic I. whom the emperor Otho created earl of Bar. The principal place in this district is

Bar le Duc, the capital of the country, seated on a rising ground on the banks of the river Ornain, about forty miles to the west of Nancy, and is a handsome well-built city, with two chapters, one parish-church, one priory, seven convents, and an hospital. Here also is a ducal palace.

S E C T. IX.

Of the Messin, or Government of Metz, and the Counties of Verdun and Toul: their Situation, Produce, Rivers, and principal Cities.

THE government of Metz consists of the countries of Messin, French Barrois La Saare, and French Luxemburg. Its principal rivers are the Maese; the Moselle; which rises in one of the Wasgau mountains, and is constantly navigable from Metz, discharging itself into the Rhine; the Meurte, which also rises in the Wasgau chain, and runs into the Moselle; the Orney, or Ornain; the Saare, which runs into the Moselle; and the Saon, which falls into the Rhone.

The Messin, or the country round the city of Metz, is but indifferently fertile, and produces little wheat. It was antiently a part of the kingdom of Austrasia, of which Metz was for a long time the capital, and the usual residence of the king. When the children of Charles the Great and Lewis the Pious divided the dominions of that crown, the kingdom of Lorraine rose out of the remains of that of Austrasia; and towards the end of the second royal line of France, Metz, Toul, and Verdun, three principal cities, shook off the yoke, and, to secure their freedom, put themselves under the protection of the emperor. The power was divided between the bishop and the magistrates; but the latter, by the assistance of the people, obtaining the superiority over the former, the bishop had no other power in the city of Metz and the country of Messin than a share in the election of the magistrates, and in the administration of the oath of office. The magistrates enjoyed an unlimited authority in the city and in the country of Messin, and the bishop in the domains of his bishopric on this side the Vis; though in certain cases appeals lay to the imperial chamber, which they acknowledged as the supreme power of the empire. In 1552 Metz, Verdun, and Toul, put themselves under the protection of France, which kept possession of these three cities under the name of the protected district, till the year 1648, when, at the peace of Westphalia, the three bishopricks were absolutely transferred to France.

Metz, in Latin Metæ and Metis, the capital of the country, lies between the Moselle and Seille, which here unite their streams, and is situated twenty-eight miles to the north of Nancy. The Old Town is large, but the streets are narrow; and though the houses are built in the old taste, they are handsome structures. The New Town is likewise large, and much more beautiful than the former. Besides the cathedral, this city contains three

chapters, sixteen parish churches, six abbeys, and as there are here many Jews they have a synagogue. There is here a parliament, an intendency, a chamber of accounts and imposts, a mint, a country and forest court, besides other public offices. Among its fortifications are three citadels. The bishop, who styles himself a prince of the Roman empire, is suffragan to the archbishop of Treves, and has a diocese of six hundred and thirteen parishes, with a revenue of a hundred and twenty thousand livres, out of which he annually pays to the court of Rome six thousand florins.

The bishopric of Metz and its district must be distinguished from the Messin, and is a long but irregular tract of land, the lord of which is the bishop; but he has been deprived of his temporal jurisdiction, which chiefly belongs to the duke of Lorraine, particularly the salt-works, in lieu of which the bishop receives thirty thousand livres, and four hundred bushels of salt, which the duke, or at present the French king, causes to be annually delivered into the bishop's magazine.

Sare-Louis is a new town and fortification begun by Lewis XIV. on the river Sare in 1688, and finished about four or five years after. It is situated about thirty-two miles to the north-east of Metz. Its streets are regular, and the fortifications form a regular hexagon. It is the seat of the county court, and contains one parish-church, with two convents. This town, with a district belonging to it, has been ceded by the duke of Lorraine to France.

The country of Verdun extends along the Maese; has many large towns and villages; but has only one city, which is that of Verdun.

The city of Verdun, in Latin Verodunum, or Veredunum, the capital of the country, is situated about thirty-eight miles to the north-west of Nancy; it is the see of a bishop, and has a provincial and a manor court. It consists of three parts, namely, the Upper, Lower, and New Town; and, besides its other fortifications, is defended by a fine citadel. The bishop, before the city and district were annexed to the crown of France, was a prince of the empire, and still styles himself such, as also count of Verdun. The archbishop of Treves is his metropolitan. His diocese consists of a hundred and ninety-two parishes, his revenue is fifty thousand livres, and he pays to the court of Rome four thousand four hundred and sixty-six florins. Besides the cathedral, there are in this city one collegiate and nine parish-churches, six abbeys, and a college of Jesuits. It was formerly an imperial city, but in the year 1552 the inhabitants put themselves under the protection of France, and in 1648 they fell absolutely under the power of the French king.

The earldom of Toulais being small, is hemmed in by Lorraine; and, together with the city of Toul, and the other bishoprics of Metz and Verdun, put itself in 1552 under the protection of France, which in 1648 obtained the absolute sovereignty over them.

Toul, in Latin Tullum, the principal city in this earldom, and the see of a bishop, is seated on the Moselle, over which is a fine stone bridge, with a regular fortification. This town, which stands ten miles to the west of Nancy, has a provincial and district court, and was formerly an imperial city. Its bishop was a prince of the empire, which title, together with that of earl of Toulais, he still assumes: he is suffragan to the archbishop of Treves, and his diocese contains fourteen hundred parishes; yet his revenue is little more than seventeen thousand livres, and he pays at the court of Rome two thousand five hundred florins. In this city is a fine cathedral, one collegiate and four parish-churches, three abbeys, two priories, seven convents, two hospitals, one commandery of the knights of Malta, and one seminary.

S E C T. X.

Of French Flanders; its Situation, Produce, and principal Places; with a particular Description of Gravelines, L'Isle, Douay, Cambray, and Dunkirk.

WE have already given a description of Flanders in general in page 277, where we have described that part belonging to the house of Austria, and with this we have

have concluded our account of Germany, that country making a part of the circle of Burgundy. We have given Dutch Flanders under the section which treats of the Generalité Lands, in page 297, under which name the Dutch include that country; and we shall now give a description of French Flanders, which is properly inserted here, as it constitutes a part of France, and is in no respect a separate country.

French Flanders contains a part of the antient earldom of Flanders, the Cambresis, the country of Hainault, and a small part of the earldom of Namur. This country is bounded on the north by the Seine and the German ocean, on the east by the Austrian Netherlands, on the south by Artois, and on the west by the German ocean.

French Flanders being a part of the earldom of Flanders which Lewis XIV. over-run in 1667, it thence obtained its name. It abounds in corn and vegetables of all kinds, as also in flax. Its pastures are excellent, and consequently produce fine cattle; but for want of wood, or coal, the inhabitants are obliged to make use of turf for their fuel.

The principal places in French Flanders are the following:

Gravelines, or Gravelingen, a small but strong town seated near the mouth of the Aa, on the English channel, fifteen miles to the south-west of Dunkirk, and, besides its other fortifications, is defended on the land-side by a good citadel, and to the sea by a fort. It was taken and burnt by the English in the year 1383, but afterwards rebuilt to better advantage, and walled round. In 1528 it was fortified by the emperor Charles V. but its works have been since considerably improved by marshal de Vauban, so that it is now a pretty strong place. In 1644 it was taken by the French, and in 1652 by the archduke Leopold. In 1658 it was again taken by the French, and was at last yielded to them by the treaty of the Pyrenees; but in 1694 was entirely laid in ashes.

L'Isle, Lille, or Ryssel, the capital of French Flanders, and of all the French conquests in the Netherlands, is situated on the Deule, thirty-seven miles to the south-east of Dunkirk. It is beautifully built, and is large, handsome, and populous; it is the residence of the governor-general; and has an intendency, a mint, a chancellery, a bailliwick, and forest court. It has a collegiate church, and about thirty other churches, seven of which are parochial, a great number of convents, and a noble hospital called *L'hôpital Comtesse*. Several of the buildings are very fine, particularly the exchange, which is a square structure, surrounded with piazzas.

This city is strongly fortified, which the English and their allies experienced in the reign of queen Anne, when prince Eugene, after the battle of Oudenarde, having sat down before it in 1708 for near three months, took it at last, though with the loss of a great number of men; but it was restored to the French by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713.

Both the antient and new fortifications are very numerous and considerable, they having been greatly improved by marshal de Vauban. The citadel, which was the first built by that great engineer, is a pentagon, composed of five regular bastions, defended by several works, and surrounded with a deep ditch, a covert-way, and glacis. To this fortress are two gates, one towards the city, and the other towards the country. The esplanade, or space between the city and citadel, is planted with four rows of trees, which form very pleasant walks. The general governor of French Flanders is also governor of this city, in whose absence his place is supplied by the king's lieutenant. The citadel has also a governor, and a lieutenant of the king.

The governor presides at the meeting of the states, which is commonly held about the close of the year. The other members of this assembly are the magistrates of L'Isle, who have always the first rank, the lords who have sovereign jurisdiction, and the deputies from Douay and Orchis. The sum demanded by the king from the states generally amounts to two hundred and fifty thousand livres, which is always granted and raised from the twentieth part of the revenue of estates, and from duties on taxes. Besides which the city of L'Isle annually pays

thirty-seven thousand five hundred livres toward the repairs of the fortifications. The clergy and nobility pay no subsidy, and do not assist at the meeting of the states; but three or four days after they break up, these are called together by the governor, &c. and a sum demanded in the king's name; and then these two bodies commonly grant a twentieth part and a half of the income of their estates. The body of the magistracy of L'Isle and its district is composed of a mayor, styled *revart*, and twelve echevins, all of whom are annually changed. There are here considerable manufactures of silk, cambric, fine linen, and other stuffs; and their camblets are highly esteemed. The trade of L'Isle through France by land-carriage, or by way of Dunkirk, is pretty considerable. The most profitable commerce is that to Spain and the West Indies, either on their own account or by commission.

Douay, a pretty large and well fortified city, lies on the river Scarpe, twelve miles to the east of Arras, and is of an oval form, larger than L'Isle, but less populous by one-third. It is defended by Fort Scarpe, which stands about a mile below the city, and the whole country may be laid under water by means of sluices. Here is an university founded in the year 1559, one collegiate church, and seven that are parochial, with a famous English seminary.

The principal trade of this city consists in the making and selling of worsted camblets, which are bought up by all the neighbouring people, especially at the annual fair kept here in September. The magistracy consists of twelve echevins, the first of whom is styled the chief. In 1710 the confederates made themselves masters of the city; but lost it again in the year 1712.

The Cambresis is about ten leagues in length, and from five to six broad, though in some places not above two or three. It is fruitful and populous.

Cambray, in Latin *Cameracum*, and *Camaracum*, the capital of the Cambresis, is situated on the Scheld, fifteen miles to the south-east of Douay, and is a pretty large well fortified city, defended by a citadel and fort. It is the see of an archbishop, and, besides its cathedral, contains two chapters, ten parish-churches, two abbeys, and two hospitals. The archbishop styles himself prince of the holy Roman empire, as indeed he formerly was, and count of Cambresis. He is, however, lord of the city. His diocese consists of eight hundred parishes, and his revenue is a hundred thousand livres, out of which he is annually obliged to pay six thousand florins to the court of Rome. This city is famous for its cambric, which took its name from it. It has been subject to France ever since the year 1667.

Chateau-Cambresis, the capital of the earldom of Cambresis, lies thirteen miles to the south-east of Cambray, and was once fortified; but at present lies open, and contains one abbey. The archbishop, who has here a very magnificent palace, and fine gardens, is lord of this palace.

In the year 1559 the famous treaty of this name was concluded here, between Henry II. king of France, and Philip II. king of Spain, by which the French gave up a hundred and ninety-eight towns for St. Quintin.

French Hainault is a part of the earldom of Henegau, and its principal city is the following:

Valenciennes, a large and populous city, seventeen miles to the north-east of Cambray, is seated on the river Scheld, which not only divides it into two parts, but almost runs round it. The fortifications are after the manner of Vauban; it has a good citadel on the Scheld, and very fine sluices. That part on the right of that river belongs to the diocese of Cambray, and has one collegiate church, and one abbey; the other side belongs to the diocese of Arras. The inhabitants have manufactures of woollen stuffs, and very fine linen. This city was taken by the French in 1677.

The government of Dunkirk contains only the town of the same name, and some neighbouring villages. At the peace of Utrecht, and all the other treaties that have been concluded since, it was agreed, that the fortifications and harbour should be demolished.

Dunkirk, called by the French *Dunquerque*, is seated on the Colne, which here falls into the British channel, in

in the fifty-first degree two minutes north latitude, and in the second degree twenty-seven minutes east longitude, twenty-six miles to the east of Calais. It derives its name from a church built there on the Duns, or sand-banks, erected, as it is said, by St. Eloi, who first preached Christianity among the Flemings. Some houses were gradually built near it, so as to form a little town, which Baldwin, earl of Flanders, in the tenth century, encompassed with a wall; and it enjoying a harbour commodious for trade, the inhabitants engaged in commerce, by which it grew large and wealthy, and had even some ships of war; so that in the twelfth century the inhabitants fitted out a small fleet against the Norman pirates, and performed such eminent services, that Philip, earl of Flanders, conferred some considerable privileges on the town. In the thirteenth century it was sold to the bishop of Cambray, who enlarged the town and improved the harbour. It was afterwards in the possession of several different families, and in 1538 the emperor Charles V. erected a castle here; but in 1551 it was taken and destroyed by the French. It was afterwards possessed by Spain; and, though the town recovered itself again, the inhabitants had a great share in the disturbances which arose in the Netherlands. In 1646 and 1658 it was taken by the French, and in the last-mentioned year ceded to the English for assisting France against Spain. In 1662 Charles II. king of England, sold the town to France for five millions of livres, by which means Lewis XIV. acquired also Mardyke, and the other villages which the English had built round Dunkirk.

Lewis upon this ordered the city to be well fortified, erected a fine citadel, and built Fort Lewis, which stands to the south on the canal of Bergen, about a mile and a half from the town. The harbour was also put into a most excellent condition, two moles of piles forming a canal in the sea, a thousand fathoms in length, and about forty in breadth, and at each end of the moles were erected two batteries. Besides these, on each side of the dyke was a fort, together with the battery of Revers; the castle of Gaillard on the east, and a little farther Fort Blanc. Between all these forts ships were to pass in their way to the harbour, contiguous to which was also a large basin.

This city enjoyed a flourishing trade, and in 1706 contained sixteen hundred and thirty-nine houses, in which were fourteen thousand two hundred and seventy-four inhabitants. The English, for the security of their commerce, which had suffered immense damage from the privateers of Dunkirk, compelled France to promise at the peace of Utrecht to destroy the fortifications, to fill up the harbour, to demolish the dams and sluices, and never to repair them. This was actually begun; but it was found, or at least pretended, that by filling up the harbour, the country round, for about ten French leagues, would be in danger of being overflowed. To remedy this inconvenience several fruitless negotiations passed between France and England, and in the mean while a new canal was made at Mardyke. By the treaty concluded at the Hague between France, England, and Holland, in 1717, it was agreed, that the large entrance of the new sluice at Mardyke, which was forty-four feet broad, should be entirely demolished; and that no harbour, sluice, or basin, should ever be made either at Dunkirk or Mardyke, or within two French leagues round; and that the demolition of the works of Dunkirk should be entirely completed: but France making no great haste in this work, it was in 1748 made an article of the peace at Aix la Chapelle. After which France, instead of fulfilling these engagements, began some new works, which gave fresh umbrage to the court of England, who received certain intelligence that the city was again fortified on the land-side, the basin widened, and rendered as commodious for the reception of ships as ever the harbour had been. The French court replied, that these works had no other view than to free the inhabitants from the exhalations of the stagnating water, a pretence as false as it was ridiculous, since the French made the greatest advantage of this place during the late war; but at the conclusion of it, again agreed to demolish the works, and fill up the bar, which is the more necessary to be insisted upon, as the French have no other harbour in the

Channel, but that of St. Malo's, which is only capable of receiving ships of between thirty and forty guns.

Mardyke is a village about four miles to the east of Dunkirk, and was formerly considerable only on account of its fort, built on the sea shore, which has often been besieged and taken, and was at last demolished. Mardyke at length became celebrated for its noble canal, which Lewis XIV. caused to be formed under the direction of Le Blanc, it being three thousand three hundred and thirty-eight fathoms and two feet in length. It began at the canal of Bergen, near Dunkirk, and extending itself, with the breadth of between twenty-five and thirty fathoms, no less than fifteen hundred from east to west in length; it then winded from south to north, and three hundred fathoms farther had an incomparable sluice with two basins, one of which was forty-four feet broad, it being contrived for the reception of large vessels; the other twenty-six feet in breadth, and intended for those that were small. By all the above treaties since that of Utrecht, the French have agreed to destroy this canal, and other works.

SECT. XI.

Of the County of Artois; its Situation, Extent, Produce, Government, and principal Cities.

THE county of Artois, which forms a part of the Netherlands, is bounded on the north by Flanders, on the east by Hainault, and on the south and west by Picardy. It is twenty-six French leagues in length, and about half as much in breadth. This is one of the best and finest provinces in the whole kingdom, and, besides its great fertility, carries on a considerable trade in flax, hops, wool, oil of turnip-seed, and has several manufactures of linen.

Its principal rivers are the Scarpe, the Aa, and the Canche.

This country, together with Picardy, is subject to one governor-general, a lieutenant-general, and two deputy-governors, one for Arras and Bapaume, and the other for Aire and St. Omer's. Here is a provincial council, which in civil affairs is subordinate to the parliament of Paris. The raising of the royal revenues is here administered by consent of the states, which consist of the clergy, a great number of abbots, and the deputies from every chapter: besides these there are the nobility, who amount to about seventy persons, and the commoners, who consist of the council of Arras, and the deputies of the magistracy of the eight principal towns of the country. No customs are paid here; the free gift required is in some measure settled at four hundred thousand livres; but the charges of forage are more or less according to the number of cavalry in the country.

The principal places in the county of Artois are the following:

Arras, the *Origiacum* of Ptolemy, and the *Atrebatæ* of Cæsar, is situated in a district of the same name, and stands on the Scarpe, twelve miles to the south-west of Douay. It is a very antient and large place, divided into two parts, the one called the city, and the other the town, which is the more modern of the two; each of these is surrounded with old walls, which have round towers, built after the antient manner, and a gate, over which was an inscription in French, "That when the French shall take Arras, the mice shall eat the cats," as if that event was impossible; but the event shewed that it was not, for the French took it in 1640.

The old walls were repaired by Vauban, who added several bastions, and a great number of new works in the ditch, which is large and very deep, particularly lunettes, built after Vauban's manner, and the first works of that kind which that excellent engineer performed. The ditch is surrounded with a covert-way, and a glacis as usual, beyond which are several redoubts of a pentagonal figure, placed in the re-entering angles, and each has its particular ditch, covert-way, and glacis. The citadel is somewhat higher, towards the country; it is not very large, but is esteemed one of the strongest in the kingdom; it being an oblong pentagon, composed of five bastions

bastions, as many half-moons, four tenailles, placed in the curtains, and a fausse-braye, which cover the front on the city-side. All these works are surrounded with a ditch, into which the Scarpe runs, or at least a canal drawn from that river.

This town has handsome broad streets, and is inhabited by wealthy traders and artificers, who make sail-cloth and tapestry, especially the latter, which was invented here, and therefore that manufacture obtained the name of Arras, which is indeed very beautiful, tho' inferior to the tapestry made at Paris, Brussels, and Antwerp. The large market-place here is surrounded with fine buildings, among which is the governor's house. There are eleven parish churches, several convents, one seminary, and there was lately a college of Jesuits. The cathedral, which is dedicated to the Virgin Mary, is a fine structure, in which are preserved some famous relics. The abbey of St. Vast has a magnificent church belonging to it; and among the chapels here, is one called the chapel of the Holy Candle, in which was kept a candle, which it is pretended was given by the Blessed Virgin, to the inhabitants, to cure them of an inward heat, which burnt and consumed them. The bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Cambrai, and has a diocese of four hundred parishes, with a revenue of twenty-two thousand livres a year, and is taxed at the court of Rome four thousand florins. He is lord of the city, and president in the assembly of the states.

Aire, in Latin Aeria, and Aria, a considerable fortress on the river Lys, near the confines of Flanders, and about ten miles to the south-east of St. Omer's. This is a strong and well fortified place, having, besides the walls, bastions, half-moons, horn-works, redoubts, counter-scarps, ditches, and a morass, which encompasses it on three sides. On that side which is accessible, at the distance of a cannon-shot from the city, and the river Lys, stands fort St. Francis, to which you go from the city by a regular canal. This fort is a small, but regular pentagon, composed of five bastions, encompassed by a ditch, a covert-way, and glacis. The Lys divides the city into two unequal parts, which contain a collegiate church, with several convents, and had, till lately, a college of Jesuits, with two hospitals, one of which is instituted for soldiers.

Notwithstanding the strength of this place, the French took it in 1641, and soon after it was retaken by the Spaniards. In 1676, it was again taken by the French, and was confirmed to them at the peace of Nimeguen. In November 1710, it surrendered to the allies, after a very vigorous siege, and the trenches had been open for six weeks; but by the treaty of Utrecht, it was restored again to the French.

Between Aire and St. Omer's, are the ruins of the once considerable city of Terouenne, which also stood on the river Lys. It was famous on account of its being invested by Henry VIII. king of England, in person, in the year 1503, assisted by the emperor Maximilian, who on this occasion wore a St. George's cross. At this siege the French, attempting to throw provisions into the town, were defeated by the English, with great slaughter, and from the hurry with which they fled, this was called the Battle of the Spurs, intimating that these were the principal weapons they made use of to escape in safety. A fortnight after this battle, the city was taken, but dismantled and quitted. The French afterwards repaired it, but the emperor Charles V. taking it in 1553, levelled it with the ground, since which time it has never been rebuilt.

St. Omer's, the capital of a bailiwick, is called in Latin Andomaropolis, and was formerly called Sithin. It is a considerable city, seated on the Aa, eight miles north-west of Aire, partly on an eminence, and partly on a morass, and is one of the best fortifications in the Netherlands; it being defended not only by a castle, but by large bastions, between which are half-moons, surrounded with large ditches, which are indeed too high to have any water in them; but are so deep, that it would be very difficult to mount from them to the walls of the ramparts. It is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Cambrai, and has a revenue of forty thousand

livres, and its taxation to the court of Rome is a thousand florins.

In this city are several fine streets, and a large square, with many handsome houses, among which is the town-house. The cathedral dedicated to St. Omer, is a noble structure, chiefly remarkable for its chapels, which are embellished with fine marble and beautiful paintings. Besides the cathedral, are six parish churches, and a very rich abbey of the order of Benedictines. On each side of the portico belonging to it stands a large square steeple of great height, where a constant watch is kept, to give notice whether there is an enemy in the neighbourhood of the city, the gates of which are never opened till it be day-light, and the watch has given notice, by a signal, that he has discovered no danger. Here are also several convents and nunneries, two hospitals for maidens, a general hospital for the sick, an orphan-house for poor boys, another for girls, and a house for twelve poor old men, in memory of the twelve apostles; besides several other foundations, particularly one for annually giving a sum of money to poor girls in marriage. Here is also an English seminary.

The city is populous and has some trade, a number of small vessels coming up here from the sea by means of the river Aa. The government of St. Omer's is under a mayor, who is annually changed, and twelve echevins, and under its jurisdiction are above an hundred villages.

To the north-east of St. Omer's are floating islands that move backwards and forwards, according to whatever motion is imparted to them. Upon these islands are seen grass always growing, and the people draw them with ropes to the shore in order to drive their cattle into them: they have also some trees growing here, but these they keep very low, for fear the wind should have too much hold of them, and drive the islands with too much violence.

S E C T. XII.

Of the Province of Picardy; its Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, Commerce, and principal Cities, particularly Amiens, Abbeville, Calais, and Boulogne.

PICARDY is bounded on the north by Hainault, Artois, and the Straights of Calais; on the East by Champagne; on the south by the Isle of France; and on the west by Normandy and the English Channel. This province is long and narrow, it being usually compared to a bent arm, and in this figure is nearly one hundred and fifty miles in length, but not above forty in breadth, and in many places not above twenty. It is generally a plain country, and produces wine, fruit of all kinds, plenty of corn, and great quantities of hay; but wood being scarce, most of the inhabitants burn turf; they have, however, some pit-coal, but it is not so good as that of England.

Its principal rivers are the Somme, the whole extent of which is confined to Picardy; it becomes navigable at Bray, and, after receiving several small rivers, divides into twelve channels which are afterwards united, after which it falls into the British Channel. The Oise has its source in Picardy, on the confines of Hainault, and, after receiving several rivers, becomes navigable at La Fere, and falls into the Seine at Conflans. The Canche, which falls into the British Channel below Estaples. The Lanthie, which also falls into the Channel. The Lys, which falls into the Scheld. The Aa, which is made navigable at St. Omer's, by means of sluices, and at last discharges itself into the Channel. The Scarpe, which falls into the Scheld, and the Deule, which was formerly no larger than a brook, but now by means of canals and sluices is become a considerable river.

The situation of this province on the sea, its many navigable rivers and canals, with the industry of the inhabitants, render it the seat of a flourishing trade. In it are made beautiful silk stuffs, woollen stuffs, coarse linen, lawn, and sope; it also carries on a large trade in corn and pit-coal. In the government of Calais and Boulogne, are annually bought up five or six thousand colts, which

which being afterwards turned loose in the pastures of Normandy, are sold for Norman horses. The fisheries on this coast are also very advantageous.

In Picardy are four bishoprics, two provincial courts, two governments, five courts of admiralty, four forest manors, and four lordships.

Picardy is divided into Upper, Middle, and Lower Picardy, and is again subdivided into four deputy governments, the principal places in which are the following:

Amiens, in Latin Ambianum, the capital of Picardy, and of the earldom of Amienois, is seated on the Somme, sixty-five miles to the south of Calais, and eighty to the north of Paris. It appears very delightful from the largeness of its streets, the beauty of the houses, and the extent of the squares, in two of which seven fine streets meet. On the ramparts are planted two rows of trees, which form a very agreeable walk. The river Somme enters this city in three different channels, thro' the same number of bridges; so that after watering several parts of the town, these unite again at the other end near St. Michael's bridge.

The cathedral, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, is one of the finest and best embellished in all France: the pillars, choir, chapels, tombs, and paintings, are particularly adorned; and more especially the principal entrance, which is flanked with two lofty towers, on which are placed several statues. Among other relics they pretend to have here the heart of St. John the Baptist. In this city is also a collegiate church, a chapter of St. Nicholas, fourteen parish churches, several abbeys and convents, and an academy of the Arts and Sciences, with several hospitals. The bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Rheims, and within his diocese, besides the above cathedral, are twelve collegiate churches, twenty-six abbeys, fifty-five priories, seven hundred and fifty rectories, one hundred and three chapels of ease, and forty-eight communities. His annual revenue is thirty thousand livres, and his taxation to the court of Rome is four thousand nine hundred florins. Here is the seat of a presidial court, an independent bailiwick and provostship, an office for the finances, and a mint. In this city and the neighbouring villages, the inhabitants carry on a manufacture of ferrets, and also make a considerable quantity of black and green soap.

Abbeville, that is, the Abbot's Town, is the capital of Ponthieu, a district of Picardy, and is seated twenty miles to the north-west of Amiens, and fifty-two to the south of Calais, in a very delightful plain on the Somme, which divides itself into several branches, and parts the city into two main divisions, the one towards the Low Countries, and the other towards Normandy. It is also watered by the rivulets of Scardon, Sottins, and Corneille, or Taniere. The tide here flows up the Somme, to the height of about six feet, by which means, and its situation, it is rendered a commodious port; it being but fifteen miles from the English Channel.

Abbeville was originally no more than a farm or manor belonging to the abbey of St. Requier, from which it had its name: it afterwards became a borough, from the concourse of people who came and settled in it. It is now well fortified, and encompassed with walls, which are flanked with bastions and large deep ditches. The houses are mostly of timber, old and meanly built; it is likewise extremely dirty, and next to Amiens is the most populous town in all Picardy. It contains a collegiate church dedicated to St. Ulfranc, which is a lofty stone building, fourteen parish churches, fifteen convents, a commandery of the order of Malta, and a college. It has a provincial court, with a bailiarge, a forest court, a court of commerce, a court of admiralty, and a salt office. As it is conveniently situated for commerce, it carries on a great trade in corn, oil, hemp, flax, cordage, and soap. The woollen manufacture established here in 1665, by Mr. Roberts; a Dutchman, has succeeded so well, that at present its cloths are little inferior in fineness and goodness to those of England. In it are also made very beautiful barragons, together with mocades, a kind of carpets, dimity, plush, coarse linen, spun wool, and fire arms.

Calais, a strong sea-port town, in the fifty-first degree two minutes north latitude, and in the third degree fifteen minutes west longitude, one hundred and forty-three miles to the north of Paris, in a marshy plain, on the narrowest part of the British Channel, which is here only about seven leagues broad; here the white chalky cliffs of Dover may be seen from the coast; and between Dover and Calais, go two packet-boats twice a week. The figure of this city, including the citadel, is an oblong square, the two long sides of which are each about two hundred and twenty perches in length; and the two shortest about ninety. One of the largest sides is towards the sea, and very well fortified; the other is towards the land, defended by bastions lined with stone, and covered with half-moons and deep ditches, nine or ten perches broad, that can be filled either with salt or fresh water, as they please. The short side that lies opposite to the fort of Nieulai, may be defended by being laid under water, and the other side, called the Attack of Gravelines, is still better fortified. The whole is encompassed by a covert-way, and fort Nieulai, just mentioned, is said to be a perfect piece of fortification in its kind: it has four bastions, and from thence the whole country about Calais may be laid under water in less than twenty-four hours. The citadel has still its ancient circuit and ditches, but the chevalier de Ville has surrounded it with a new enclosure with three regular bastions; and it is so advantageously situated, that it not only commands the town and fort, but likewise all the neighbouring country. Ships enter the port by a long canal, made by order of Lewis XIV. between two moles; at the head of each is a horn-work, defended by a half-moon, and encompassed by a wall, a deep ditch, and covert-way.

This port is very happily situated, but has several inconveniencies, for no vessel can enter it without running a great risque; it being almost choaked up, and there is no road for ships to ride at anchor. The canal at Calais is, however, of great use to the inhabitants for inland navigation; for by means of this canal one may easily pass by water from Calais to St. Omer's, Gravelines, Dunkirk, Bruges, and Yypres. However, notwithstanding the convenient situation of Calais, with respect to England and Holland, it is less populous than might be expected, it being supposed to contain only five thousand inhabitants.

The streets of Calais are straight, well paved, and adorned with several houses in the modern taste. In the city is only one parish church, which is a fine building, and has a very magnificent dome, and a very beautiful altar of marble; there is another church in the suburbs of St. Peter. It has four convents, two communities for the instruction of youth, and two alms-houses.

The inhabitants carry on a good trade in wine, brandy, salt, flax, horses, and butter. They are exempt from all taxes, but the assessments for the repairs of the fortifications and canals run high. The city has a particular governor, a deputy-governor, and a mayor; and to the government of Calais belong twenty-four parishes.

Edward III. king of England, took the city after a memorable siege in the year 1347; and after the English had it in their possession about two hundred years, it was retaken by the duke of Guise in 1558. It was, however, agreed by the treaty of Chateau-Cambresis, that Calais should continue in the hands of the French during the space of eight years, after the expiration of which term it was to be restored to the English. Queen Elizabeth accordingly demanded it, but the chancellor de L'Hopital refused to restore it, under pretence that during the first religious war in France, which began three years after the above treaty of peace, the English had seized Havre de Grace, and by this means had violated the treaty, and forfeited their right to Calais, which the French kept, though the English did not keep Havre de Grace, it being retaken by the French. Albert, archduke of Austria, and governor of the Low Countries, made himself master of Calais in the year 1596; but it was restored two years after to Henry IV. of France, by virtue of the treaty of Vervins. In short, this city was bombarded by the English in the years 1694, 1695, and 1696.

Boulogne, the ancient Gesoriacum, or Gisoriacum, and since Bononia, is the capital of a district, called the Boulonois, a particular government entirely independent of the governor-general of Picardy. This city stands upon a hill, at the mouth of the little river Liane, sixteen miles to the south-west of Calais. The harbour is very incommodious, with a narrow entrance, into which merchant-ships can only enter at time of flood; and St. John's road before the city, for ships of war can come no farther, is extremely bad, no vessels being able to weather it there, unless the wind blows from some point between the north and south-east; for with all other winds the sea is extremely rough and boisterous. Here formerly stood a watch-tower, called by the French *La Tour d'Ordre*, the Tower of Orders, and by the English the Old Man, said to have been first built by Julius Cæsar, and repaired by the emperor Charlemagne; but having been neglected, it fell down, and in the room of it was erected a small fort, which serves for the defence of the harbour.

The city is divided into the Upper and Lower Town, the former of which is well fortified with a strong citadel, and in it are several public squares and beautiful fountains, together with a palace, where justice is administered. Here is also a cathedral dedicated to the Virgin Mary, more venerable for its antiquity than for any thing else; also the parochial church of St. Joseph; an abbey of St. Vilemar; besides some monasteries, a seminary for the education of such as design to take holy orders, and an hospital built at the expence of the family of Aumont. The Lower Town, which is not inhabited by so many persons of quality as the other, is larger and more considerable for its trade, it being chiefly inhabited by merchants and tradesmen, and extends along the little port at the mouth of the river. The bishop of this place is suffragan to the archbishop of Rheims, and has under his jurisdiction two hundred and seventy-seven parishes, with one hundred and forty-seven chapels of ease, and a revenue of twelve thousand livres, out of which he pays fifteen hundred florins to the court of Rome.

In the year 1478, Lewis XI. surrendered this country to the Virgin Mary, declaring that for the future he and his successors should hold it from her immediately as her vassals, paying her for homage a golden heart at their accession to the crown; in pursuance of which Lewis XIV. paid twelve thousand livres for himself and his father Lewis XIII.

Boulogne was taken by Henry VIII. king of England, in the year 1544, and afterwards restored to the French king Henry II. by a treaty of peace in 1550, in consideration of his paying three hundred thousand crowns.

[S E C T. XIII.]

The Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, and Government of Champagne and Brie; with a Description of the principal Cities, as Troyes, Chalons, Rheims, and Sens.

THE province of Champagne is bounded on the north by Hainault and part of the bishopric of Liege; on the east by Luxemburg and Lorrain; on the south by Burgundy; and on the west by the Isle of France and Picardy; it being one of the most considerable provinces in the whole kingdom. This province extends from the west to the south-east, or from Lagny to Bourbon, forty-six leagues in length, and from south to north, or from Ravieres to Rocrois, about fifty-four. It derives its name from the large plains in its center, but its borders are full of forests, hills, and mountains.

This country produces plenty of grain, but is particularly famous for its wine, which is exported in great quantities; and the natural commodities in which the inhabitants trade, are corn, wine, iron, wood, and cattle, with hay, woollen and silk stuffs, linen, &c.

Its principal rivers are the Meuse or Maese, which receives its source near the village of Meuse; the Seine; the Maine, which rises in Bassigny; the Aube, which has its source on the frontiers; and the Aisne or Aine.

In this country are two archbishoprics and four bishoprics. It is governed by the parliament, the chamber of accounts, and exchequer of Paris, except the territory of Sedan, which belongs to the parliament of Metz. It has ten provincial and district courts, several forest-courts, two courts of mintage, and a generalité. The military government of this province is lodged in a governor, four general-lieutenants, under whom are four hereditary sub-governors. The principal cities in this country are the following:

Troyes, the ancient Augustomana, or Augustobona, the capital of the province, is seated in Lower Champagne, on the river Seine, about seventy miles to the south-east of Paris, and is pretty large, but far from being so flourishing and populous as formerly. It has fourteen parish churches, including the cathedral, and two collegiate churches, with four abbies, ten convents, one college, one seminary, and one hospital. The cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Peter, is a very noble structure; its portico is in a fine taste, but the tower on the left-side of it has been left unfinished.

The city is surrounded with walls, but they are not kept in good repair; and formerly it had three castles, from which it is supposed to have obtained its present name; but there are now few remains of them left. The bishop of Troyes is suffragan to the archbishop of Sens; his diocese contains three hundred and seventy-two parishes, ninety-eight chapels of ease, with seventeen abbies; his yearly revenue is fourteen thousand livres, and his taxation at the court of Rome is two thousand florins. This city still carries on a tolerable trade, especially in linen, flax, hemp, and cotton stuffs, canvas, wax and tallow-candles, needles, serges, and tapestry.

Chalons, a large city seated on the Maine, in the Chalonois, a small territory, and ninety-five miles to the east of Paris. In this city is a cathedral, two chapters, eleven parish-churches, three abbies, nine convents, and there was till lately a college of Jesuits. The bishop, who is also a count and peer, is suffragan to the archbishop of Rheims, and in his diocese are comprehended three hundred and four parishes, ninety-three chapels of ease, with nineteen abbies. His yearly revenue is twenty-four thousand livres, and his taxation at Rome three thousand florins. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in shalloons, which took their name from this place, and in other woollen stuffs.

Rheims, the antient Durocortorum, and Civitas Remorum, the capital of a district called the Rheimois, is situated sixty-two miles to the north of Troyes, and eighty-five to the north-east of Paris, and is one of the most antient and celebrated cities in the whole kingdom. It is about four miles in circumference, and contains several fine squares, large streets, well built houses, and magnificent churches. Among these is the cathedral of Our Lady, which is a fine structure, though of Gothic architecture; the principal door is remarkable for its workmanship, and the great altar, at which the coronation of the kings of France is performed, is plated with gold. The treasury of this cathedral must be very great, as every king at his coronation makes an offering here. The book of the Gospel upon which the king takes the coronation oath, is said to be written in the Slavonic tongue, and the cover is of gold set with gems. The archbishop of this place is the first duke and peer of France, perpetual legate of the see of Rome, and primate of all Gallia Belgica. He also crowns the king; he has an annual revenue of fifty thousand livres, and his taxation at the court of Rome is four thousand seven hundred and fifty florins. Here are also three collegiate churches, five abbies, nine convents, a commandery belonging to the order of St. Anthony, a commandery of the knights of Malta, and, till the Jesuits were expelled, they had here a large seminary, and a fine college.

The abbey of Benedictines of St. Remy in this city is one of the noblest belonging to that order in all France; and on the altar of its church is kept the holy phial, which at the baptism of Clovis, in 496, by bishop Remigius, they pretend was brought from heaven by a dove, at the prayer of that saint, the crowd being so great that he was unable to get to the font with the usual oil.

oil. This phial is of a dark red glass, about the length of one's little finger, and nearly resembles in shape a small Hungary-water bottle. It has a gold stopper, and is fixed in a perforated square casket fastened on a silver salver, it being seen only through a crystal cover placed over the casket. The oil is said to be grown dry, but on every unction of a king of France a small quantity of it is taken out, and mixed with the oil prepared for the unction. The university here was founded in the years 1547 and 1549. Among the other public buildings are three spacious hospitals. The city carries on a considerable trade in wine, woollen and silk stuffs, and gingerbread. It has several remarkable remains of Roman antiquities, particularly three gates of the city, which to this day bear the names of so many pagan deities, namely, of Mars, of the Sun, and Ceres.

Sens, the Agendicum of the antients, the capital of a district called the Senonois, is seated on the Yonne, and is large but not very populous, though it is well situated for trade. This city is the see of an archbishop, whose revenue amounts to fifty thousand livres, and its taxation to the court of Rome is six thousand one hundred and sixty-six florins. The cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Stephen, is admired for its stately front, it being adorned with various figures and lofty towers; as also on account of its rich chapels, antient tombs, and the magnificence of the high altar, where is a table of gold enriched with precious stones, and on which is represented in relievo the four Evangelists, together with St. Stephen. There are here also sixteen parish-churches, five abbeys, nine convents, and there was till lately a college of Jesuits.

Several councils have been held in this city, one of the most famous of which is that in the year 1140. It contains a provincial district, and forest court, together with a salt-office.

Meaux, in Latin Meldi, the capital of a district called Brie Champenoise, is seated on the river Marne, twenty-five miles to the north-east of Paris, and contains a provincial and district court, a salt-office, &c. It has also a general-lieutenant, and a particular governor. The bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Paris: his diocese is divided by the river Marne into two large arch-deaconries, to each of which belong three rural deanries; under both these are nine abbeys, seven chapters, and two hundred and twenty-seven parishes. The bishop's annual revenue amounts to twenty-two thousand livres, and his taxation at the court of Rome to two thousand florins. Besides the cathedral there are in this city one chapter, five abbeys, several convents, one alms-house, and one hospital.

S E C T. XIV.

Of the Government of Burgundy; its Name, Situation, Extent, Rivers, Government, and a Description of the principal Cities; particularly Dijon, Autun, and Trevoux, the Capital of the small Principality of Dombes.

BURGUNDY, called by the French Burgogne, derives its name from the Burgundians, who, towards the beginning of the fifth century, settled in Swisserland and Franche Comté, whence spreading themselves towards the rivers Soane and Rhone, they erected a kingdom of their own, which was gradually reduced by the kings of the Franks. This country is bounded on the north by Champagne, on the east by Franche Comté, on the south by Lyonnois, and on the west by the Bourbonnois and Nivernois. It extends from east to west above thirty French leagues, and from north to south above forty-five.

It is very fertile in corn and fruit, producing in particular excellent wine.

The rivers here are the Seine; the Dehune, which runs into the Soane; the Brebince, or Bourbince, which issues out of the lake of Longpendu; with the Armançon, the Ouche, and Tille, with several mineral springs.

In this government are four bishopricks. The district and provincial courts are subordinate to the parliament of

Dijon, which was erected in 1476; except the provincial courts of Maçon and Auxerre, and the district of Bar-sur-Seine, which are subject to the parliament of Paris. The states of the country, consisting of the representatives of the nobility, clergy, and commons, meet regularly every three years by writ from the king, in order to raise the sums required of them.

Dijon, in Latin Divio, the capital of the country, and government of Burgundy, is situated in the Dijonois, about a hundred and forty miles to the south-east of Paris. It is fortified after the antient manner, and defended by a castle flanked with great round towers. It is a pretty large city; the streets are well paved, broad, and straight; the houses are handsome, and the churches and squares beautiful. The neighbouring country is fruitful, pleasant, and watered by the rivers Sufon and Ouche; the first of which is but a rivulet, and, after running through the city moat, passes through the city itself, where it falls into the Dijon.

In this city are seven parish-churches, four abbeys, three large hospitals, or alms-houses, several convents, with a chapel in which is kept a supposed miraculous host; and the Jesuits had here a magnificent house. There are in this city likewise an academy of sciences, and in 1723 a college of law was also erected here.

The walks before the city are a quarter of a league in length, planted with three rows of linden-trees, and terminated by a delightful grove. This city is the residence of the governor, the parliament, an intendancy, a taillage-office, a provincial, supreme, and particular court, a salt office, &c. The bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Lyons, and enjoys a revenue of eighteen thousand livres a year, out of which he pays to the court of Rome twelve hundred and thirty-three florins.

Autun, the Augustodunum of the antients, stands on an eminence near three hills on the river Arux, and is about a mile in length and as much in breadth. It consists of the Upper city, which is commanded by Mount Cenis, and the Lower city, in which is the citadel, and where are held the provincial tribunal, a forest court, a salt-office, and several other courts. The bishop of this place is suffragan to the archbishop of Lyons, though he is president of the assembly of the states of Burgundy, and has a diocese of six hundred and eleven parishes and fourteen abbeys under him. His revenue amounts to seventeen thousand livres, and his taxation at the court of Rome is four thousand and eighty florins. In this city is one cathedral, five abbeys, two seminaries, two priories, one collegiate and twelve parish-churches. There was here also a college of Jesuits, and there are at present six convents, particularly a fine chartreuse, situated in the suburbs, in the church of which lie the last dukes of Burgundy, and two hospitals. In the midst of the city is an open place called The Field of Mars, and there are still the remains of three pagan temples, one of them dedicated to Janus, and another to Diana. Here are likewise two antient gates of excellent workmanship, which some have taken for triumphal arches, with a circus and the remains of a pyramid; which last, to all appearance, has been a tomb.

Auxerre, in Latin Antissiodorum, the capital of the earldom of Auxerrois, is situated on a hill near the river Yonne, ninety-two miles to the south of Paris. It has a provincial and forest court, a chamber of tythes, a salt-office, &c. and is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Sens; his diocese contains two hundred and thirty-eight parishes, and he has a yearly revenue of thirty-five thousand livres, out of which he pays four thousand four hundred florins to the court of Rome. His palace is a most noble structure. In this city are also a collegiate and eight parish-churches, five abbeys, six convents, one commandery of the knights of Malta; and, till the expulsion of the Jesuits, they had a seminary and a college in this city; there are here likewise two hospitals. This place, by means of the Yonne, carries on a good trade.

Trevoux, the antient Tivurtium, the capital of the principality of Dombes and of the castellany of Trevoux, is seated on a hill by the Saone, a hundred and eighty-eight miles to the south-by-west of Paris, and is the residence of a governor, a parliament, a district court, and a mint.

a mint. It is said to have derived its name from its situation on one of the highways which Agrippa made into Gaul, and which here divides into three branches. It has one chapter, three convents, and an hospital.

This city, with the little principality of Dombes, belongs to the duke of Maine, and was declared by Lewis XIV. an absolute principality. Hence the prince of Dombes has here the power of life and death, can confer nobility, coin money, and impose what taxes he pleases on his subjects, though he has his own parliament. His certain revenue is about a hundred and fifty thousand livres, and this little principality is governed by a governor-general in the prince's name.

S E C T. XV.

Of the Situation, Produce, Government, and principal Cities of the Government of Lionnois; with a particular Description of the City of Lyons.

LYONNOIS is bounded on the north by Burgundy, on the east it is separated by the Soane and Rhone from Dauphiné, on the south it is bounded by Vivarais and Velais, and on the west by Auvergne. It comprehends the three small provinces of Lyonnois, Beaujolois, and Forez; and produces corn, wine, and fruit, particularly an excellent kind of large chefnuts called marrons.

The principal rivers are the Rhone, Soane, and Loire; besides several small ones, as the Furan, Azerque, Rhin, Lignon, &c. Here is also a mine of copper and vitriol, with several mineral springs.

The courts of this government proceed according to the civil law, and appeals from them lie to the parliament of Paris. Besides its governor and general-lieutenant, it has two sub-governors, one over Lyonnois and Beaujolois, the other over Forez.

We shall begin with Lyonnois, which is about twelve French leagues in length, and seven in breadth.

Lyons, in Latin Lugdunum, the capital of the Lyonnois, and of the whole government, stands fifteen miles to the north of Vienne, in Dauphiné, at the conflux of the Soane and the Rhone; the former runs through a part of the city, and has two bridges of wood, and a narrow one of stone; but the stone bridge over the Rhone is a noble structure. This city is about a fourth part as large as Paris, and is very populous; but most of the streets are narrow. The houses, which are said to amount to four thousand, are generally high and well built, but disgraced by the raggedness and mean appearance of their paper windows; and they are said to contain above ninety thousand souls.

In Lyons are several fine squares, in one of which is the town-house, the most elegant in Europe, which was begun in 1647, and finished in 1655. It is a large building in the form of an oblong square, and on each side of the front is a wing four hundred and twenty feet in length. In the middle of the front is a tower, with a cupola on the top, and in the angles project two large pavilions. The great gate is adorned with two columns of the Ionic order, and leads into a large hall arched over, where are to be seen the busts of Philip the Fair, Charles VIII. and Henry IV. with the pictures of all the kings of France of the name of Lewis: the roof is also finely painted. There are here also the consular chamber, where the provost and the four echevins usually sit; the hall where the merchants hold their meetings; and in another hall are the pictures of the echevins. Before the house is a handsome square, in which is a large fountain.

The cathedral of Lyons is dedicated to St. John, and the chapter consists of gentlemen of the best families. They boast of their having formerly had several kings and princes, who were members of it; particularly in the thirteenth century, when at one time they had the son of an emperor, nine sons of kings, fourteen sons of dukes, thirty of counts, and twenty of barons. To this chapter belong not only the cathedral, but the churches of St. Stephen and the Holy Cross. The cathedral is indeed a large structure, particularly famous for its clock, which like that at Strasburg, is celebrated for the variety of its

motions; for at every hour a cock at the top claps his wings thrice, and crows twice, after which an angel coming out of a door, salutes the Virgin Mary, and at the same time the Holy Ghost descends, and an image of God the Father gives the benediction. The minute motion has an oval circle, and yet the hand always touches the circumference. Besides the cathedral, are three chapters or collegiate churches, thirteen parish churches, and till lately there were two colleges of Jesuits, the largest of which was the most stately in all the kingdom. This structure is a regular quadrangle, curiously painted in fresco, though something defaced on the east-side, where the winds from the mountains beat upon it. Over the front-door, and over part of the church of that college is an observatory, one of the boldest pieces of architecture in Europe. Their chapel has a fine altar-piece of lapis-lazuli, and an excellent piece of painting by Blanchard. Their library is a spacious and handsome apartment, in which were some manuscripts of the Bible, but not very ancient; but one of the most valuable pieces was a manuscript of Pliny's Natural History, of considerable antiquity.

Without the gate of St. Justus, is a large suburb where the bare-footed Carmelites have a delightful convent, with spacious gardens, from which there is a fine prospect of the city: in their church is an altar of agate and lapis-lazuli. The Capuchins have also the pretended miracles of their saint painted on the walls of their cloister, among which is one of his paying his apothecary with prayers, instead of money. The nunnery of St. Peter is a fine structure, and the parish church of St. Niegé is adorned with several fine pieces of painting by Le Brun.

In one of the squares stands an equestrian statue of brass of Lewis XIV. La Belle Cour is a spacious area, and near it are a mall and a delightful walk. The monument of the two Lovers stands on the other side of the Soane, and seems to have been some Roman building, constructed with very large stones. The Fryars in Lyons are very importunate beggars, coming into the chambers of strangers.

The arsenal here is a fine building, well stored with military implements; here are also three forts, but one of them is only garrisoned, and that serves for the prison of the city. In this city are here still to be seen some remains of Roman antiquities, as baths, aqueducts, and part of an amphitheatre.

This place is an archbishopric, and has an intendancy, a mint, with a provincial and other courts. Its archbishop is primate over the archbishoprics of Rouen, Tours, Sens, and Paris; so that appeals lie from them to him. He has also six bishops for his suffragans, with a diocese of seven hundred and sixty-four parishes, and a revenue of forty-eight thousand livres, out of which he is taxed by the court of Rome three thousand florins, and besides the title of archbishop, he has that of count of Lyons.

Round the city lie some mountains which being variegated with convents, seats, gardens, and vineyards, form a very delightful prospect.

Most of the inhabitants are makers of silk, gold, and silver laces. Formerly the looms in and about this city amounted to eighteen thousand; but in 1698, this number was found reduced to four thousand. It is still, however, in great repute for the above manufactures, particularly for its bombasines, which are admired for their beautiful lustre; and its trade extends not only over all France, but even to Spain, Italy, Switzerland, Germany, and the Netherlands.

Forez, the next division of this province, is equal in extent to Lyonnois and Beaujolois put together, and has several small towns. Its capital is Montbrison, situated on the little river Veziza, seventeen miles to the south-west of Lyons, and has several courts of justice and public offices: it has also a collegiate church, with some other churches and convents.

Beaujolois is a district ten French leagues in length, and eight in breadth. This is a very fruitful country. Its capital is Ville Franche, which is seated on the little river Morgon, near the Soane; and has a collegiate church, and an academy of the polite Arts, with several public offices.

S E C T. XVI.

Of Languedoc; its Situation, Extent, Climate, remarkable Winds, Minerals, Mountains, and Produce; with a Description of the Plant called Woad, and the Fork-Tree. The Springs and Rivers of this Province, with a Description of the Canal which forms a Communication between the Ocean and the Mediterranean. The Trade and Government of this Province; with an Account of its principal Cities, Toulouse, Narbonne, Montpellier, Nismes, with its Antiquities, and a Description of the Aqueduct called Pont du Guard, &c.

LANGUEDOC is bounded on the east by the Rhone, which separates it from Provence and Dauphiné; on the north by Lyonnois, Auvergne, and Guienne; on the west a part of it is divided by the Garonne from a part of Gascony; and on the south it terminates on the countries of Roussillon and Foix, and also on the Mediterranean. The eastern coast from Agde as far as the Rhone is remarkably increased, the sea having retired from it considerably, as evidently appears on consulting the accounts of antient geographers with respect to the situation of several of its maritime places when compared with the present. The figure of this country is very irregular; its extent, however, from east to west may be computed at about seventy leagues, but from north to south in the narrowest part it is between ten and twelve; but in the broadest westward it is almost thirty, and to the eastward near thirty-two.

The winds in this country are very remarkable. Along the southern coast, which is properly a long valley, extending from Toulouse to the sea, generally blows a west wind, though it is sometimes north and sometimes south-west. This wind gradually increases, and being cool refreshes the country in summer. The inhabitants call it *Cirs*, in conformity to its antient name *Circius*. Opposite to this blows another from the east or south-east, which is called *Autun*. This is first perceived near Narbonne, and at Castelnau-dari is very violent. It is hot, causes head-achs, with loss of appetite, and seems to swell the whole body. In the eastern part of Languedoc is frequently felt a cold and very strong north wind, which follows the course of the Rhone in the valley through which it runs from north to south, and is called *Bise*, or *Black*. Sometimes, in direct opposition to the latter, blows a sea-wind, which is usually accompanied with a drizzling rain; but when dry, has the same morbid effects as the *Autun* in Upper Languedoc: besides, in the heat of summer, from the coast of Leucate to the Rhone, sea-breezes constantly set in, at nine or ten o'clock in the morning, and, to the great refreshment of the air, last till about five in the evening. Lastly, it is also observable, that at the foot of the Pyrenees, near the village of Bland, in a narrow valley wholly environed with mountains, except towards the north-west, and through certain openings two or three hundred paces wide, blows a very cool west or north-west gale, which chiefly prevails in summer, and then only in the night. In clear and warm weather this gale is much stronger than in a thick and cold air. In summer it cools the whole valley, and in winter prevents white frosts; and, as it blows only in the night, the inhabitants of the village of Bland can winnow their corn at no other time.

This province produces some very beautiful marble, and in several places in Lower Languedoc are found turquoises. There are here also lead and iron mines.

This country is very mountainous, particularly the Cevennes, which are of great height and very steep; yet these being, as it were, the head-quarters of the Protestants, abound in people. It produces plenty of corn, fruit, and fine wine; with large plantations of olives and mulberry-trees, the latter for silk-worms and the former for oil, though this last is inferior to that of Provence. They here tread out the corn in the manner practised in the East, by causing a number of mules and horses to turn round a circle upon the grain, which is strewed under them, and afterwards also tread the straw into small pieces to save the trouble of chopping it.

Among the products of the soil may be reckoned woad, which particularly grows in Upper Languedoc. This plant has its root usually an inch thick, and a foot or a foot and a half in length, with five or six leaves growing from it, that are a foot long, and six inches broad. The flower represents a cross, and bears an oblong seed, which is sometimes of a violet, and sometimes of a yellow colour; but the former is the best. It is usually sown in February, and requires a good soil, with great care after it begins to shoot. When the herb is ripe, it is cut off close to the ground, and immediately pounded to a paste, which is made up into cakes, or balls; and these, when thoroughly dried in the sun, are reduced to a powder, which gives a very beautiful and lasting blue.

The fork-tree is also one of the curiosities of this country, though it is also found in Spain and Italy. The stem of this tree is from two to four feet high, when its farther growth is generally checked. At the top of its stem grow a considerable number of straight shoots, which are suffered to rise five or six feet, and about the third year are cut into the form of three-pronged forks; and in the sixth, seventh, and frequently not till the ninth, when they have completed their growth, are carefully cut off close to the stem, and undergo a second formation in a hot oven.

There are here several periodical and medicinal springs. The principal rivers are the Rhone; the Garonne, which issues from the Pyrenean mountains; the Aude; the Tarn, which proceeds from the Gevaudan; the Allier, which rises in the same country; and the Loire, which issues from the Vivarez, and falls into the Mediterranean.

The royal canal formed in order to make a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean sea, that vessels might pass from one sea into the other without going round by Spain, is one of the noblest works that any country has ever produced, and therefore deserves an ample description. Under Lewis XIV. Riquet, after employing twenty years in a minute consideration of every particular, during which he had no other counsellor than his gardener, completed his plan, which he executed between the years 1666 and 1680.

This canal begins at the harbour of Cette on the Mediterranean, and traverses the lake of Thau, and a quarter of a mile below Toulouse is conveyed by three sluices into the Garonne. It is forty French leagues in length, and every where six feet deep; so that a cargo of eighteen hundred quintals may be forwarded to any place upon it, and its breadth, from one bank to the other, is a hundred and forty-four feet. In the whole canal are sixty-four large sluices, many of which consist of two, three, and four smaller ones, by means of which the water is confined in the rising grounds.

At St. Ferreol, a quarter of a mile below Revel, between two rocky hills, that are in the form of a half-moon, is a large reservoir twelve hundred fathoms in length, five hundred in breadth, and twenty deep, the whole surface being six hundred and eighty-seven thousand four hundred and thirty-eight feet. Into this basin of water the rivulet of Laudot, which runs down the hills, is received, and enclosed by a wall two thousand four hundred feet long, a hundred and thirty-two in height, and twenty-four feet thick, having a strong dam defended by a strong wall of free-stone. Under the dam runs an arched passage reaching to the main wall, where three large cocks, of cast brass, are turned and shut by means of iron bars; and these cocks discharge the water through mouths as large as a man's body into an arched aqueduct, where it runs through the outer wall, and when got beyond it goes on under the name of the river Laudot, continuing its course to the canal called *Rigole de la Plaine*. From thence it is conveyed to another fine reservoir near Naurouse, two hundred fathoms in length, a hundred and fifty in breadth, with the depth of seven feet; and out of this basin it is conveyed by means of sluices, as well to the Mediterranean sea as to the ocean, according as the canal wants it. Though the above cocks remain open for some months successively, yet there is no visible diminution of the water in the great reservoir. Near Beziers are eight sluices, which form a regular and

grand cascade nine hundred and thirty-six feet long, and sixty-six high, by means of which vessels may pass cross the river Orb, and continue their voyage on the canal. Above it, between Bezieres and Gapestan, is the Mal Pas, where the canal is conveyed for the length of a hundred and twenty fathoms under a mountain cut into a very lofty arcade, the greatest part of which is lined with free-stone, except towards the end, where it is only hewn through the rock, which is of a soft sulphureous substance. At Agde is a round sluice, with three openings, three different depths of the water meeting there; and the gates are so ingeniously contrived, that vessels may pass through by opening which the master pleases; an invention which struck the great Vauban himself with admiration. The lesser rivers and streams that might have prejudiced the canal have been carried under it by water-courses, of which there are forty-four, and eight bridges.

This canal cost thirteen millions of livres, part of which money was furnished by the king, and part by the states of Languedoc. The king generously granted to Riquet, the inventor, and his male heirs, all the jurisdiction and revenues belonging to it; so that the crown does not come into possession till the extinction of that line. Ships passing on it for every hundred weight pay twenty sous, and even the king himself pays the same toll for military stores, &c. sent by way of this canal; so that the revenue, especially in time of a brisk trade, is very considerable. However, the charges attending it are also very great; for the salaries of the several directors, receivers, comptrollers, lieutenants, clerks, and watchmen, annually amount to one hundred thousand livres, besides the great expence of repairs. The counts of Caraman, descendants of the above-mentioned Riquet, are also obliged to keep passage-boats, which are drawn by mules or horses; and though there are no passengers, they must go and come at stated times.

The coast of Languedoc is dangerous, and also in want of good and secure harbours. With respect to its trade, the city of Montpellier, by means of the river Lez, and the lakes near it, carries on, at the harbour of Cette, the greatest maritime trade in all the province; but the whole is not very considerable. The commerce of this province principally consists of manufactures and other goods. Wine is exported hence to the coasts of Italy; oil to Switzerland and Germany; and, when the harvest is uncommonly good, corn to Italy and Spain; dried chefnuts and raisins are sent to Tunis and Algiers; and cloth to Switzerland, Germany, and the Levant.

Towards the middle of the sixteenth century the Reformation made an extraordinary progress in this country; but was soon attended with civil war, and all the rage of persecution, which was carried on here with greater fury than in other parts of France; and Languedoc was the scene of continual troubles and cruelties for above an hundred years; but though more blood was shed here than in the whole kingdom besides, there are still in this province a great number of secret Protestants.

The Popish clergy are here extremely numerous and wealthy, there being in Languedoc three archbishops and twenty bishops, and the whole ecclesiastical revenues amount to twenty-five millions forty-one thousand eight hundred and fifty-two livres per annum. It has also a great number of inferior courts subject to the supreme ones, which are the parliament of Toulouse, and the chamber of accounts and taxes at Montpellier. The governors of districts here resemble the bailiffs in the other provinces, and are eight in number. Every district has a court of justice, to which lie appeals from the Vigueries or royal courts. In it is also a superior forest court, with seven dependent on it. The parliament consists of the clergy, the nobility, and the commons, who are called together by the king every October. Under the governor of Languedoc are three general lieutenants, namely, one over Upper Languedoc, the second over Lower Languedoc, and the third over the dioceses of Nismes, Alais, Mende, Puy, Viviers, and Uzes. It has also nine inferior governors, each of which has his respective department.

The principal places in this province are the following:

Toulouse, or Thoulouse, the capital of Languedoc, and one of the most ancient cities in the kingdom, is situated in latitude forty-three degrees thirty-five minutes forty seconds, and in one degree ten minutes east longitude, in a district called the Toulousain, in a most delightful plain on the Garonne, and, next to Paris, is said to be the largest city in all France. The streets are mostly broad, and the houses built of brick; it is not, however, very populous, and though so finely situated, its trade is inconsiderable, its principal article being Spanish wool. This is chiefly imputed to the vanity of the merchants, who no sooner acquire a considerable fortune, than they make it their chief aim to obtain a seat in the city council, and to lay aside all commerce.

This city is the seat of an intendency and receiver's office, of a governor, a provincial court, a royal tribunal, an admiralty, a forest court, a mint, and other public offices; it is also the residence of an archbishop, and the second parliament of the kingdom. The diocese of the archbishop contains two hundred and fifty parishes, his revenue amounts to sixty thousand livres a year, and his taxation at the court of Rome is five thousand florins.

The cathedral is an ancient handsome structure, but contains nothing remarkable: in the spacious area before it is a fountain, over which is an obelisk curiously wrought. In the church of St. Sernin, or St. Saturnin, are said to lie thirty bodies of saints, and among them seven of the Apostles, one of whom they pretend to be St. James the Younger, though St. Jago de Compostella in Spain also boasts of being possessed of the body of that apostle. Near this city stands a secularized abbey. The church of La Dorade is thus called from a gilded, but now a coal black image of the Virgin Mary, which stands on the great altar, and in any time of calamity is the constant refuge of the inhabitants. The name of the statuary was Luke, which being marked on the base, has made the common people imagine that this image was carved by St. Luke. The church of the Carmelites has a large and magnificent chapel; that of the Dominicans is also large and splendid. Under the choir of the Franciscan church is a vault, where bodies dry without mouldering or putrefaction; but become extremely light. The society of the Blue Penitents in this city is one of the most renowned fraternities in the whole kingdom, having in its registers kings, princes of the blood, and eminent ecclesiastics.

The university of Toulouse is reputed the second in France, and consists of several colleges. The four faculties, namely, divinity, law, philosophy, and physic, with the liberal arts, are taught here. Here is also an academy of polite literature, founded by royal patent in September 1694; it is composed of a chancellor, and forty-two members or fellows, who employ their talents chiefly in poetry. This is in the room of a society called the Floral Games; and still every year, on the third day of May, they give away four prizes, one gold and three silver flowers, to those who distinguish themselves by writing the best copy of verses.

The above society meet in the town-house, which is a spacious building called the Capitolium, in which there is a white marble statue of Clementia, who is said to have instituted the above-mentioned Floral prizes in the year 1540. The hall of this structure is adorned with the busts of the illustrious and celebrated natives of Toulouse, as also of two Gothic kings, some counts of Toulouse, and several distinguished civilians. There are here preserved five large parchment folios, finely written and illuminated, being the annals of the city from the year 1288 to the present time.

Here is also an academy of the sciences and liberal arts. The stone bridge over the Garonne, which is a hundred and thirty-five fathoms long, and twelve broad, rests on seven arches of different magnitudes; but, except the cantons, which are of stone, is wholly built of brick. In this city are made Bergamo carpets, but of little value, together with some slight silk and woollen stuffs.

Narbonne, the ancient Narbo, is a fortified city, sixty-four miles to the west of Montpellier, seated on a canal which passes through it, and joins the river Aude. It is the residence of an archbishop, whose province contains a hundred

a hundred and forty-four parishes, and its revenue amounts to ninety thousand livres per annum, out of which he pays at Rome nine thousand florins. The cathedral, called St. Justus and St. Pastor, is remarkable for its fine organs and curious painting, in which are represented the raising of Lazarus from the dead, the last judgment, and other pieces. There are also five other parish-churches, the principal of which is the collegiate church of St. Paul, with a college of the fathers of the Christian doctrine, and several convents for persons of both sexes. The remains of Roman antiquities still to be seen here consist of stones and inscriptions, chiefly placed in the walls of the court of the archbishop's palace, and in the garden is a beautiful Roman sepulchre of white marble.

Montpellier, in Latin Mons Pessalanus, is seated on a hill by the river Lez, fifty miles to the north-east of Narbonne, and, next to Toulouse, is the most considerable city in all Languedoc. It contains a chamber of taxes and accompts, with an intendancy, a treasurer's office, a provincial court of justice, a sheriff's court, an independent court, a forest court, a mint, &c. It has many fine houses; but the streets are very narrow, which is attended with this convenience, that in hot weather they have linen awnings drawn over them, under which a person may walk without being incommoded by the sun. The air here is so pleasant and healthy, that numbers of foreigners, and especially of the English, resort hither for the recovery of their health, particularly when labouring under hectic disorders. The city is adorned with several stately edifices, as the hall of justice, the churches of St. Peter and the Virgin Mary, and a strong citadel, flanked with four royal bastions, which commands the town and the neighbouring country. In the square of Lewis the Great, which is without the city, is the pleasant walk of Peyron, in which stands an equestrian statue of that monarch in bronze, upon a pedestal of a greyish white marble. This the states of Languedoc erected in honour of him. The city gate leading to this square is built in the form of a triumphal arch. The bishop of this place is subject to the archbishop of Narbonne; his diocese contains a hundred and seven parishes; his revenue is thirty-two thousand livres, and he is taxed at the court of Rome four thousand florins.

The university here is particularly famous for physic, it being founded by physicians who were expelled Spain in the year 1180. The celebrated scarlet gown of Rabelais, with which all doctors of physic are invested at taking their degrees, has long since ceased to be an original, the students having, from time to time, cut off little slips, so that the robe now used is said to be at least the third or fourth substitute. In 1706, a royal academy of sciences was founded here, and they have an excellent physic garden, in which public lectures on botany are read. The inhabitants are principally employed in making verdigris, likewise in dimities, silks, and woollen stuffs; they have also a considerable trade in wool brought from the Mediterranean, in wine, aquavita, Hungary water, cinnamon-water, &c.

This city formerly belonged to the protestants, as one of their cautionary towns; and though Henry IV. made over to them this and other places, his son Lewis XIII. took it from them after a vigorous defence in 1622.

Frontigniac, or Frontignan, a small town seated on the lake of Thau, seventeen miles to the south-west of Montpellier, is remarkable for its excellent muscadine wine, its jar-raisons, and its handsome town-house. This wine is called by the English Frontiniac. The above lake, which is also called Maguleone, is twelve leagues in length, and separated from the sea only by a narrow tract of land; but in one place has a communication with the gulf of Lyons, which, according to Dr. Busching, takes not its name from the city of Lyons, which is seated at a great distance from the sea, but rather from the violent storms so frequent in this shallow part of the Mediterranean, and which destroy the ships as a furious lion does its prey.

Nîmes, or Nimes, in Latin Nemausus, a large city, thirty miles to the north of Montpellier, is very pleasantly situated, it having on one side, hills covered with vines, and on the other, a very fertile plain. The streets are in general narrow, but kept pretty clean, and the

houses of stone handsomely built. One-third of the inhabitants are secret protestants. Here is a collector's office, an intendancy, and a provincial court of justice. Its bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Narbonne, and his diocese contains two hundred and fifteen parishes: he has an annual revenue of twenty-six thousand livres, out of which his taxation at the court of Rome is twelve hundred florins. In this city are several convents, and it had a jesuit's college; it has an academy of polite literature, founded in 1682; and is defended by a citadel consisting of four bastions. There are here such a multitude of manufacturers, that its cloth and silk trade alone exceeds that of the whole province.

In the city and its neighbourhood are several illustrious monuments of antiquity: one of the principal of these is an amphitheatre, said to be the least damaged of any in Europe. It is built of free-stone, the outside of which is very entire, the stones are in many places of an amazing length and thickness: it is two stories high, and has sixty arches and columns in each story; on these and their cornices are to be seen the Roman eagles, with figures of Romulus and Remus sucking a wolf. The steps or seats are ruined, and the arena filled with houses. Over the large entrance are two half bulls cut in stone, also a triple and winged Priapus, and the figure of a woman holding by a bridle.

The other antiquities are an oblong structure embellished with thirty-two columns of the Corinthian order, supposed to be a temple erected by the emperor Adrian in honour of Plotina, consort to Trajan. A temple consisting of most beautiful free-stone, above half of which is still standing, and is supposed to have been dedicated to Diana; and close by it is the fountain of Diana mentioned by Ausonius, which first diffusing itself into a deep and wide pond, furnishes water enough to supply all the gardens of the city. From several remains, it appears that this was a public bath. Here is also an octangular tower fifteen fathoms high, the whole being a solid structure from the bottom to the top. It is remarkable, that the heads of all the Roman eagles found here are struck off; which is imputed to the Goths, who, on their reduction of this country, are supposed to have done this by way of insult of the haughty enemy they had subdued. The esplanade or walking-place without the city, is extremely delightful.

At no great distance from the city, and a mile and a half from the market-town of Remoulins, is a bridge called the Pont du Gard, a most valuable piece of Roman antiquity, it being part of the great aqueduct by which the spring of Eure was carried the length of nine hours distance to Nîmes, and there distributed in the amphitheatre, public fountains, and private houses. The above bridge consists of three ranges of arches, built one upon another, over the river Gardon, and thus connecting the high rocks on both sides the river, so as to afford a free passage to the water of the spring above-mentioned from one mountain to the other. The lower part consists of six arches, four hundred and thirty-eight feet in length, and eighty-three in height. The second consists of eleven arches each, fifty-six feet in diameter, and sixty-seven in height; and is of such an extraordinary width, that, besides the pillars on which the upper part or range of arches rests, there is a horse and foot-way leading through it, secured by a breast-work. The third range, which rests on the second, and is five hundred and eighty-five feet and a half in length, consists of thirty-five arches, each of which is seventeen feet in diameter; and over this uppermost range runs the aqueduct, which is of such a height and breadth, that with a little inclination of the body a person may walk in it. The whole is of a very hard and durable free-stone. From an eminence towards Uzes, a small episcopal town near the spring of Eure, are here and there seen entire ranges of arches, all which belong to this vast aqueduct.

Quissac is a small place seated on the Vidourle, between which and the town of Sauve, at the foot of a mountain near the river, is a periodical spring, which runs and intermits twice in twenty-four hours. The flow lasts seven hours twenty-five minutes, and the intermission five hours. This is supposed to be occasioned by a cave or reservoir in the mountain, which being filled every

every five hours, discharges itself through a canal in the form of a siphon. This water is drank as a mineral, and when heated is used for bathing. It contains a considerable quantity of sulphur, and is reputed very good for all disorders of the eyes.

In Languedoc is the district of Albigeois, from whence the Albigenes take their name, they being a brave and upright people, who so early as the eleventh century opposed popery, and adhered to the doctrines of the Gospel, amidst the violent persecutions which their integrity drew upon them. The country produces plenty of corn, wine, fruit, and saffron; but the people are poor.

The capital of this country is Alby, which stands on an eminence near the river Tarn; it is the residence of an archbishop, and has a royal tribunal, with several other courts. This diocese contains three hundred and twenty-seven parish churches, and the annual revenue of the archbishop amounts to ninety-five thousand livres, out of which he pays two thousand florins to the court of Rome. He is lord also of the city, though the high and low jurisdiction, and the high domains, are in the king's hands. The cathedral is one of the richest and finest buildings in the kingdom: the archiepiscopal palace is also very noble. The walk called La Lice, a little above the city, is extremely pleasant, and the little town of Chateaufieux forms a handsome suburb. At a council held here in 1176 the doctrines of the Albigenes were anathematized.

Alais, or Alez, a pretty large populous city seated on the river Gardon, thirty-five miles to the north of Montpellier. It is the see of a bishop suffragan to the archbishop of Narbonne, who has an annual revenue of sixteen thousand livres, out of which he pays to the court of Rome five hundred florins. This diocese consists of eighty parishes, and the bishopric was founded so lately as the year 1691, in order to bring over to the church of Rome the great number of Protestants in that part of the country, and a college of Jesuits was added as auxiliaries to it. The quantity of unwrought silk annually carried out of this city, is said to amount to at least one million two hundred thousand pounds weight.

S E C T. XVII.

Of the Governments of Roussillon and Foix; their Situation, Extent, Mountains, Produce, Rivers, and Trade; with a Description of the City of Perpignan.

THE county of Roussillon is separated to the north from Languedoc by the Lesser Pyrenees, to the east it borders on the Mediterranean, and to the south and west is divided by the large Pyrenean mountains from Catalonia and Cerdagne. Its length from east to west is above fifty miles, and it is twenty-five in breadth. Its name of Roussillon is derived from its ancient capital Ruscino.

Among the several mountains here, the highest are those of Massane and Canigou; the latter of which is said to be fourteen hundred fathoms in height. This country is on all sides environed with mountains; and the summer-heats are so intense, that the inhabitants are almost universally swarthy and meagre.

The soil is very fruitful in corn, wine, and forage; and in some parts so uncommonly fertile, that, after the corn harvest is got in, they sow millet, and thus procure two, and sometimes three harvests in a year. Mules are here used for the plough. The great wealth of the country consists in olives and oranges, which are almost as common here as apples and pears in Normandy. They have very little wood, and that only of shrubs; and from their want of navigable rivers, the only way of being supplied with goods from other countries is by means of mules.

The inhabitants have a considerable number of sheep, which are much esteemed for the uncommon delicacy of their flesh. Oxen are also fattened here, for the gratification of the wealthy; but the breeding of cows is neglected, their milk being bad; however, the pigeons, quails, and partridges of Roussillon are excellent. The chief branch of trade in this province is oil, which they sell

to the annual amount of two hundred thousand livres; they also export corn, millet, and wool.

The Tet, Tec, and Agly, its only rivers, are no more than rapid brooks, which discharge themselves into the sea. Here are also hot baths, and at Cannet and the lake of St. Nazaire the sea-water is conveyed into canals, and there converted into salt by the heat of the sun.

This county, which formerly belonged to the king of Arragon, was taken by Lewis XIII. and by the peace of the Pyrenees in 1669 was ceded to France. It contains but one bishopric. At Perpignan is a superior court, or council, to which he appeals from all the inferior courts. In it is also a mint. The contributions payable by the inhabitants consist of a poll-tax, which produces about forty thousand livres. This country, besides a governor, has a lieutenant-general, and deputy-governor.

Perpignan, in Latin Perpeniacum, the capital of the country, is seated on the river Tet, sixty-five miles to the north-east of Bourdeaux, partly in a plain, and partly on a hill. It is fortified with a high and thick wall, strengthened with bastions: it has also a citadel, which is a fine work, and the suburbs are likewise defended by a fort. It is, however, a place of no great extent; but is very populous, there being here a superior royal council, or high court of justice, an intendency, a chancery, a salt-office, and a mint. Its bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Narbonne, and has a diocese of a hundred and eighty parishes. His revenue is about eighteen thousand livres, out of which he is taxed by the court of Rome fifteen hundred florins. Besides the cathedral it has four parish-churches, a seminary, twelve convents, and had two colleges of Jesuits. It has likewise an university founded in 1349, with several alms-houses and hospitals. Among the other public buildings is a large cannon foundery. The greatest disadvantage of this city is the want of good water fit for drinking.

We now come to the government of Foix, which contains the district and county of Foix, with the territories of Andorre and Donezan. It is bounded on the north and east by Languedoc, on the south by the Pyrenean mountains and Roussillon, and on the west by Gascony. The principal rivers are the Auviege and the Rize. This country is a dependency of the parliament of Toulouse, and constitutes part of the lands of the states, who are annually called together by the king. Its trade consists of cattle, raisins, turpentine, pitch, cork, jasper, and particularly iron; and, besides, the governor has a lieutenant-general.

Upper Foix lies among the mountains, and all its products are wood, iron, and mineral waters, with some pastures. In this country are several caverns, in which are very singular figures formed by the petrifying waters. Lower Foix produces some grain and wine. There are in this government four principal towns; but these are very small, and too inconsiderable to require any description.

The little district and sovereignty of Donezan, just mentioned, is nine miles in length, and the same in breadth; it is separated from the county of Foix by a chain of mountains, and contains nine market-towns and villages; and the territory or valley of Andorre has also several villages.

S E C T. XVIII.

Of the Government of Lower Navarre and Bearn; their Situation, Extent, History, Produce, and principal Cities.

WE have already described that part of Navarre which belongs to Spain, in treating of that kingdom, and now come to French or Lower Navarre, which is united under the same government with the principality of Bearn. These two contiguous countries are bounded on the north and east by Gascony, on the south by the Pyrenean mountains, and on the west by another part of Gascony.

Lower Navarre is one of the six bailiwicks which formerly composed the kingdom of Navarre; but in 1512 Ferdinand, king of Arragon and Castile, having, under frivolous

frivolous pretences, possessed himself of the kingdom of Navarre, all that Catharine, the lawful heiress, and her husband John d'Albret, could procure to be restored to them was this little spot. They were also possessed of Bearne. John, their son, had no better success; he possessed the same countries, but the title of sovereign was confined to the scanty remnant of Navarre, which was called a kingdom. Johanna, his daughter, in 1584, married Anthony of Bourbon, to whom she brought the above-mentioned countries as a dowry. Their son Henry IV. arrived to be king of France, and his son and successor Lewis XIII. annexed Lower Navarre and Bearne to the crown of France.

The kingdom or province of Lower Navarre, separately considered, is bounded on the north by Gascony; on the east by a part of Gascony and Bearne; on the south it is separated from Upper Spanish Navarre by the Pyrenean mountains; and on the west borders on Labourd, a district of Gascony; it extending only twenty-four miles in length, and fifteen in breadth.

The country is mountainous, and produces little. The inhabitants speak the Basque dialect, which is the same with that of Biscay. The principal rivers are small; these are the Nive, which has its source in the Spanish mountains, and the Bidouse, which has its source here, and both fall into the Adour.

In the whole country of Lower Navarre there is neither abbey, collegiate church, nor convent; the only ecclesiastical buildings remaining here being four parochial priories. The Reformation took place here under the reign of Henry II. king of Navarre; but in 1694, there was, at least in appearance, a general return to the Romish church. In Bearne are two bishopricks. The whole government is subject to the jurisdiction of the parliament of Pau: yet both Lower Navarre and Bearn have states of their own, each paying the king annually four thousand eight hundred and sixty livres, as an ordinary contingent, with two thousand more to the maintenance of the troops. To the governor they allow seven thousand seven hundred and forty, and to the deputy-governor two thousand seven hundred and forty.

Lower Navarre is divided into five districts, the principal place in which is the following:

St. Jean Pie de Port, or St. John at the Foot of the Gate, which is situated at the entrance of the pass that leads through the Pyrenean mountains into Spain. It stands on the river Nive, twenty miles to the south-east of Bayonne, and has a citadel placed on an eminence that commands the above pass.

In Lower Navarre are only three or four other small towns, and some small villages.

The principality of Bearn is of much greater extent, it being about forty-eight miles in length, and thirty-six in breadth; but is mountainous, and, except in the plains, generally barren. However, some of the mountains contain mines of copper, iron, and lead, and are covered with pines fit for masts and planks; very little wheat or rye is produced in this country; but great quantities of mailloc, which is a kind of Indian corn, and also flax: but the very rocks are planted with vines, and in some places the inhabitants make excellent wine.

The principal cities in this principality are Pau, Oleron, and Navarreins.

Pau, in Latin Palum, the capital, stands on an eminence, at the foot of which runs the river Gave Bernois. It is ninety-seven miles to the south of Bourdeaux, and is the seat of a parliament and a bailiwick. It has a castle in which king Henry IV. of France was born. It has five convents, two hospitals, and at the late expulsion of the Jesuits they had a college here. It is a small but pretty town, and has manufactures of cloth.

Oleron, a small but populous city, seated on the banks of the river Gave, which, from this city, is called the Gave of Oleron, ten miles to the west of Pau. It has a bailiwick court, and is the see of a bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Auch, and has a diocese containing two hundred and seventy-three parishes, with a yearly revenue of thirteen thousand livres, out of which he pays six hundred florins to the court of Rome. Its trade was formerly much more considerable than it is at present.

Navarreins, a town built by Henry d'Albret, king of Navarre, and prince of Bearne, is also situated on the Gave of Oleron, sixteen miles to the south of Bayonne. It stands in the midst of a fertile plain, and is a square city pretty well built. It is the seat of a governor, and a king's lieutenant. It is surrounded with walls; but is not very strong, it being commanded by the neighbouring hills.

SECT. XIX.

Of Guienne and Gascony; their Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, History, Government, and principal Cities; particularly Bourdeaux, Perigord, Agen, Montauban, Auch, and Bayonne.

THE government of Guienne and Gascony is bounded on the north by Saintonge, Angoumois, Limosin, and Auvergne; on the east by Auvergne and Languedoc; on the south by the Pyrenean mountains; and on the west by the bay of Biscay. Its extent from south to north is about eighty leagues, and from east to west about ninety. This country was formerly a part of the ancient kingdom of Aquitaine, and abounds in corn, wine, fruit, hemp, and tobacco. Its trade in wine in particular is so very considerable, that the city of Bourdeaux alone exports annually a hundred thousand tons. It also produces brandy, prunes, and many other commodities. It has likewise mines of copper, and fine quarries of marble of all colours.

It has several springs of medicinal waters, and its principal rivers are the Garonne, which receives many small streams, and the Adour, which rises in the mountains of Bigorre, and falls into the ocean.

Charlemagne created his son Lewis king of Aquitaine, but soon after this kingdom was divided into the duchies of Aquitaine and Gascony, which, by the marriage of William IV. duke of Aquitaine, with Briske, heiress to Gascony, were united, and continued in that family till the year 1150, when, by the marriage of Eleanor with Henry II. king of England, this duchy fell to that crown, and during almost three hundred years was subject to the English, who were dispossessed of it by Charles VII. in 1453. Lewis XI. in 1469, conferred it on his brother Charles, who was the last duke of Guienne, it being on his decease again annexed to the crown of France. However, in 1753 the title of duke of Aquitaine was revived in the person of the Dauphin's second son.

In this government is an archbishop, with nine suffragans. It also contains two generalities, namely, that of Bourdeaux, which is under the parliament of that city, and that of Montauban under the parliament of Toulouse. The former is composed of nine, and the latter of four large seneschalships, or bailiwicks. In each is also a court of aids, under the direction of the governor, whose salary amounts to about ten thousand livres; with two lieutenant-generals, one for Guienne, and the other for Gascony and Bigorre. Besides these, there are thirteen other deputy-governors.

Bourdeaux, in Latin Burdigala, the capital of Guienne, is seated on the Garonne, in the forty-fourth degree fifty minutes north latitude, and in forty minutes west longitude, two hundred and sixty miles to the south-west of Paris. It is pretty large and populous, it having a great number of stately houses built of stone; but they are old, and the streets very narrow. The inhabitants are said to amount to forty thousand. The newest and handsomest part of the city is the Royal square, near the harbour, in which stands a grand magazine, with the exchange, and it is adorned with a statue of Lewis XIV. in brass. This city is a place of considerable traffic, it being resorted to by merchants from most parts of Europe. Its haven, which is very capacious and safe, is called Le Port de la Lune, or the Port of the Moon, from its being in the form of a crescent. The tide flows into it very high, and carries ships of large burthen up to the quay. The city itself is in the form of a triangle, the two short sides towards the sea, and the largest towards the river Garonne. The palace, the town-house, the handsome markets, the public fountains, the quay, and the

the cathedral dedicated to St. Andrew, are worthy the curiosity of a traveller; as is also the castle called the Chateau-Trompette, which stands at the entrance of the quay, and commands the whole harbour. There is also another castle at the other end of the quay, called Le Chateau de Haa, which is also very strong: in both these fortresses there is a garrison constantly kept. There is also a fort called St. Louis, or St. Croix; but it is of no great importance. During the reign of Lewis XIV. Bourdeaux was fortified in the modern taste by Vauban; but the ramparts are now said to be ruinous. At the mouth of the Garonne, six leagues below the city, stands on a small island a stately watch-tower, where they light flambeaux every night for the direction and security of such vessels as sail up or down that river; a precaution the more necessary, on account of the many rocks and shelves which lie in it.

This city is the see of an archbishop, the seat of a parliament, a court of aids, a seneschalship, a provincial tribunal, an admiralty, and of a treasurer's office. It has also an exchange and a mint. The archbishop has nine suffragans under him, with a province of four hundred and fifty parishes, besides about fifty chapels of ease. His revenue is fifty-five thousand livres per annum, and his taxation at the court of Rome four thousand florins. The cathedral is a large Gothic structure, which contains nothing remarkable but the silver shrine of relics on the great altar. The church and convent of the Dominicans are new and elegant structures, but those belonging to the Carthusians have a splendor seldom seen in any convents of that order. In this city is likewise an abbey of Benedictines of the order of St. Maur. The Jesuits had, till their expulsion, a fine college here. The university was founded in 1441, and in 1712 the king erected here an academy of the sciences and polite arts, the library to which does not contain a great number of books, but consists entirely of select pieces, placed in a most elegant hall.

There are still here some visible remains of Roman antiquities, particularly an amphitheatre built by the emperor Gallienus, whose palace it is called; only some parts of the side walls are standing, with the two principal gates.

The trade of this city is very considerable, and for its improvement a kind of toleration is granted to the English, Dutch, Danes, Hamburgers, and Lubeckers, and even to the Portuguese Jews; but these last have no synagogue, nor are any Protestants indulged in the public exercise of their religious worship, only the English are connived at and have a minister in a lay habit, and the other foreign Protestants are not prohibited reading a sermon privately to their families. The Scots, on account of the services they formerly performed for the French, have considerable privileges allowed them in this city, and a gate of Bourdeaux bears the ensigns of one of the name of Douglas; even to this day Scottish vessels have peculiar immunities allowed them in trade, and from this port they generally ship their wines. In this city Edward the Black Prince resided for some years, during which time his son, afterwards Richard II. king of England, was born.

Perigueux, the capital of a very large district named Perigord, the see of a bishop and the seat of a bailiwick, and a court of justice, is seated on the river Isle, in a fine country, sixty-five miles to the north-east of Bourdeaux; the bishop is subordinate to the archbishop of Bourdeaux, and has a diocese containing four hundred and fifty parishes, with a revenue of twenty-four thousand livres, out of which he is taxed two thousand five hundred and ninety florins at the court of Rome. It has four convents, one hospital, and had a college of Jesuits. The old town is called La Cité, and the new town, which is about a hundred paces distant, is named La Ville.

Agen, the capital of a district called the Agenois, is pretty large and well inhabited. It is seated on the river Garonne, seventy-five miles to the south-east of Bourdeaux. The bishop styles himself count of Agen, but this is only a titular honour; he is suffragan to the archbishop of Bourdeaux, under whom he has a diocese of three hundred and seventy-three parishes, and one hun-

dred and ninety-one chapels of ease, with a yearly revenue of thirty-five thousand livres, out of which he is taxed by the court of Rome, two thousand four hundred and forty florins. There is here a cathedral and a collegiate church, two parish churches, with several convents; and there was here a college of Jesuits. This city is finely situated for trade, but makes little advantage of it.

Montauban, in Latin Mons Albanus, a well-built handsome city, in the district of Lower Quercy, is seated on the river Tarn, twenty-seven miles to the north of Toulouse, and is the see of a bishop, with the seat of a court of aids, a provincial court, and a bailiwick. It properly consists of three parts, the Old and New Towns, with the town of Bourbon, which lies on the other side of the river, and is a suburb. The bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Toulouse, and has a diocese of ninety-six parishes, with a revenue of twenty-five thousand livres per annum, out of which he pays a tax of two thousand five hundred florins to the court of Rome. In this city are two collegiate churches, an academy of polite literature, one seminary, eight convents, and a general hospital; it had also till lately a college of Jesuits. Its principal trade consists in woollen stuffs.

In 1562, the inhabitants became Protestants, and fortified the city in so strong a manner, that Lewis XIII. besieged it in 1621 without success, and was unable to reduce it till the year 1629, when he caused its fortifications to be razed.

Gascony, called by the French Gascogne, constitutes the south part of the government of Guienne, and includes the country lying between the Garonne, the ocean, and the Pyrenean mountains. It receives its name from the Gascones and Vascones, by the moderns called Basques or Vasques, a people who lived on the Pyrenean mountains in Spain, and towards the close of the sixth century settled on the north-side of the Pyrenees, where they defended themselves against the Franks; but were at last obliged to submit. It is bounded on the north by Guienne; on the west by Languedoc and the county of Foix; on the south by the Pyrenean mountains, which separate it from Spain; and on the west by the sea of Gascony. The inhabitants are said to have quick parts, but are so addicted to boasting, that the name of Gasconade has been given to all bragging stories. The country is not very fertile, it producing little corn, tho' it has great plenty of fruit, and the mountains afford timber fit for building of ships. The principal places in this province are the following.

Auch, the ancient Elusaberris, and afterwards Augusta, is the capital of the district of Armagnac, and of all Gascony. It stands on the side and top of a hill, at the foot of which runs the river Gers, thirty-seven miles to the west of Toulouse, and is divided into the Upper and Lower Town, between which there is a communication by means of two hundred stone steps. This place is the see of an archbishop, and has an intendency, a treasurer's office, a bailiwick, a provincial and royal court. The lordship of the city is divided between the archbishop and the count of Armagnac. The diocese consists of three hundred and seventy-two parish churches, and two hundred and seventy-seven chapels of ease, and the revenue of the archbishop is ninety thousand livres, out of which he pays to the court of Rome ten thousand florins. The cathedral is one of the most magnificent in the kingdom; the chapter is composed of fifteen dignitaries, and twenty-five canons; and among the latter there are five who are only honorary. The king himself is the first of them, as count of Armagnac; the four others are the barons of Montsquier, Montaut, Pardailhan, and L'Isle.

Bayonne, in Latin Lapurdum, the capital of the district of Labourd, is seated in the forty-third degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in one degree twenty minutes west longitude, at the junction of the Adour and Nive, near the mouth of the former, and a little below the city they discharge themselves into the bay of Biscay. It is of pretty considerable extent, and is the see of a bishop; it has also a bailiwick court, an admiralty, and a mint. The name of Bayonne is compounded of two Basque words, Baia and Ona, signifying a good harbour, and

and it well deserves that title; it is accordingly much frequented, though the shallows render the entrance to it somewhat difficult.

This is the only place in France that has the advantage of being situated on two rivers, into which the tide flows; the Nive runs through it, and the Adour close by its walls; soon after which they unite, and divide the city into three parts: that called the Great Town, lies on the side of the Nive; the Little Town is between the Nive and the Adour; and the suburb of St. Esprit, in which great numbers of Jews reside, lies on the other side of the river. The two first parts, besides their other works, have each a small fort; the suburb has good fortifications, and a regular square citadel, which standing on an eminence, commands the three several parts of the city, the harbour, and the adjacent country. Most of these works have been repaired and improved by Vauban; for though the city is not very large, it is of the utmost importance, from its being one of the keys of France on the side of Spain.

Besides its cathedral and collegiate church, the suburb also has another collegiate church; in this city are likewise five convents, and one college. But neither the cathedral, which is dedicated to the Holy Virgin, nor any of the other public or private buildings, have any thing remarkable. Its bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Auch, and his diocese contains seventy-two parishes. He has a revenue of nineteen hundred livres, out of which he pays only a hundred florins to the court of Rome.

SECT. XX.

Of the Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers of the Government of Auvergne; with an Account of its principal Cities.

THE government of Auvergne, which takes its name from its ancient inhabitants the Arverni, is bounded on the north by Bourbonnois; on the east by Forez, a large district in the government of Lionnois; on the south by Guienne and the Cevennes; and on the west by Limosin, the district of Quercy in Guienne, and La Marche; and is about a hundred miles in length, and seventy-five in breadth.

Lower Auvergne is a very pleasant fertile country, abounding in corn, wine, fruit, forage, and hemp; it far excels Upper Auvergne, which is cold, and full of mountains, that are covered with snow seven or eight months in the year, though its pastures are excellent, and the inhabitants deal largely in cattle. The situation of the mountains occasions the winds blowing in such eddies, that no wind-mills succeed there.

The principal rivers are the Allier, which rises in the Gevaudan, and falls into the Loire; the Dordogne, which springs from Mont d'Or, the highest mountain in the country; the Allagnon, which rises in Mount Cantal, and after a rapid course falls into the river Allier.

The highest mountains in this country are Le Pui de Dome, the perpendicular height of which is eight hundred and ten fathoms; the Cantal nine hundred and eighty-four; and Mont d'Or one hundred and thirty: the two latter are no less famous for the curious plants that grow on them. At Pontgibaud is a silver mine, but the produce not answering the expence, the working of it has been discontinued; however, the coal mines in the neighbourhood of Brifac are very profitable.

Besides the corn, wine, cattle, cheese, coals, and other products of the earth, this country carries on many manufactures, as all kinds of silk stuffs, cloths, very beautiful laces, and paper, which is esteemed the best in all Europe. Every year some thousands of labourers go from hence to get in the harvest in Spain, and return with the best part of their earnings.

The whole country is subject to the parliament of Paris, but is governed by different laws; Lower Auvergne having a particular code of its own, while in Upper Auvergne the civil law takes place. This country is divided into five large districts, and two bailiwicks. Under its governor are two lieutenants-general and two sub-governors.

St. Flour, the capital of Upper Auvergne, stands on a mountain of difficult access. It is the see of a bishop whose diocese consists of two hundred and seventy parishes; he has a revenue of twelve thousand livres, and pays nine hundred florins to the court of Rome. Besides its cathedral, it has a collegiate church, and had a college of Jesuits. The inhabitants carry on a good trade in grain, this city being, as it were, the general magazine of the neighbouring country, which produces a great deal of rye. Its cloth, carpets, and knives, are also greatly esteemed.

Aurillac, a town which disputes the title and rank of capital with St. Flour, is seated in a valley on the banks of the river Jordane, two hundred and fifty miles to the south of Paris, and thirty to the south-west of St. Flour. It is pretty well built and populous; it also confers the title of count. Here is a district and bailiwick court; it has likewise a castle seated on a high rock, and a collegiate church, which is properly a secularized abbey, the abbot of which is lord of the town, and holds immediately of the pope. Here is also an abbey, and four convents. The Jesuits had also here a college. In this town are some manufactures of tapestry and lace.

Clermont, the ancient Augustonemetum, afterwards Auvergne, the capital of the whole country, stands on a small eminence in Lower Auvergne, between the rivers Artier and Bedat. It is the capital of the whole country, and is populous; but has very narrow streets, and the houses are dark. It contains a tax chamber, a bailiwick, and a county-court, &c. This was formerly the principal place belonging to the counts of Auvergne, who therefore styled themselves counts of Clermont. The bishop is first suffragan to the archbishop of Bourges; he is also lord of the small towns of Billon and Croupieres, and enjoys a diocese of eight hundred parishes, with a revenue of fifteen thousand livres, out of which he is taxed at the court of Rome four thousand five hundred and fifty florins. Besides its cathedral, it has three collegiate churches, and three abbeys; in that of St. Allier the bodies of several saints are said to be deposited. In the chapel of St. Venerand, and in that of St. André, are the tombs of the old counts of Clermont, and the dauphines of Auvergne. It has likewise many convents, and had a college of Jesuits.

In the neighbourhood of this city are wells where any substance laid in them soon contracts a stony crust. The most remarkable of these is that in the suburb of St. Allire, which has formed a famous stone bridge mentioned by many historians. This bridge is a solid rock, composed of several strata formed during the course of many years, by the running of the petrifying waters of this spring. It has no cavity or arches, till after above sixty paces in length, where the rivulet of Tiretaine forces its way through. This petrifying spring, which falls on a much higher ground than the bed of the rivulet, gradually leaves behind it some lapideous matter, and in process of time has thus formed an arch, through which the Tiretaine has a free passage. The necessity which this petrifying matter seemed to be under of forming itself into an arch, could continue no longer than the breadth of the rivulet, after which the water of the spring ran regularly under it, and there formed a new petrification resembling a pillar. The inhabitants of these parts, in order to lengthen this wonderful bridge, have diverted the brook out of its old channel, and made it pass close by the pillar, by which means they caused the spring to form a second arch, and thus they might have produced as many arches and pillars as they pleased; but the great resort of people to see this natural curiosity becoming troublesome to the Benedictines of the abbey of St. Allire, within whose jurisdiction the spring lies; in order to lessen its petrifying virtue, they divided the stream into several branches, which has so well answered their intent, that at present it only covers with a thin crust those bodies on which it falls perpendicularly. But in those over which it runs in its ordinary course, no traces of its petrifying qualities are any longer perceivable. It is the only water used for drinking in this suburb, and no bad effect is felt from it.

S E C T. XXI.

Of the two Governments of Limosin and La Marche ; their Situation, Extent, Climate, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

LIMOSIN, or Limoufin, derives its name from the ancient Lemovices, and is bounded on the east by Auvergne ; on the south by Guienne ; on the west by Perigord in Guienne, and Angoumois ; and on the north by La Marche and Poitou. Its extent from north to south is about twenty-five French leagues, and from east to west somewhat less.

Upper Limosin is very mountainous, and consequently cold, but Lower Limosin is more temperate. The former produces but little wine, and that too but very indifferent, but that of Lower Limosin is extremely good. It produces such numbers of chesnut-trees, that the inhabitants derive their principal maintenance from them. The grain which grows here is rye, barley, and Turkish corn. They have also mines of copper, tin, iron, and lead, and in this country are some iron works.

Its chief rivers are the Vienne, the source of which lies in the borders of Lower Limosin and La Marche ; the Vezere, which rises in the same country ; the Coureze, which falls into the Vezere ; and the Dordogne, which divides Limosin from Auvergne, and the district of Quercy in Guienne.

The country is subject to the parliament of Bourdeaux, and besides its governor, has one lieutenant-general, and two sub-governors. The principal places it contains are ;

Limoges, in Latin Lemovicæ, the capital of the country, which is situated on the river Vienne, partly on a hill and partly in a valley, thirty leagues to the west of Clermont. The town is about a league and a half in circumference, but ill built, the houses being generally of wood, small, and dark ; but the cathedral is a magnificent structure ; besides which it has a collegiate church, three abbeys, one convent, and a college and seminary, which lately belonged to the Jesuits. It contains a bailiwick, a country and royal court, with other public offices, and also a mint. Its bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Bourges, and his diocese, which extends over Upper and part of Lower Limosin, La Marche, and a part also of Angoumois, contains nine hundred parishes ; and his revenue amounts to twenty thousand livres, out of which he pays sixteen hundred florins to the court of Rome.

Tulle, properly Tuelle, is a town situated in Lower Limosin, near the confluence of the little rivers Coureze and Solane, fifteen leagues to the south of Limoges, and a mile and a half in circumference. It contains about twelve hundred houses, and five thousand people. Its bishop, who is lord and viscount of the town, is suffragan to the archbishop of Bourges ; and his diocese, which consists of seventy parishes, brings him in a revenue of twelve thousand livres, out of which he pays to the court of Rome fourteen hundred florins. It has six convents and had a college of Jesuits.

Brive la Gaillarde is seated near the confluence of the Coureze and Vegere, seventeen leagues to the south of Limoges, and five to the west of Tulle, in a valley environed with little hills planted with vines and chesnut-trees ; the situation being extremely beautiful. It is the only fine town of the province : the houses are elegantly built, and the walls about it extremely pleasant. In this little town are found all the pleasures and conveniences of life. It contains about a thousand houses and five thousand persons.

The government of La Marche is bounded on the north by Berry ; on the east by Auvergne ; on the south by Limosin ; and on the west by Poitou ; it being about twenty-two French leagues in length from north to south, and eight in breadth from east to west.

It is, like Limosin, divided into Upper and Lower, and the soil and climate are both the same. Its principal rivers are the Vienne ; the great and little Creuse, which discharge themselves into the Vienne ; the Cher, and the Gartempe, the latter of which falls into the

Creuse. The upper parts of the district are pretty fruitful in corn.

This province contains two bailiwicks, and is governed by its own laws. Subordinate to its governor, is one lieutenant-general, and two sub-governors.

Gueret, the capital of the Upper and Lower Marche, is seated on the river Gartempe, ten leagues to the north-east of Limoges, and is the place where the courts of justice are held ; but it has only one parish church, one college, one priory, two convents, and an hospital. The other places in this government are equally inconsiderable.

S E C T. XXII.

Of the Government of Saintonge and Angoumois ; their Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, and principal Cities.

SAIN TONGE is bounded by Poitou and Aunis on the north ; by Angoumois and Perigord on the east ; by Guienne and the river Gironde on the south ; and by the Bay of Biscay on the west ; extending twenty-five leagues in length, and twelve in breadth. It derives its name from the Santoni, the ancient inhabitants.

This country abounds in corn, wine, and all kinds of fruit ; and the inhabitants, who are situated near the sea, make great quantities of excellent salt. Its horses are also much esteemed. In it are some mineral springs. Its principal rivers are the Charente, which abounds in fish ; it rises near Charennac, and runs into the sea ; and the Butonne, which rises in Poitou, and falls into the Charente.

This country is divided by the Charente into the south, or Upper Saintonge, and into the north part, or Lower Saintonge. It is subject to the parliament of Bourdeaux, a few parishes excepted, which are within the jurisdiction of Angoumois. The governor-general is also deputy-governor of this country. The principal places in Upper Saintonge are,

Saintes, the capital, which is seated on the Charente, fifty-eight miles to the northward of Bourdeaux, and twenty to the east of the Bay of Biscay. It is a little ill-built city ; but contains a provincial and a bailiwick court, with other public offices, and is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Bourdeaux. His diocese contains five hundred and sixty-five parishes and chapels, and his revenue amounts to twenty thousand livres, out of which his Roman tax is two thousand florins. The streets are narrow and mean, but in the suburbs is an abbey, and the Jesuits had here a college. Some ancient ruins discover its antiquity, as a triumphal arch supposed to be erected in the reign of Tiberius, the ruins of an amphitheatre, of several aqueducts, and a capitol.

Pons, a handsome town, stands high on the little river Seigne, over which it has several bridges, whence it probably received its name. It is divided into the Upper and Lower, and contains three parish-churches, three convents, three alms-houses, and a commandery of the knights of Malta.

St. John d'Angeli, in Latin Angeliacum, stands on the river Butonne, five leagues to the north-east of Saintes, and has a royal court of justice. While this place continued in the possession of the Protestants, it was populous and well fortified ; but being reduced in 1621 by Lewis XIII. the fortifications were razed, and the city deprived of its privileges. It has an abbey and three convents. Its brandy is much esteemed, and the inhabitants also make woollen stuffs.

Angoumois is bounded by Poitou on the north, by Limosin on the east, by Perigord on the south, and by Saintonge on the west ; it being between fifteen and sixteen French leagues in length, and about sixteen in breadth.

The country is full of little hills, and has none of any considerable size. It produces wheat, rye, barley, Spanish corn, oats, saffron, wine, and fruit : it also yields some excellent mines of iron, and is particularly famous for making of paper. Its principal rivers are the Charente and Touvre, the latter of which rises here, and runs into the former.

This country is subject to the parliament of Paris, and con-

contains a bailiwick and territorial jurisdiction. In it are the following places :

Angoulême, the capital of Angoumois, is seated on the top of a hill surrounded with rocks, at the foot of which runs the river Charente, thirty miles to the eastward of Saintes. It confers the title of duke, is the see of a bishop, and has a bailiwick, a country and forest court, an office of the five great farms, &c. and is said to contain eight thousand persons. Its bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Bourdeaux, and has a diocese of two hundred parishes, with a revenue of twenty thousand livres, out of which he is taxed by the court of Rome a thousand florins. Here are twelve parish-churches, and the abbey of St. Cibard, in which lie buried the old counts of Angoumois ; together with ten convents, a college which lately belonged to the Jesuits, and a general hospital.

Coignac, or Cognac, the second town of the country, stands seven leagues to the westward of Angoulême, in a most delightful situation on the Charente. It has a castle, in which Francis I. was born, and three convents ; but it is better known to us by its excellent wine and brandy.

S E C T. XXIII.

Of the two Governments of Nivernois and Bourbonnois ; their Situation, Extent, Rivers, Produce, Government, and principal Towns.

THE government of Nivernois is bounded on the north by Burgundy and the Gatinois, on the east by Burgundy, on the south by Bourbonnois, and on the west by Berry. Its figure is pretty nearly circular, and it is about twenty leagues over either way.

It produces corn, wine, and fruit ; except in the district of Morvant, which is a mountainous country, that produces scarce corn enough for the subsistence of the inhabitants. It has large woods, some pit-coal, and mines of iron. Among the many rivers which water Nivernois, three of them are navigable ; these are the Loire, which runs from south to north along the western borders of this country ; the Allier, which runs into the Loire ; and the Yonne, which rises on the south-east part of this province, and running northward falls into the sea. The other streams serve to render the country fruitful and pleasant : there are here also some mineral springs.

This country is subject to the parliament of Paris, and has its own particular laws. Over it is a governor, a lieutenant-general, and a deputy-governor. It is divided into eight districts, the principal places in which are the following :

Nevers, the ancient Noviodunum, and afterwards Nivernum, is situated in the district called Le Vaux de Nevers, and is the capital of the country. It is built in the form of an amphitheatre on the banks of the Loire, which is here joined by the little river Nievre, thirty leagues to the south-east of Orleans. It has a handsome stone bridge of twenty arches ; but the streets are narrow, and the ground uneven. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Cyr, is a fine structure ; besides which there are eleven parish-churches, two abbeys, several convents, and the Jesuits had here a college. It is computed that the inhabitants amount to about eight thousand. Among the other buildings is an old castle, which fronts a large square that consists of handsome houses uniformly built. There are here a forest and a bailiwick court, with a salt-office. The bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Sens, and his diocese consists of two hundred and seventy-one parishes. His revenue amounts to twenty thousand livres, and he pays twelve hundred and fifty florins to the court of Rome. This place is celebrated for its porcelain and glass-houses, and for its works in enamel. The inhabitants also carry on a great trade in corn, hemp, wood, pit-coal, iron, and tin-wares. The fields about the town are extremely pleasant, particularly the public walks in the adjoining park.

Clamecy, a town seated in a district called the Vale of Yonne, and upon the banks of that river, which is

here joined by the Buvron, and rendered navigable. In it is a castellany, and a salt-office. Pantenor, one of its suburbs, stands on the other side of the Yonne, and in the year 1180 was the residence of the bishop of Bethlehem, who had been compelled to leave Palestine. The bishop of the city, who still styles himself bishop of Bethlehem, is created by the count de Nevers, and enjoys all the privileges of the other French bishops, though his revenue amounts to no more than a thousand livres, and this town is his whole diocese.

The government of Bourbonnois is bounded on the north by Nivernois and Berry, on the east by the duchy of Burgundy, on the south by Auvergne, and on the west by Upper Marche. It is about thirty French leagues in length, and twenty in breadth.

It is pretty fertile, particularly in corn, fruit, and forage : it also produces good wine, though not in a sufficient quantity for exportation. It has likewise a few coal-pits, and a great number of mineral springs and warm baths. Its rivers are the Loire, the Allire, the Cher, with some other smaller ones. In July, when the snow melts on the mountains of Auvergne, great damages are done by the inundations of the Allire.

This country is subject to the parliament of Paris ; though the duke of Bourbon, to whom it belongs, has the nomination of all civil officers, yet their proper master is the king. Besides the governor and lieutenant general, here are also two sub-governors ; and in the whole country are twenty-two small towns, the principal of which are,

Moulins, in Latin Molinæ, the capital of the country, is seated on the Allire, in a pleasant fertile plain, almost in the middle of France, thirty miles to the south of Nevers, and fifty-five to the north of Clermont. It is well built, and one of the most agreeable places in the kingdom. It contains an intendency, a chamber of domains, a castellany, and several courts. It has likewise a collegiate church, five convents, an hospital, and a college, which lately belonged to the Jesuits.

Bourbon l'Archambaud, a small town fifteen miles to the west of Moulins, environed by four hills, on one of which stands an old castle that contains three chapels, among which that called the Holy is very splendid. In this town are a royal castellany, and a district court. There are here also one parish and one collegiate church, a priory, a convent, and two hospitals. This town is famous for its hot baths and cold mineral springs.

S E C T. XXIV.

Of the Governments of Berri and Touraine ; their Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, Government, and principal Towns.

THE country of Berri is bounded on the north by the Orleanois, on the east by the Nivernois, on the south by the Bourbonnois and La Marche, and on the west by La Marche and Touraine. Its extent from east to west is between twenty-seven and twenty-eight French leagues, and from north to south between thirty-five and thirty-six.

The air here is temperate, and the soil produces wheat, rye, and wine ; and in some places it is equal to that of Burgundy. Its other products are also good, particularly its hemp and flax, in which it abounds ; and its rich pastures feed great numbers of cattle, especially sheep, which are valued for the fineness of their wool. In one place in this country is found oker, which is seldom met with in France.

The principal rivers here are the Loire, the Creuse, and the Cher ; the large and lesser Sandre, the Nerre, and the Indre ; these two last have their sources in this country : the Orron, the Aurette, the Moulon, and the Evre. In this country is also the lake of Villiers, which is between seven and eight leagues in circuit.

Berry is under the jurisdiction of the parliament of Paris, and is governed by laws of its own. Subordinate to the governor are one lieutenant-general and two sub-governors, and it is divided into Upper and Lower Berry, the principal places in which are the following :

Bourges, the capital of Upper Berry, and of the whole country, is situated on a hill between the rivers Evre and Orron, to the banks of which it gradually descends, thirty-five leagues to the south of Paris, and seventeen almost south-east of Orleans. These two rivers encompass it on every side, except on that next the gate of Bourbonnoux. It is a large spacious city, containing a cathedral, four collegiate churches, besides two annexed to the seminary, four abbeys, and sixteen parish-churches, with a beautiful and large college, which lately belonged to the Jesuits. You meet here with many ecclesiastics, gentlemen, and scholars; and it is computed that there are in this city about fifteen thousand souls; but not many of them are tradesmen; the place having no other trade than what is necessary for the subsistence of the inhabitants. It is the see of an archbishop, and has an intendency, a salt-office, an independent royal tribunal, and several other offices and courts. The cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Stephen, is a fine Gothic structure standing on the highest part of the city: the archbishop, who is styled patriarch and primate of Aquitaine, has five suffragans, with a diocese of nine hundred parishes, and a revenue of thirty thousand livres, out of which he pays four thousand and thirty-three florins to the court of Rome.

The palace built by prince John of France, duke of Berry, is a magnificent edifice, in one part of which, called the king's apartment, the governor resides, and the other serves for the courts of justice; the great hall in the latter, which has no pillars to support it, is esteemed one of the finest and largest rooms in the kingdom. The town-house, erected by Jaques Coeur, is one of the most elegant buildings ever erected by a private man, and was purchased by Colbert, prime-minister of France, who gave it to the corporation of this city. The square of Bourbon is the largest in Bourges, and here antiently stood a Roman amphitheatre. The public walks and the malls are much admired, and the great number of religious houses are another considerable ornament to the city. The university of Bourges was either founded or revived in the year 1463, and consists of four faculties.

Cæsar took Bourges by storm; and the inhabitants having exercised some cruelties on the Roman soldiers that had fallen into their hands, he glutted his revenge by destroying near forty thousand of the natives. In the fifteenth century Charles VII. made this the place of his residence, while the English were masters of almost all the rest of the kingdom; on which occasion the English called him, by way of derision, king of Berry.

Issoudun, in Latin Exolidunum, a large town, the second in rank in the province, stands in a beautiful plain seventeen miles to the south-west of Bourges, and is the principal place in Lower Berry. It contains a salt-office, a manor court, and other public courts and offices. It is divided into the Upper and Lower Town, and has a castle, which commands the place: it has also one abbey, two collegiate and four parish-churches, five convents, and two hospitals.

The province of Touraine, which derives its name from the Turones, is bounded on the north by the river Maine, on the east by the Orleanois, on the south by Berry and Poitou, and on the west by Anjou. Its greatest extent from east to west is twenty-two French leagues, and from north to south twenty-four.

The air is temperate, and the country so delightful, that it is called the Garden of France; but it is not every where alike. The tract called the Varennes, which lies along the Loire, has a sandy soil, which produces rye, barley, millet, garden plants, and an herb which makes a good yellow dye. That called the Verron is richer, and yields corn, wine, very fine fruit, and particularly large plums. La Champagne is a small strip of land between the rivers Cher and Indre, abounding in grain, and particularly wheat. La Brenne is a swampy country: but the eminences along the Loire and Cher are covered with vineyards. In short, La Gastine is a stiff land very difficult to plough; and the country of Noyers is distinguished by its having some mines of iron, and one of copper.

This country is governed by laws of its own; but the inhabitants have a right of appeal to the parliament of

Paris. It has a governor, a lieutenant-general, and a sub-governor. There are twenty-seven towns or boroughs in the country; the principal places of which are the following:

Tours, the Cæsarodunum, or Turoni, of the ancients, and the capital of the country, lies in a plain extending between the river Loire and the Cher, and is fifty-two miles to the north-east of Poitiers, and a hundred and twenty-seven to the south-west of Paris. The city is large and well built, and the streets very clean, on account of several rivulets running through them from six public fountains. In this city is a very fine mall above a thousand paces in length, and adorned on each side with two rows of fine elms. The inhabitants are so scrupulous, that after it has rained no person is suffered to play, nor even walk in it till it be dry, under a penalty of ten livres. This city has a mint, a receiver's office, and a salt-office, an intendency, a provincial, bailiwick, and forest court. The cathedral is a fine structure, with two lofty towers, a curious clock, and a library, where are seen several antient manuscripts fastened by chains upon desks. The two most valuable of these manuscripts are, one of the Pentateuch, written in small capitals, which is reckoned to be a thousand years old; and another of the four Gospels, in Saxon characters, which some think to be of the same age as the Pentateuch, and others twelve hundred years old. There are here also five collegiate churches, three abbeys, twelve convents, and the Jesuits had here a college. The city is the see of an archbishop, under whom are eleven suffragans, seventeen abbeys, twelve collegiate churches, ninety-eight priories, three hundred parishes, and a hundred and ninety-one chapels. His revenue is forty thousand livres, and he pays to the court of Rome nine thousand five hundred florins. Here is also a royal palace, and an academy of polite literature.

While the manufactures of gold, silver, and silk brocades were in a flourishing condition, this city was computed to contain sixty thousand inhabitants, which number is reduced to thirty thousand. The city is governed by a mayor and twelve echevins.

Amboise, in Latin Ambacia, or Ambasia, is seated at the confluence of the Loire and the Amasse, twelve miles to the eastward of Tours, and contains a salt office, and a royal and forest court. In it are two parish-churches, four convents, and one hospital. Near the town is a large castle standing on a high rock, in which are the statues of Charles VIII. and his consort Anne; as also a stag's head of very extraordinary dimensions, it being ten feet high and eight feet broad, from the extremity of one horn to the other. This was supposed to be natural, till it was at last discovered to be factitious, and only made of wood. There are here also several other curiosities. In this town Charles VIII. was slain, either by running against a door, or, according to others, by being shot through the head. This was also the place where the civil war in 1561 first broke out, and where the name of Huguenot had its rise.

S E C T. XXV.

Of the two Governments of Poitou and Aunis; their Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, and principal Cities; with a more particular Description of Poitiers and Rochelle.

THE province of Poitou is bounded on the north by Touraine and Anjou, on the east by La Marche and part of Berri, on the south by Angoumois and Aunis, and on the west by the Bay of Biscay. It extends from north to south twenty-two French leagues, and from east to west forty-eight. It received its name from the antient Pictavi, or Pictoni.

The country is diversified with champaign lands, woods, and pasture grounds, with a few forests. The soil is various, according to the different parts of the country; but it in general abounds in corn and cattle. The principal trade of the inhabitants consists in oxen, mules, horses, and woollen stuffs.

The largest rivers are the Vienne, which rises on the borders of Limosin, and being joined by the Creuse falls into the Loire; the Sevre Niortoise, which rises in this country,

country, and, after receiving the Venotee, discharges itself into the sea; these are all navigable: here is also the Clain, which rises in the frontiers of Angoumois and falls into the Vienne.

This province was erected into an earldom by Charlemagne. Eleanor, daughter to the last duke of Aquitaine, brought it to her spouse Henry II. king of England, to which it continued subject, with some interruptions, till the unfortunate reign of Henry VI. when it was taken in 1436, since which time it has been perpetually annexed to the crown of France. It is subject to the parliament of Paris, and has but one provincial court. Under the governor is a lieutenant-general, and two deputy-governors.

This province is divided into two parts. Upper Poitou, which constitutes the eastern part of the country, is larger, more fruitful, pleasant, and healthy, than the Lower; we shall begin with the former, the principal places in which are the following:

Poitiers, or Poictiers, in Latin Augustoritum, the capital of the country, is seated upon a hill on the left bank of the little river Clain, into which falls another rivulet. It lies about eighteen leagues to the east of the sea coast, and seventy miles to the north-east of Rochelle. Were its circuit to be only considered, it would, perhaps, be esteemed the first in the kingdom, next to Paris; but it is far from being peopled in proportion to its extent, there being corn-fields and meadows within the walls; for the city has been so reduced by the civil wars, that it is almost become a desert, and is a mean smoky place. It is, however, a seat of a seneschalship, a presidial court, an office of the finances, and a country court. It is the see of a bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Bourdeaux, and has a diocese of seven hundred and twenty-two parishes, with a revenue of twenty-two thousand livres, out of which he pays to the court of Rome two thousand eight hundred florins. The cathedral is of an uncommon size, and built in the Gothic style. In this city are also four collegiate churches, seventeen other parish-churches, four abbeys, twenty-one convents, and two seminaries; the Jesuits had also a college here. An university was founded in 1431, and there are likewise three hospitals. In 1687 the inhabitants erected in the Royal square a pedestrian statue of Lewis XIV. The inhabitants in this town are principally employed in making gloves and combs; they also export woollen caps and stockings.

There are here some remains of Roman antiquities; among these is an amphitheatre, which lies among gardens and small houses, a triumphal arch, or rather gate, erected at the beginning of a military way, of which nothing at present remains but the arch, with the two pillars which support it. The palace and thick round tower close by it are said to be Roman works; but they carry evident traces of their being of Gothic structure.

In the neighbourhood of this city Edward the Black Prince obtained a memorable victory over the French, in the year 1356, at which he took John their king, with his son Philip, prisoners.

Niort is the best trading town in the province; it is seated on the river Soure, and has a bailiwick, a royal jurisdiction, and a forest court. It contains a castle, two parish churches, and nine convents, a general hospital, and has some manufactures of wool.

Luçon, a city in Lower Poitou, is seated in a morass twenty-three leagues to the south-west of Poitiers, and enjoys the title of a barony. It is the see of a bishop, who is lord and baron of the town, and suffragan to the archbishop of Bourdeaux. His diocese consists of two hundred and thirty parishes, and he has a revenue of twenty thousand livres, out of which he pays to the court of Rome one thousand florins. The air of this place is unwholesome, and, besides the cathedral, it contains only one parish church, one seminary, and two convents.

The government of Aunis is bounded on the north and west by Poitou; on the south by Saintonge; and on the west by the Bay of Biscay. It is watered by the Soure, which rises in Poitou, and there are good harbours along the coast. The country is somewhat barren, but produces some corn, and a great deal of wine; the marshes afford good pasturage.

This little province depends on the parliament of Paris, but is partly governed by its own common law, founded on custom. Under the governor is a lieutenant-general and a deputy-governor.

Rochefort, a new regular built town, seated on the river Charente, twenty-three miles to the south of Rochelle; it was formerly a small village belonging to a private family, from whom Lewis XIV. bought it in 1664, in order to build a city here; for it having been observed, that from this place to the sea, which is about four miles distant, the river was large enough to carry the biggest ships, the bottom excellent for anchorage, and the banks very even and solid; it was resolved to erect this city, and this resolution was accordingly executed. It has a very commodious harbour, and is one of the stations for the royal navy of France; so that here are all the necessary magazines for shipping, and a spacious and convenient dock. Here are also a victualling warehouse, a foundery, a manufactory of sail-cloth, the Hôtel called Cazernes, which was originally used for the education of three hundred gentlemen of noble families, designed to serve in the navy, and who are taught at the king's expence; but it now serves to lodge the marines, and is an hospital for sick soldiers, &c.

The entrance of the river is well defended by several forts, particularly one in the Isle of Aix, the redoubt facing it called Aiguille, fort Fourax, de la Pointe, and Vergeron; and about a league below Rochefort, is a long stoccado across the river. On the twenty-first of Sept. 1757, the Isle of Aix, with the fort upon it, was taken by the brave captain Howe, in the *Magnanime*, after about an hour's resistance, when the whole garrison, which consisted of near six hundred men, were made prisoners of war.

Rochelle, in Latin Rupelle, the capital of the province and government, in forty-six degrees sixteen minutes north latitude, and one degree ten minutes west longitude, is seated on the sea. It has a good harbour, but is rather handsome than large. The city has broad and straight streets, with neat houses, supported by piazzas and porticos, which afford shelter both from the rain and sun. It is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Bourdeaux, with a diocese of one hundred and eighty parishes, and a revenue of seventeen thousand livres, out of which he is taxed by the court of Rome seven hundred and forty-two florins. Here is also an intendency, a provincial and a bailiwick court, an admiralty, a chamber of commerce, and a mint. The Jesuits had also a college here; and there is likewise a college of physic, anatomy, and botany, for the instruction of young surgeons and apothecaries.

Rochelle was the principal seat of the reformed in France, whose inhabitants embracing Calvinism in the sixteenth century, suffered extremely during the civil wars, and having been fortified by them, was frequently defended with the utmost bravery. It was long possessed by that body, till at length Lewis XIII. after a long and famous siege, made himself master of it in 1628, chiefly for want of the promised succours from England, which did not arrive in time, and by means of an admirable bank of earth that cardinal Richelieu caused to be raised against it on the side of the ocean, to prevent their receiving succours. Famine at length obliged them to capitulate, in consequence of which their privileges were taken from them, and the fortifications demolished, except only two towers that defend the port; but his son Lewis XIV. caused new and very strong fortifications to be raised round it. The port is almost of a circular figure, and near fifteen hundred paces in circuit. One of the above-mentioned towers defending the port, is a prison for state criminals, and the other is called the Tower of the Chain. No vessel can enter into the harbour without leave of the governor, or captain of this last tower.

The principal manufacture carried on here is the refining of sugar; and they have lately set up a manufacture of earthen ware which succeeds very well. A considerable trade is carried on here to the islands of America, to which all the necessaries of life are sent, and from thence the vessels employed in it bring back the produce of those countries. The English in time of peace, with the Dutch, Danes, and the Swedes, annually send to

Rochelle

Rochelle a great number of ships, in order to take wine, brandy, salt, paper, linen, cloth, and serges.

The isle of Ré, in Latin Radis, lies between two and three French leagues from the Continent, and is four miles in length, and two in breadth. It produces plenty of wine, of which is made a very fine sort of brandy, and is very populous. It has a little fortified town, named St. Martin, which has a harbour and citadel, and is likewise defended by three other forts.

The isle of Oleron, in Latin Uliarus, is about three French leagues distant from the main land; it is five in length, two in breadth, and extremely fruitful. The inhabitants here having been able and expert sailors for these six or seven hundred years past, have drawn up rules for the marine, called the Laws of Oleron, which have served as a model to other maritime powers with regard to sea affairs. These islanders have always enjoyed very considerable privileges, both under the dukes of Aquitaine, and the kings of France, and had a governor peculiar to themselves, who had a very extensive authority. This island, together with that of Ré, was taken in the sixteenth century by the citizens of Rochelle; and as these islanders were very well affected to them, on account of the reformed religion, which most of them professed, they continued masters of these islands till the year 1625, at which time Lewis XIII. took them again.

S E C T. XXVI.

Of the two Governments of Anjou and Saumur; their Situation and Extent; with a Description of Angers and Saumur.

THE government of Anjou, which received its name from the ancient Andes, or Andegavi, is bounded on the north by the river Maine; on the east by Touraine; on the south by Poitou; and on the west by Brittany. Its greatest length from east to west is twenty-six French leagues, and from north to south twenty-four.

The country is a pleasant succession of hills and valleys, producing corn, wine, pease, beans, flax, hemp, and fruit-trees. Its fine pastures also furnish great herds of cattle. It has likewise mines of coal, iron, and salt-petre, together with quantities of marble, stone, and slate.

In this country are reckoned no less than forty-nine great and small rivers; but only six of these are navigable. These are the Loire, the Vienne, the Toue, the Magenne, the Loir, and the Sarthe. This country is under the parliament of Paris, but has laws of its own. Subordinate to the governor, is one lieutenant-general, and two sub-governors. The principal city in this government is

Angers, anciently Juliomagus, and in Latin Andegavum, the capital of the country, lies a little above the place where the rivers Loire and Sarthe fall into the Mayenne, which divides the city into two equal parts. The first walls were raised by John, surnamed Lackland, king of England and duke of Anjou; but prince Lewis, afterwards king Lewis VIII. son of Philip Augustus, caused those walls to be demolished; however, St. Lewis his son and successor rebuilt them as they now are. This is a large and populous city, containing nine thousand houses, and about thirty thousand inhabitants; it has sixteen parishes, twelve of which are within the town, and four in the suburbs. Here are likewise eight collegiate churches, and a great number of convents both of men and women. This city is the see of a bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Tours. His diocese contains six hundred and sixty-eight parishes; his revenue amounts to twenty-six thousand livres, and his taxation at the court of Rome is seventeen hundred florins. The cathedral is remarkable for three very high steeples built on its portico, of which that in the middle rests upon the foundations of the two others. Its roof is very high; large, and bold; it is not supported by any pillars; and the whole structure is in general elegant. Part of the town stands very low; so that it is proverbially said in the neighbouring country, "that Angers is a low town, " has high steeples, rich strumpets, and poor scholars."

It has a strong castle built on a rock, and encompassed with ditches cut into it, though very steep on the side of the river which runs at its foot. This castle is flanked with several large towers, and has a half-moon at the gate which leads to the suburbs. It was built by St. Lewis during the wars with the English, and it now serves as a prison for state criminals.

The university, which is one of the most famous in France, was founded by St. Lewis. They teach here the civil and canon-law, divinity, physic, and the liberal arts. A chair for a professor of the mathematics has been lately erected here, in the college of the fathers of the Oratory. Lewis XIV. in 1615, established in this city a royal academy, with the same privileges as that of Paris: it consists of thirty-six members, who must all be natives or inhabitants of the province. Here is a great procession annually celebrated at a festival called la Fête du Dieu, which is on Corpus Christi day, when all the priests and monks, with the principal inhabitants, and numbers of strangers, carry lighted torches in their hands, and representations of Scripture histories engraved, to atone for the pretended crime of their archdeacon Berengarius, who opposed transubstantiation about the year 1019, when that doctrine was first preached here.

This city is under the government of a mayor and four aldermen, annually chosen; twelve counsellors, eight assessors, a city attorney, a commissary, and a recorder. Their jurisdiction extends over the manufactories set up in the town, suburbs, and liberty. These manufactures consist of fine woollen stuffs, striped with silk and gold. They also bleach wax and linen cloth. In the town are likewise some sugar-bakers.

The Saumurois, or government of Saumur, contains a part of Anjou and Upper Poitou: it is under the direction of a governor, a lieutenant-general, and a sub-governor. The principal place it contains is

Saumur, in Latin Salmurus, the capital, and the seat of the public courts and offices, stands twenty-two miles to the south-east of Angers, and a hundred and sixty to the south-west of Paris. It contains a fine castle, three parish-churches, nine convents, and one royal college. Here is an important passage over the Loir, upon which there is a famous bridge. This city was much more opulent while in the possession of the Protestants; but has still an university. Near it is the magnificent abbey of the Benedictines of the congregation of St. Maur.

S E C T. XXVII.

Of the Government of Orleanois; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Rivers, Canals, and principal Cities.

THE government of Orleanois consists of several small countries, and is bounded on the north by Normandy and the Isle of France; on the east by the Isle of France, Champagne, and Burgundy; on the south by Nivernois and Berry; and on the west by Touraine and Maine; including Orleanois Proper, Sologne, Beaulle Proper, or Chartraine, Dunois, Vendomois, Blaisois, the greatest part of Gatinois, and Perche Gouet. The whole government extends about thirty-two leagues in length from east to west, and twenty-eight in breadth from north to south.

The rivers which run through this government, or have their source in it, are the Loire; the Loiret, which rises a league from Orleans, and falls into the Loire; the Cher, which also runs into the Loire; the Laconie, which rises in the wood of Orleans, and loses itself in the same river; the Aigle, which rises in this government, and also mingles with the Loire; the Hyere, which loses itself under ground, and, when it afterwards appears again near Montigny, is called le Ganelon, falls into the same river.

In this district are likewise some remarkable canals. That of Briare, which receives its name from a small town, joins the river Loire to the Loing, which falls into the Seine, and consequently opens a communication between the countries lying on the Loire and the city of Paris. The canal of Orleans also joins the above-men-

tioned rivers; this canal, which was begun in 1682, and finished in 1692, is near eighteen leagues in length, and contains thirty sluices.

The whole government is subject to the parliament of Paris, and contains four large and three small jurisdictions. The trade carried on here by means of the Loire is the most extensive in the whole kingdom, comprehending not only all that comes from the southern and western parts, but likewise from foreign countries. The principal staple is at Orleans. Under the governor are three lieutenant-generals, and three sub-governors.

Orleanois Proper is one of the finest countries in France; it being fertile in corn, wine, and excellent fruit; and abounding in cattle, game, and fish. The principal places in this government are the following:

Orleans, antiently Genabum, or Cenabum, and afterwards Aurelianum and Aureliana, the capital of the government, is seated on the Loire, over which it has a fine stone bridge of sixteen arches, leading to a suburb on the south side of the river. On this bridge is to be seen a beautiful monument of cast brass standing on a stone pedestal, that has some ornaments in the Gothic taste. In the center of the monument is a crucifix, on the top of which stands a pelican with its brood pecking its own breast; before the crucifix is the Virgin Mary sitting with the dead body of Christ reclined on her lap. On the right side is king Charles VII. kneeling and stretching out both his hands towards the cross, and on the left side the famous maid of Orleans, also represented kneeling, both armed cap-a-pie with swords by their sides; the king has the French coat of arms, and wears a crown on his helmet. But the helmet of the maid is placed by her: her hair is tied behind, and the rest of it hangs loose on her back. These statues are not so big as the life. A solemn procession is annually observed here on the twelfth of May, in commemoration of the deliverance of the city. It stands in a most agreeable plain, and is built in the form of a bow; the streets in general are narrow, but some of them are broad and straight. This city, which is about four miles in circuit, is but meanly built, and, except a few of the tradesmen, the inhabitants are poor. It is the see of a bishop, and contains an intendency, a castellany, a country court, a forest court, a salt-office, and other courts and offices. It has a fine cathedral built in the Gothic style, an abbey, three collegiate churches, twenty-two parish-churches, an university consisting only of civilians, which was formerly very famous, though it is at present in no great repute, one seminary in which divinity is taught, and a public library. The Jesuits had also a college here. Its bishop, who is subordinate to the archbishop of Paris, has a diocese of two hundred and seventy-two parishes, and a revenue of twenty-four thousand livres, out of which he pays two thousand florins to the court of Rome. The public walk is properly a part of the city ramparts, levelled and planted with beautiful rows of trees. The suburb on the farther side of the river makes a tolerable appearance, and has a Carthusian monastery. This city, on account of its situation in the middle of the Loire, is the magazine of the whole trade of the kingdom, especially in corn, wine, brandy, and spices: it also carries on a considerable trade in sheep-skins, and likewise in stockings, of which great quantities are made here.

In the year 1344 it was raised to a dukedom and peerage, and Lewis XIV. gave it his brother Philip, in which house it continues.

This city was besieged by the English in 1428, and so straitened, that the inhabitants resolved to surrender to the duke of Burgundy, then in the English army, and their ally. But the English not being willing that the city should be given up to him, he was disgusted at it, and Joan of Arc heading the soldiers, raised the siege in 1429, from which she obtained the name of the Maid of Orleans. The French language is spoken here in the greatest purity.

The forest of Orleans lies to the north of the city and of the river Loire, and is the largest in the whole kingdom. It contains about fourteen thousand acres planted with wood; but is interspersed with several plains and villages. It is twenty leagues, or sixty miles, in length, and in some places seven or eight leagues, and in others

only two or three in breadth. It contains high and lofty trees, as oaks, elms, &c. In this forest they fell timber every year to the value of a hundred thousand livres, the profits of which belong to the duke of Orleans.

Chartres, the Autricum of the antients, is the capital of the country of Chartrain; it is situated on the river Eure, about fourteen leagues to the south-west of Paris, and is divided into two parts by the above river, the largest of which stands on an eminence. It is the see of a bishop, and has a noble cathedral; but the city has little beauty to recommend it, the streets being narrow, and the buildings old. It has three abbies, one priory, six parish-churches, without including those in the suburbs, nine convents, one seminary, and two hospitals. In the city are also held a provincial and bailiwick court, together with a salt office. The bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Paris, has a diocese of eight hundred and ten parishes; his annual revenue amounts to twenty-five thousand livres, out of which he pays four thousand florins to the court of Rome.

Blois, in Latin Blesæ, the capital of the district of Blaisois, stands partly on an eminence, and partly in a plain on the river Loire, over which it has a well-built stone bridge. It is situated ten leagues to the south-west of Orleans, in a pure air, and in the midst of one of the finest countries in France. It is a large handsome city; but the greatest beauty of it is the palace, or castle, the residence of several of their kings, with gardens adorned with fountains and other water-works, and a park suitable to the magnificence of the buildings. The staircase of the palace is much admired, as well as the gallery, which is said to be six hundred feet long; and over the great gate is a statue of Lewis XII. In the grand court before the palace stands one of the largest collegiate churches in France. It is remarkable that there is an image of the Virgin over every gate of the city; these were set up in 1631, when, after having suffered much by the plague, they imagined, on its ceasing, that they were miraculously delivered by the queen of heaven, as they stile her. The parish-church of St. Solenne, the largest in Blois, having been destroyed by a tempest, was magnificently rebuilt by Lewis XIV. and converted into a cathedral. The Jesuits had also a beautiful college here, the front of which is adorned with the Doric, the Ionic, and the Corinthian orders of architecture. The other public edifices, as the town-house, and the building where the courts of justice are held, are well worth viewing. Their fountains are also large, and well supplied by a noble aqueduct, supposed to be the work of the ancient Romans.

The bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Paris, has in his diocese about two hundred parishes, and his revenue amounts annually to twenty thousand livres, out of which he is taxed two thousand five hundred and thirty-three florins at the court of Rome. There are here several churches besides those we have mentioned, and likewise a considerable number of convents.

The natives are represented as being remarkable for their good sense and gentle behaviour, as well as their speaking French in perfection, which is supposed to proceed from the frequent residence of the court in this city.

The principal trade here is in wine and brandy, which are sent to Orleans, Paris, Tours, Laval, and even into Holland; and the city is also distinguished for making the best watches in the kingdom.

Chambord, a royal palace seated in a wood on the river Cosson, is a magnificent edifice of free-stone, built by Francis I. It is said to exceed any Gothic edifice in France, and to have such various beauties, that the greatest masters may learn something from it. The body of the building is composed of four large pavilions, and the whole is surrounded with a wall of hewn-stone, flanked with towers, which at a distance give it a magnificent appearance. The tower over the center looks very grand, and the principal winding stair-case is much admired. The halls, anti-chamber, chambers, wardrobes, cabinets, and galleries, are of exquisite architecture, and the garden and park answerable to the beauty of the building. In this palace Stanislaus, the dethroned king of Poland, resided nine years. It was afterwards con-

ferred on the celebrated general count Maurice of Saxe, who died here in the year 1750, when the king gave it his heir the count de Frise, who died here in the year 1755.

Montargis, the capital of the Gatinois Orleanois, is situated on the river Loing, near the place where the canal of Orleans falls into it, twenty-five leagues to the south of Paris. The town is not large; but having been burnt down, is handsomely rebuilt, and has a castle pleasantly situated on a hill, that commands the town and the neighbouring country. Here is a bailiwick, a forest, a provincial court, and a salt-office. Besides the parish-church, there are ten chapels founded by the inhabitants, with a college, and several convents.

S E C T. XXVIII.

Of the Government of Maine and Perche; the Situation and Extent of those Provinces; their Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THE government we are now going to describe comprehends the province of Maine, the earldom of Laval, and the greatest part of the earldom of Perche.

The county of Maine is bounded on the north by Normandy, on the east by Perche, on the south by Touraine and Orleanois, and on the west by Anjou and Brittany, extending eighty-eight miles in length from east to west, and fifty in breadth from north to south.

It has mines of iron, quarries of marble, and, being very fruitful, abounds in corn, wine, flax, and cattle: their fowls are particularly admired, and are well known at Paris. Its principal rivers are the Mayenne, or Maine; the Huïfne, which rises in Perche, and runs into the Sarte; the Sarte, which also rises in Perche, and after receiving the Orne, the Huïfne, the Enferne, and the Little Loire in its passage, falls into the Mayenne.

This country was formerly an earldom, but has been united to the crown ever since the year 1584. It is governed by its own laws; but is subject to the parliament of Paris, and has a particular sub-governor.

The principal places in this government are the following:

Mans, in Latin Cenomanum, the capital of the province of Maine, is situated on a hill, at the foot of which runs the river Sarte, which here unites its water with the river Huïfne, thirteen leagues to the north-west of Tours, and thirty-two to the south-west of Paris. It is the see of a bishop, and has a salt-office, a provincial and forest-court, &c. Its bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Tours, has a diocese of six hundred and ninety-six parishes, and a revenue of thirty-five thousand livres, out of which he pays two thousand two hundred and sixteen florins to the court of Rome. In this city, besides the cathedral and two collegiate churches, are four abbeys, thirteen parish-churches, eight convents, one college, and one seminary.

Laval, the capital of an earldom, is seated on the Maine, eight leagues to the westward of Mans, and is encompassed by a wall and other fortifications in the antique taste: it has also an ancient castle of the same kind; but incapable of making any great defence, since the improvement of the art of war. It has a salt-office, a country and forest court, &c. and contains two collegiate churches, two parish-churches, one priory, and eight convents. This town was taken by escalade in 1446, by the brave Talbot earl of Shrewsbury, general of the English.

Perche is bounded by Normandy on the north, by the Isle of France and Orleanois on the east, by the river Maine on the south, and by Normandy on the west; it not being above fifteen leagues in length, and twelve in breadth.

It is a hilly country, and the eminences produce only grafs for cattle; but the valleys and plains bear all kinds of grain and hemp; they also abound in apples, of which they make cyder, the usual drink of the country: they have indeed a few vineyards, but the wine is so poor, that cyder is generally preferred before it. They have here also some iron mines, and mineral waters.

This country enjoys its own laws; is subject to the parliament of Paris, and governed by a particular sub-governor. The whole country does not belong to this government, Perche Gouet being subject to that of Orleanois, and Timerais to that of the Isle of France. The principal places in this country are the following:

Mortagne, the capital of Perche, is situated eighty-five miles to the west of Paris, and is the seat of a salt-office, a viscounty, a district court, a forest court, &c. It has one collegiate and three parish-churches, four convents, with one hospital, and has some considerable manufactures of coarse linen.

Bellesme, a small town ten miles to the south of Mortagne, and ninety to the west-by-south of Paris, disputes the rank of capital with Mortagne, and is also the seat of a royal viscount, a forest court, and a salt-office. In a neighbouring wood is the mineral spring of Herse, the water of which is in many cases very salutary.

S E C T. XXIX.

Of the Government of Paris; with a particular Description of that City, and the neighbouring Places.

THE boundaries of this government are not easily determined, the French geographers themselves being not agreed about them. It, however, includes, besides the city, a part of the neighbouring country; and, besides the governor, here are two lieutenant-generals, one of which is appointed for the city, the other for the *prevoté* and *vicomté*, through its utmost extent. Within the boundaries of this jurisdiction are contained four others; these are the Louvre and the Tuilleries, as also those of the Bastille and the royal hospital of invalids, the four governors of which receive their orders immediately from the king.

Paris, in Latin Lutetia, Parisii, and Lutetia Parisiorum, the capital of France, is seated in a large plain on the river Seine, in the middle of the Isle of France, in the forty-eighth degree fifty minutes north latitude, and in the second degree twenty-five minutes east longitude, two hundred and twenty-five miles to the south-east of London, seventy miles to the south of Rouen, five hundred and fifty to the west of Vienna, seven hundred to the north-west of Rome, and six hundred and twenty-five to the north-east of Madrid.

This city is of a circular form, about six or seven miles in diameter, and, including the suburbs, is eighteen or twenty in circumference. Its streets have been computed to amount to nine hundred and twelve, in which are about twenty thousand houses, from four to seven stories high; besides churches, convents, chapels, colleges, communities, and ware-houses. "The number of its inhabitants, says Dr. Busching, cannot much exceed four hundred thousand; for from the year 1728 to 1736 the annual bills of mortality were at a medium seventeen thousand eight hundred; and it is calculated, upon very probable computations, that of twenty-five persons in this city, one dies yearly, whence the above number of deaths make the number of living inhabitants four hundred and forty-five thousand."

This great city contains forty-seven parish-churches, besides twenty others; three abbeys and twelve priories for men, seven abbeys and six priories for women; seventeen collegiate churches, thirteen of which have chapters; fifty convents and fraternities of ecclesiastics and laics, forty-three nunneries, and fourteen female communities; eleven seminaries, twenty-six hospitals, and forty chapels; an university, six academies, besides three others where young gentlemen are taught bodily exercises; five public libraries, four royal palaces, four castles, above a hundred hotels, some of which are stately structures; seventy-three market-places, sixty fountains, twelve bridges over the Seine, ten of which are of stone, and eleven gates.

Among the disadvantages of this city it must be observed, that Paris affords no good water fit for drinking, the inhabitants being obliged to use that of the Seine, which is fetid, and occasions dysenteries; or another sort of water that is still worse, it being productive of the gravel

gravel and stone. The streets are lighted at night six months in the year; but this is performed in a very inelegant manner, by hanging up lanterns in the middle of the streets upon cords, which are put across from one window to another.

The new regulations for keeping the streets clean, formed by M. Turgot, provost of the merchants, consist in a canal lined with free-stone, six feet broad, and about the same depth, which receives all the soil from those parts of the city through which it runs. This canal is kept clean by means of a large reservoir formed in a particular building erected for that purpose, which is supplied with water from all the springs in the neighbourhood. In it are six pumps worked by a machine kept going by four horses, and these discharge the water into a large reservoir likewise lined with free-stone, whence it runs under ground through two ranges of pipes of a considerable bore, discharging itself with great violence into the above canal, and thus carries off all the filth into the Seine.

Here are good regulations in case of fire, for the first president of the parliament, and the lieutenant of the police, the horse and foot patrol, and some companies of the French and Swiss foot guards, are obliged to repair to a fire with all the expedition the distance of the place will admit; but the actual extinguishing of it is committed to the care of the monks of the four Mendicant orders, who on such occasions are to expend, for the benefit of the public, part of the stock they have acquired by begging.

To give a more particular description of this city: it consists of three parts, namely, the Town, which lies on the north of the Seine, the City, which is environed by that river, and the University, which lies to the south of it, with twelve suburbs. In 1702 it was also subdivided into twenty quarters, or wards.

The city is in the centre, and is the most cleanly and wealthy; it consists of three islands formed by the Seine; these are the Isle Du Palais, the Isle of Notre Dame, and the Isle Louviers. The last is small, and contains only store-houses for wood; it fronts the arsenal, and has a communication with the quarter of St. Paul by means of a wooden bridge.

The Isle of Notre Dame, or Our Lady, is so called from the cathedral of that name; the streets of which are very straight: by means of a stone bridge it has a communication with the quarter of St. Paul, by another with that of Maubert, and it is also joined by a wooden bridge to the Isle Du Palais: it has also some fine hôtels, with the parish-church of St. Lewis.

The Isle Du Palais, or the Island of the Palace, properly consists of Old Paris, and is so called from the place in which the parliament meets, and which takes up a great part of it. The metropolitan church stands at one end of this island, where are also several little parish-churches, the hospital of Hotel Dieu, or the House of God, which extends to the other side of the river towards the south, and a vast number of small crooked streets or lanes, built with very high houses, most of which are inhabited by several families.

Besides the above wooden bridge, which joins this island to that of Notre Dame, it has a communication with other parts of the city by means of seven stone bridges. The principal of these is the Pont Neuf, or New Bridge, which is the finest bridge in Paris. It consists of twelve arches, and is seventy-two feet broad, reckoning the parapets. The middle or carriage-way is thirty feet broad, and on each side is a foot-way raised. Over the piles on each side are also semicircular lodgements, in which are a hundred and seventy-eight small shops belonging to the king's footmen, which only serve to obstruct a most beautiful prospect. In the center of the bridge is a fine equestrian statue of Henry IV. in brass, larger than the life, and standing on a marble pedestal, on the sides of which are basso-relievos, with inscriptions representing the victories and principal actions of that hero. At the four corners are tied four slaves, also of brass, who trample upon antique arms. This stately monument is inclosed within iron rails. Another ornament of the Pont Neuf is the Samaritaine, a building three stories high, in which is an engine that supplies some parts of the city with water. It is thus named from

there being in the front a groupe of figures representing the story of Christ and the Samaritan woman.

Another bridge, called the Pont au Change, has a statue of Lewis XIV. in brass; and both this and the bridge of Notre Dame, on which are also water-works, have each two rows of houses upon them; those of the first being four, and of the last two stories high.

In the above island stands the cathedral of Notre Dame, which is a large and Gothic structure, three hundred and ninety-six feet long, a hundred and forty broad, and a hundred and two in height: on the inside are four rows of pillars, thirty in a row, with forty-five chapels, built between the outermost rows and the wall. The pillars in the nave of the church are adorned with large and beautiful pictures; and the choir was splendidly repaired and beautified by Lewis XIV. It has a small spire in the middle, and at the west end two square towers three hundred and eighty steps high; these are flat at the top, with a balustrade of free stone, whence you have a noble prospect of the city and the neighbouring country. In one of these towers are two large bells, one of which weighs forty thousand, and the other thirty-one thousand pounds.

Near this structure stands the palace of the archbishop, in one of the halls of which is the library of the advocates, founded for the public use. There are also in the island a great number of parish-churches.

To the north of these islands stands that division called Le Ville, or the Town, which is daily beautified by rebuilding the old houses. On the east is the arsenal near the river, which consists of several courts, and has beautiful walks in the garden near the city wall; and towards the north-east is the Bastile, a kind of fortress consisting of eight large round towers, joined together by other strong buildings, and surrounded with ditches and bastions. It is a prison for state criminals, and here the king keeps a governor, a lieutenant, and an independent company of soldiers.

Among the most considerable palaces in Paris, that of the Louvre is esteemed the principal ornament of the city. It is commonly divided into the Old and New. The old part of this royal palace was begun to be built with stone by Francis I. in 1528, and was finished by Henry II. in 1548. Succeeding kings improved and enlarged it, till Lewis XIV. ordered it to be rebuilt on a new plan, which, if completed, would have rendered it a most magnificent structure. The plan of the whole building forms an equilateral quadrangle, containing a court in the center three hundred and seventy-six feet square. The principal of the four main wings was built by Lewis XIV. as also the greatest part of the two others, which form the sides, together with a new front to that part which lies next the Seine. The four inner fronts, according to the plan, were to have consisted of eight pavilions, and eight *corps de logis*. The whole building is three stories high in the new part; the first of the Corinthian order, the second of the Composite, and the third of the Attic.

In the hall of the hundred Swiss is a kind of gallery supported by four gigantic figures. In this hall great entertainments were given, and queen Catharine of Medicis caused plays and interludes to be exhibited there for the amusement of the court. Henry IV. built a gallery along the river side quite to the Tuilleries, which is reckoned the finest in Europe; and under it is the royal printing-house.

At some distance behind the Louvre stands the palace called the Tuilleries, built in 1564 by order of queen Catharine de Medicis, in a place where they formerly made tiles, in French *tuilles*, from which the palace takes its name; and this structure was also improved by Lewis XIV. It is one range of building, with a dome in the middle, and a pavilion at each end. Before it is a handsome large space divided into three courts; the whole adorned with columns, pilasters, and other ornaments. Behind this palace are pleasant gardens adorned with fine walks, planted with evergreens and other trees, with beautiful parterres, where may be seen all the year round every flower in season. It has also three beautiful fountains, and a large octagonal canal. Towards the river is a fine terrace planted with three rows of trees, above a hundred perches long and eighty-four broad,

broad, and from this terrace is a most beautiful prospect over the adjacent country. These gardens are public, and great numbers of well dressed people in summer evenings resort thither. All who wear a black bag and a sword are permitted to walk here, though all their other cloaths are not worth a crown.

On the bank of the river beyond the Tuilleries, is the place called *le Cours*, composed of four rows of elms, eighteen hundred paces in length, forming three avenues that are all together a hundred and twenty feet in breadth; that in the middle is the broadest, and has room for six coaches to pass a-breast. In the midst of the *Cours* is a large ring, encompassed with trees at the same distance from each other as in the other parts of the walks.

The palace of Luxemburg was built by queen Mary de Medicis, on the ruins of the old hôtel of Luxemburg, which name it has retained. It is one of the most perfect and regular pieces of architecture in all France. Here is a gallery of fine paintings done by the celebrated Rubens, who spent two years in that work. It consists of the history of the life of Mary de Medicis, represented allegorically in twenty-four large pictures, nine feet broad and ten feet high, placed in the piers between the windows. The other apartments are also richly furnished, and adorned with a fine collection of valuable paintings. The gardens of this palace are elegantly laid out, and ornamented with fountains. They are daily visited in summer-time by the nobility and others, like those of the Tuilleries; but more especially on Sundays, when several thousands of all ranks make their appearance there. It is here the custom for the gentlemen and ladies of the first quality, though richly dressed, to sit down to discourse on the grass.

The royal palace was built by cardinal Richelieu, who made a present of it to Lewis XIII. It consists of several sets of buildings separated by large courts, and is adorned with fine gardens. Several new apartments have been added to it since the cardinal's time, and here queen Anne of Austria, mother to Lewis XIV. resided during the minority of her son. In this structure are now held the courts of justice, the most eminent of which is the parliament.

The royal observatory is a very stately edifice, built in 1667 upon the highest ground in Paris, and as neither iron nor timber has been employed in its construction, except for the staircase, it has cost great sums. Several astronomers, maintained by the king, have apartments in that house. The French make their first meridian pass through this observatory, which is two degrees thirty minutes more east than London, according to Street's observations; or, according to those of Harris, two degrees twenty-five minutes fifty-one seconds.

The Gobelins at Paris is a house so called from one Gobelin, a celebrated dyer, who removing from Rheims to Paris in the reign of Francis I. bought that house. He had discovered the secret of dying the beautiful scarlet called from him the scarlet of the Gobelins. Lewis XIV. bought that and some of the neighbouring houses, where he established a manufactory of the finest tapestries, and also settled a great number of gold and silver-smiths, embroiderers, painters, carvers, and other artificers in every branch tending to splendor and magnificence. They are all under the direction of the superintendant of the buildings, arts, and manufactures of France. There have been above eight hundred workmen employed here at a time; and though their number be since considerably decreased, yet there are still to be seen many things of the most curious workmanship worthy the curiosity of a traveller.

With respect to the churches, the most remarkable, after that of Notre Dame, which has been already described, are the following:

The church and nunnery of Val de Grace was founded by queen Anne of Austria, upon the supposed miraculous birth of Lewis XIV. after she had been married twenty-two years without having any offspring. Her heart and that of Henrietta Maria of England, duchess of Orleans, lie entombed here. The altar and cupola are exceeding fine. The nuns of this convent must all be of noble extraction, and choose a lady abbess once in

three years. Madam la Valiere, one of Lewis the XIVth's mistresses, retired to this monastery soon after her leaving the court. To it is a handsome ascent by several stone steps, which lead into a portico in the front of the church.

In the church which lately belonged to the Jesuits, and which stands in St. Anthony's street, they have the heart of Lewis the thirteenth inclosed in a gold case, supported by two angels of silver. Here is also a fine altar with several brass statues, and the monuments of the princes of Condé. This church is a neat and elegant modern structure.

St. Eustace is a large and beautiful church.

The Theatines have a large church and cloister by the side of the river, some distance below the college of the Four Nations. Cardinal Mazarine left a legacy for building this convent.

Clermont college is a square and lofty building, which, till lately, belonged to the Jesuits, who taught here in several schools about two thousand boys, many of whom were gentlemen's sons: these boarded here, and had several halls to dine in. Many of the scholars wear coloured gowns, with large round velvet caps when they learn logic, and square caps when they read philosophy.

The university of Paris is said to be founded by Charlemagne in 791. In this university are upwards of thirty colleges, the most considerable of which are the Sorbonne, the college of Navarre, the college of the Four Nations, and the faculty or college of physic.

The college of Sorbonne was founded in 1250; but was very poor when cardinal Richelieu caused it to be rebuilt in 1629. The present building is a very magnificent structure, in which are apartments for thirty-six doctors, with a library and halls for public lectures and acts. To the three professors chairs the cardinal added three others of a royal foundation. This is thought to be the strictest college in Europe, the degree of doctor being only given to those who hold the Sorbonnic act, which is to answer all disputants from sun-rise to sun-set: on which account the title of doctor of the Sorbonne is of great repute. The doctors wear black gowns, and when exercises are performed have white fur hanging across the breast.

The college of Navarre was founded by Jane, consort of Philip the Fair, queen of Navarre, in 1305, for studying divinity; and in 1683 three other chairs were added. Besides the fellowships for students in divinity, queen Jane founded also twenty others for students in grammar; six other fellowships have been founded here, and in this college are kept the records of the university.

The college of the Four Nations is the finest in the university, and designed for the reception of the children of gentlemen, or eminent citizens of four different nations, namely, French, Italians, Spaniards, and Germans. There should be sixty fellows in this college, by virtue of its original foundation; but they have been reduced to half that number. It is also called the college of Mazarine, from the cardinal of that name, who left two millions of livres to it in his last will. The university adopted this college upon condition that neither divinity, law, nor physic, should be taught in it; nor any academy annexed to it in which students should be taught to ride, fence, and dance. Besides the ordinary professors, here is one for mathematics. The doctors of the Sorbonne appoint the principal, who has the title of great master, and is always one of their own body. The fellowships are at the king's disposal, who gives them to such as are presented to him by the secretary of state of Paris. This college has a stately front, in the form of a theatre, facing the Louvre, which is on the opposite side of the Seine.

The faculty of physic has a college built in 1477, in which are five professors, who are annually chosen. The morning professors read lectures on physiology, botany, and pharmacy; and the evening professors on pathology and surgery. In this college is an amphitheatre, in which are annually given complete courses of anatomy, surgery, pharmacy, and chemistry. Every Saturday six doctors meet there in order to examine such of the poor who are sick, and come to consult them; and the bachelors of

physic

physic are obliged to attend, in order to write the prescriptions of the physicians. The faculty is composed of all the doctors and licentiates who have taken their degrees in the university of Paris: they have a dean at their head, and a censor. These doctors and licentiates have the sole right of practising physic at Paris, no physician of any other university being suffered to practise here, unless he be physician to the king or the royal family. All the professors in the university have settled salaries, and in most of the colleges there are fellowships for the students.

The several academies deserve to be particularly mentioned. These are, I. The French academy, founded in 1633, by cardinal Richelieu, for the improvement of the French language, which consists of forty members, who meet on Mondays, Thursdays, and Saturdays, in a hall of the Old Louvre.

II. The royal academy of inscriptions and belles lettres, instituted for the advancement of polite literature. In this academy ancient monuments are explained, and the transactions of the kingdom perpetuated by medals, inscriptions, &c. It consists of four sorts of members: these are twelve honorary, and twenty pensioners, with twenty-six associates and twelve students. Their meeting-days are on Wednesdays and Saturdays.

III. The royal academy of sciences, instituted in 1666, has also its honorary members, pensioners, associates, and students.

IV. The royal academy of painting and sculpture was founded in 1648. The master-pieces of the painters and sculptors admitted into this academy are disposed in three halls, and marked with the names of the several artists. Here are also the pictures of a great number of celebrated painters, and among the statues several of Gyps taken from antiques.

V. The royal academy of architecture was founded in 1671, but was not authorized by letters patent before the year 1717. It is divided into two classes: the first is composed of ten architects, a professor, and a secretary; and the second of twelve other architects. The professor, whose post, as well as that of the secretary, is for life, is obliged to read public lectures every Monday and Thursday in the hall of the Louvre.

The most considerable of the hospitals in this city are, that for disabled soldiers, the Hôtel Dieu, Trinity hospital, and the General hospital. The Royal hospital for disabled soldiers may be considered as a large palace, it taking up above seventeen acres. Here are four large courts, all of the same form, surrounded with regular buildings four stories high. In the middle is a fifth court, larger than all the four taken together. It is encompassed with a double row of arches, one above the other, forming very narrow galleries. The chapel is very beautiful, and its altar adorned in the most splendid manner. This hospital is full of lame and superannuated officers and soldiers. The great order and strict discipline observed in it cannot be sufficiently admired. It has a governor, a lieutenant of the king, and a major.

The Hôtel Dieu, or the House of God, is the most ancient and largest hospital in Paris. As all poor sick people are admitted into it, there have been sometimes four thousand persons in it at once. They are attended with the greatest care by the nuns of the order of St. Augustine, who discharge the office of nurses. To the honour of this hospital, all manner of patients are admitted, without regard to their country, religion, or disease; and no security is required for their burial in case of death: nor are those who labour under any incurable disease ever discharged, and suffered to perish in the streets.

In the suburbs of St. Victor is the General hospital, which also goes by the name of La Salpêtrerie; saltpetre having been formerly made here. In it is a noble foundation for the female sex, near seven thousand of whom are here provided for, and live under the inspection of sixty sisters, subordinate to whom are eighty governesses, and a considerable number of maid-servants. Into this place are received foundlings, who take up one ward: girls and young women, who sew and knit: a great number of bad women, who are here compelled to spin woollen: some hundreds of female idiots, who live

in little houses built in the form of a street: many other poor women, some of whom are kept here gratis, and others pay a small matter: delinquents who are confined, but not put to work.

To this admirable foundation also belongs the castle of Bicêtre, which is seated on an eminence at a small distance from the above-mentioned houses, and is on all sides defended by a wall, which is of very considerable compass, containing within it many large buildings, and several open squares. In this castle are near four thousand persons of the other sex, particularly poor men, who are entertained here gratis, and some who pay for their reception into the house. Persons disordered in their senses, whose ward resembles a village, it being built in regular streets. Twenty-five men and as many women afflicted with the venereal disease. Common prisoners are kept here in a particular house, walled in, and every one in a cell by himself: but the most remarkable thing here is the large well, which is a modern work: it is of a circular form, and from top to bottom lined with freestone. To the surface of the water it is a hundred and twenty-eight feet in depth, and twenty more to the bottom. Round the well, at the water's edge, is a gallery to which a person may, on occasion, be let down. The water is drawn up by means of an engine worked by four horses, who are relieved every three hours; it is received all day long into huge buckets, each of which contains twelve hundred pounds weight of water, which is discharged out of these into a leaden basin, whence it runs into a reservoir, and is conveyed by means of pipes to all the parts of this vast building.

The hospital de la Pietie, in St. Victor's street, constitutes also a part of the General hospital, and is the place where the governors usually hold their meetings. These three last foundations, together with the Hôtel Dieu, have one common fund, amounting to full two millions of livres per annum. Its present governors are twelve substantial citizens appointed by the provost of the merchants, and by the echevins; but approved by the parliament, before whom they must be sworn. There are also seven honorary administrators, or governors: these are the archbishop of Paris, the first president of the parliament, chamber of accounts, and court of aids, the attorney-general, the lieutenant-general of the police, and the provost of the merchants.

Trinity hospital was founded about the year 1202 by two friars for the reception of poor travellers: but it is now used for the maintenance and education of poor children of both sexes born at Paris in lawful wedlock. They wear blue gowns, and here are an hundred beds for boys, and thirty-six for girls, who have different apartments, in each of which there is an infirmary. The youngest are taught to read and write; and when they are six or seven years old, are instructed in some trade within the hospital. In order to encourage mechanics to come and exercise their trades here, and teach the children, the parliament has declared, that such journeymen as have taught these children six years in this hospital, shall have the freedom of the city, without any expence; and that such children as should be arrived at the age of twenty-five, and should have taught others during six years, after they were out of their apprenticeship, should enjoy the same privilege. This wise establishment has procured the city a vast number of skilful artificers. This hospital is administered by five eminent persons chosen by the parliament, out of ten presented to them by the attorney-general.

Among the squares in Paris the most famous is that called La Place de Victoires, or the Square of Victories. In it is a noble statue of Lewis XIV. which is one of the best pieces of statuary in Europe: it is of massy brass thirty feet high, clad in his robes, with Victory behind him of the same magnitude and metal, putting a crown on his head, and poised with her foot on a globe. Under her is a three-headed Cerberus, to represent Lewis XIV. triumphing over the triple alliance, with these words under it, VIRO IMMORTALI, or the immortal man, alluding to his fame. The whole piece was cast all at once, and weighs above thirty thousand pounds. The pedestal is twenty-two feet high, and upon it are four slaves of brass, with basso relievos of the king's battles and conquests.

quests. Under the pedestal is a pavement of marble inclosed within handsome iron rails.

The triumphal arch at Paris is said to exceed every thing of the kind in Europe, whether ancient or modern; this is at least the opinion of the French. The structure is indeed noble, it consisting of two faces of an extraordinary height, with three portals, after the manner of the ancient and modern Romans. The orders of the columns are finely designed, and the captives and trophies with which this structure is adorned are executed in the most admirable manner. On this arch is placed the king's statue on horse-back. The whole was done from the design of the famous Perault.

The other gates of the city and triumphal arches are all pompous pieces of architecture: that of St. Denis, leading to the square of the same name, is above seventy feet high, and as many over, adorned with columns, bas-reliefs, and trophies, with some inscriptions relating to the passage of the French over the Rhine, and their taking of Maestricht. The gate of St. Martin is fifty feet high and as many wide, and has on each side an inscription relating to the actions of Lewis XIV. The third gate is that of St. Anthony, erected in the reign of Henry II. but repaired and embellished by the city, with some inscriptions in honour of Lewis XIV.

Among the things worthy of observation at Paris is the fair of St. Germain, which begins on the third of February, and holds all Lent. The place where it is kept is a large square building, which has six or seven rows of shops, wherein the customers play at dice when they come to buy goods; for they are first cheapened and bought, and then the people play who shall pay for them. The greatest gaming is after candle-light, and sometimes the king himself comes hither to play. Here is a celebrated picture of our Saviour's ascension, with St. Peter, St. Paul, and two angels in the same piece, the work of Antonio Moro: the frame, which is curiously carved and richly gilt, is valued at two hundred pistoles.

On the river Seine are a great number of pleasure-boats belonging to the king and persons of quality, in which they sometimes take the amusement of sailing on the water, for the sake of the air. The water of this river generally looks green and dirty, which is not to be wondered at, as it is commonly filled with covered barges full of washer-women cleaning their linen: yet it is carried in pails through many of the streets, and sold as milk is in London. It is a common observation, that the French women are the worst laundresses in Europe: they wash their linen in cold water in the river, and as to ironing and plaiting, they have not the least notion of it. There are here indeed some English women, who will finish them pretty neatly, but not so white as in England, which may in a good measure be owing to the water.

At Paris are several courts whose jurisdiction extends very far. The principal of these are the parliament, which is the last resort in all causes where the crown does not interpose; a general court of the justices in eyre, a court of the constables and marshals of France; a court of the admiralty; the bailiwick of the palace; the court of the chatelet, or the ordinary court of justice for the civil government of the city, of which the provost, or mayor, with the four echevins, or aldermen, and twenty-six counsellors, are judges; an election, a salt office; a court of the warren of the Louvre, established for the preservation of the game six leagues round Paris, and to prevent people from hunting in those limits without leave; the court of the Hôtel de Ville, or town-house, which takes an account of the city rents, and of the taxes on all provisions brought into Paris; and the court of the consuls, which takes cognizance of every thing relating to commerce.

The French condemn malefactors to the gallies, to the gibbet, and to what is called being broke alive upon the wheel: the last is used only in case of murder; but if the evidence leaves only some room to doubt the guilt of the person accused, he is, as in many other countries, cruelly put to the torture to obtain a confession: and here it must be observed, that malefactors in France receive their sentence on their knees; which is no sooner pronounced than the hangman ties a rope about their necks, and

conveys them to prison, whence, after confession, they are generally dragged immediately to the gallows. The common place of execution is the Greve, the square in which stands the town-house; and we shall now give the manner wretches are broke, as it is called, on the wheel, which we shall take from Mr. Stephens's Travels through France. "In the middle of the square, says he, a scaffold was erected; and at half an hour after four the prisoner was brought to it in a cart, attended by the city guard, walking two and two, a priest accompanying the dying man. On the scaffold was erected a large cross, exactly in the form of that commonly represented for St. Andrew's. The executioner and his assistants placed the prisoner on it, in such a manner, that his arms and legs were extended agreeably to the form of the cross, and strongly tied down. Under each arm, leg, &c. was cut a notch in the wood, as a mark where the executioner might with the greater facility break the bone. He held in his hand an iron bar, not unlike an iron crow, and in the first place broke his arms, then in a moment after both his thighs. It was dreadful to see the poor wretch writhe his body with agony, and to observe the distortions of his face. It was a considerable time before he expired, and it would have been longer, had not the executioner given him what is called the *coup de grace*, or merciful stroke, on his stomach, which at once put an end to his misery. They then took the dead body from the cross, and put it on a wheel, fixed to a long pole, where he was exposed for some time; and this part of the ceremony occasions the common expression of being broke upon the wheel, though it is performed on a cross."

The trade of Paris with the other parts of the kingdom is very extensive. Their commerce with foreigners is also considerable; for it is observed, that one single branch, that of the gold, silver, and silk stuffs manufactured at Paris, is equal to the whole trade carried on at Lyons. They have here likewise manufactories of all other sorts of stuffs, of looking-glasses, and almost every necessary for the support and convenience of life.

There are in this city six principal companies of tradesmen, out of which the consuls, who have the regulation of trade, are chosen; these are the drapers, the grocers and apothecaries, the mercers and jewellers, the skinners, the hatters and goldsmiths: besides which there are the booksellers, the vintners and wine-merchants, the wool-merchants and timber-merchants: but though these are esteemed inferior to the others, they have the same privileges, and are capable of being elected consuls.

The land in the neighbourhood of this capital is in general flat and even, intermixed, however, with a few eminences. Towards the north of Paris the soil is fat, and produces a great quantity of very good corn. On the other side it is sandy, marshy, and wet. The whole is, however, cultivated with great care and industry; and the people have carried the art of gardening to such perfection, that in the midst of winter they raise all those sorts of kitchen stuff that seem to be the produce of summer only. Within the election of Paris they make one year with another about sixteen thousand hogsheds of wine, which is all drank at Paris, or in its neighbourhood.

This city has undergone the fate of most others; it has been several times besieged, twice burnt, and once considerably damaged by an inundation of the Seine. Henry VI. king of England, was crowned here, and his court was kept with great state and magnificence at the Louvre in 1422. On the twenty-first of August, 1572, it was in a most detestable manner stained with the blood of six thousand protestants; the signal for this most horrible massacre being given by the tolling of the great bell, which is still to be seen in the tower of the palace where the parliament sits. In the civil war Paris took part with the leaguers, and was besieged in the years 1589 and 1590 in vain by king Henry III. and IV. but in 1594 readily opened its gates to the latter, after his coronation.

In the neighbourhood of Paris are several palaces and little towns included under the same government, the principal of which are the following:

The wood of Vincennes reaches almost to the gates of Paris, and is inclosed round with a wall. Within this wood, at the distance of three miles to the east of Paris, is a royal palace, or castle, which was considerably improved and beautified by Francis I. Henry II. Lewis XIII. and XIV. It is an oblong square building, encompassed with dry ditches, which are lined and pretty deep. The castle is composed of several square towers, the highest of which is called the Donjon, and is surrounded with a particular ditch, over which there is a draw-bridge. The chapel, though in the Gothic taste, is not without beauty, it being adorned with several pyramids and other ornaments; and the pictures on the windows are highly valued. The rooms within the palace are beautiful and stately, and the cieling adorned with paintings.

The gate through which you enter the park is a fine piece of architecture, in the form of a triumphal arch, adorned with columns and statues, and stands in the middle of a large court, on each side of which is a fine suite of buildings, and an open gallery supported by rustic arches.

At the entrance of the park is a place where they used formerly to keep wild beasts, as lions, tygers, and leopards. This park takes up fourteen hundred and sixty-seven acres. The avenue leading to the palace has four rows of elms planted on a spot which has been made level for that purpose, they having been obliged to support it in several places by means of high and thick walls. This palace, or castle, has sometimes served as a prison for persons of the highest rank, and princes of the blood, when they have incurred the sovereign's displeasure.

About three miles to the west of Paris is the royal palace of Madrid, in the wood of Boulogne. This palace was built by Francis I. in 1529, after the model of the palace of Madrid in Spain. It consists of a suite of buildings three stories high, besides the ground-floor, and round it is a gallery reaching to the top of the first floor, supported by coupled columns. The arches have an ornament of a singular kind, they being incrustated with a sort of tiles that glisten very much when the sun shines upon them. The principal building is flanked on each side by two large pavilions, at the angles of which there are smaller ones. In the middle of the fronts of each of the large pavilions is a round tower, the top of which is in the form of a dome. The whole is surrounded with a narrow ditch.

Ruel is a small town on the Seine, five miles from Paris, where is a very handsome church, and some elegant gentlemen's houses; but it is principally noted for a seat built by cardinal Richelieu, which, though not magnificent, is admired for its neatness, and its being adorned with very beautiful gardens in the Italian taste, and curious water-works.

St. Maur de Fosse, on the river Marne, over which is a stone bridge, is about two leagues to the east of Paris. Here is an ancient abbey of St. Maur, which was secularized in 1535, and afterwards changed into a collegiate church of canons. Here is also a very fine seat, with beautiful gardens, belonging to the duke of Bourbon.

Conflans is a fine seat thus called, from its being near the confluence of the Seine and the Marne. It owes its beauty both to nature and the elegant taste of Francis de Harlay, archbishop of Paris: it belongs to that metropolitan's see, and is the country seat of the archbishops. The rooms within are extremely magnificent, especially the gallery, which is adorned with pictures done by the best masters. The gardens are very beautifully laid out, and adorned with statues, walks, water-works, groves, and other proper embellishments.

S E C T. XXX.

Of the Government of the Isle of France; its Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a particular Description of the Palaces of Versailles, Trianon, Marly, Fontainebleau, Meudon, St. Cloud, and the principal Cities.

THE government round the Isle of France is bounded on the north by Picardy, on the west by Normandy, on the south by the Orleanois, and on the east

by that of Champagne, extending about ninety miles in length, and as much in breadth.

The air is temperate, and the soil fertile; it therefore abounds in corn, wine, and fruit, and is divided into several small districts.

In describing the places in this government we shall begin with the palaces, these having a nearer relation to the subject of the last section.

The palace of Versailles, which lies four leagues to the south-west of Paris, stands on a rising ground in the midst of a country fit for hunting, and abounding with game. Lewis XIII. built a castle here, to serve as a hunting-seat; but Lewis XIV. being much pleased with the situation, converted the village into a fine town, and the castle into the most noble palace in the world. The side fronting the stables is not answerable in magnificence to the rest; but that facing the gardens is extremely beautiful. Its roof glittering with gold, affords a noble prospect at a distance, and the gardens, statues, canals, groves, grottos, fountains, and other water-works, far surpass any thing of the kind to be seen in Italy; and its riches and beauty within are altogether answerable to its outside.

The avenue leading to the castle divides the town into two parts; that which stands on the left hand, in coming from Paris, is called Old Versailles, and that on the right the New Town. The palace, which is seated on an eminence in the midst of a valley, is encompassed with hills. On the side towards Paris is a fine avenue of elms, the vista in the middle being sixty feet wide, and those on the sides thirty each. The end of the great royal square is encompassed with regular pavilions built by the princes and lords of the court; these, with other fine houses, form the new town. This square has a fountain in the middle of it, with walks like those leading to it.

From thence you ascend the great court of the palace, which is 480 feet long, with four large pavilions at the corners for officers lodgings. The great court is inclosed with an iron balustrade, and two large buildings, that form the wings on each side, having balconies supported by columns and adorned with fine statues. These wings, together with the pavilions, serve for offices to the palace, and have courts with other buildings behind them. There are other double apartments, which, joining those wings, form a communication between the new and old castle, and contracting the upper part of the great court end gracefully at the small one.

Out of this court is an ascent of three marble steps into a large landing place, and from thence by five more, into the little court paved with black and white marble. In the middle is a marble fountain and basin, with statues of gilt copper. The front and wings are of brick and free-stone, adorned with marble busts and brackets. Before this front is a balcony supported by eight marble columns of the Doric order, with red and white spots like jasper, and their bases and capitals of white marble. In the two angles of the wings in the front are hanging pedestals, which support two closets encompassed with gilt iron cases; and underneath are two basins of white marble in the form of shells, where young Tritons spout water. The middle building has three gilt iron doors in the porch, with apartments on the right and left.

In coming out of the great court, and passing through an open porch, you ascend by a large stair-case eighty-one feet long, and thirty broad. From this porch there is an entrance into two painted halls. The cieling of one of them is supported by eight marble columns of the Doric order, that have red and white veins; the capitals and bases are of a greenish colour, and the columns, being four on a side, divide the hall into three parts. On the sides opposite to each column are pilasters of the same marble, that support a cornice under the platform, and fronting the windows are niches with statues.

Next to this is another hall supported by twelve columns of the Ionic order, with marble pilasters behind them, that have red, black, violet, and yellow veins; and their capitals and bases are of fine white marble. From this you enter another hall of the same dimensions, whose cieling is an octagon, with twelve double pedestals by the windows and doors, of fine marble, on which

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are placed figures of the twelve months, represented by winged young men in gilt copper. The pieces over the doors and windows are of a white or flame-coloured marble. Upon one side of this hall is the chamber and closet of the baths. All the parts that are not hung with tapestry are lined with marble, and the nearer you come to the king's apartments, the more sumptuous are the marbles, sculptures, and paintings.

The like order is observed in the upper apartments, which are eight on a floor, adorned with different sorts of marble and curious paintings. The guard hall is ornamented with marble that has black and yellow veins. In the other apartments is a marble with green veins, and others are lined with a fine marble called agate, brought from the Alps. On the side towards the green-house are other lodgings in the same order, with an apartment for the dauphine, under that of the queen, the cieling of which is curiously adorned. The queen's apartments are a suite of rooms that have the same dimensions with the king's; but of different workmanship; the paintings on the cielings represent the actions of the ancient heroes.

Opposite to the front of the palace is a large plat in the garden, one hundred yards long, and twelve broad: the principal front looks towards a piece of water, and has three balconies, supported by four columns each, and a figure upon every column representing a month of the year, and these balconies are richly adorned with statues.

It would take up a volume to describe the vast variety of paintings and statues with which the apartments of this palace are adorned. The royal cabinet for medals, coins, paintings, and the like curiosities, had the choice of all that Italy could afford. The king's lodgings are enriched with utensils of massy plate, even to the bedsteads, balustrades, and rails. The gallery towards the side of the garden is perhaps the noblest ever beheld, for its delightful prospect; with the fine statues and looking glasses placed between the pannels of the windows. The chapel, built in 1699, is a most finished piece of architecture, sculpture, and painting, performed by the most eminent masters.

Every room has a particular name taken from the principal object painted on the cieling; for instance, the hall of Plenty, from Plenty and Liberality being painted on the cieling. Here are several pictures of the Holy Virgin; one on a column of jasper, holding the infant Jesus, and surrounded with several pilgrims, done by Poussin; the Virgin Mary and St. Joseph flying into Egypt, by Guido, &c. The saloon of Venus has that goddess painted on the cieling, seated in a chariot drawn by doves, the gods and heroes adorning her triumph. Here are pictures of Nebuchadnezzar, who gives orders in relation to the gardens of Babylon; of Augustus exhibiting a chariot race in the circus; of Cyrus reviewing his army; and of Alexander marrying Roxana.

The hall of war has the cieling adorned with five pictures, the largest of which, in the middle, represents France holding a thunder-bolt in one hand, and a buckler in the other; the four others are on the sides of it: the first is Bellona in a violent rage; the second represents Germany in vain endeavouring to defend the Imperial crown; in the third Spain seems to threaten France; but her soldiers are put to flight: the fourth shews Holland thrown back upon her lion. This room is also adorned with six heads of the Roman emperors in porphyry; the drapery of the busts is of gilt brass, and they are placed on pedestals of oriental alabaster.

The king's bed-chamber is more magnificent than any of the rest; the carvings are all gilt, on a white ground. The bed is placed in an alcove, where two figures of Fame, who are represented sitting, seem to watch for the preservation of the king. The furniture of the bed is of crimson velvet, embroidered with gold, and the chamber is adorned with several fine pictures.

The gardens are no less magnificent than the palace. In descending from the terrace you see two basons which contain several water-spouts, and in the midst of each, a collection of spouts in the form of a wheat-sheaf, that rises twenty-nine feet high. The borders of these basons are each adorned with eight groups of brazen figures,

representing river gods and nymphs; and four others of the same metal representing Cupids, little nymphs, and genii. In two angles of that parterre are two other basons of marble, where the water is thrown into two sheets, that have a fine effect, and on the borders of the basons are groups of animals in brass. From this parterre you see in a kind of crescent which is below it, the bason of Latona, round which are represented a groupe of three figures, Latona, Apollo, and Diana. Latona here seems to complain to Jupiter of the cruelty of the peasants of Lycia, who are represented as metamorphosed into frogs, which throw a vast quantity of water upon the groupe.

There are several other basons with jets, and other curious water-works, a particular description of which would carry us too far; we shall therefore only mention the famous canal, at one end of which is a bason of an octagonal figure, four hundred and twenty feet in diameter; four of its sides are circular, three in straight lines, and the other joins the canal. In two of the angles of this bason is a sea-horse with a Triton on his back. The great canal is thirty-two fathoms broad, and eight hundred long, including the basons at each end. In the middle it is crossed by another canal about five hundred and twenty fathoms in length. Upon these canals the court sometimes divert themselves in yachts and galleys.

The orangery, or green-house, is a master-piece in its kind. It has a southern exposure, and contains first a large gallery, four hundred and eight feet long, with twelve arched windows in the front; and on each side are two others, each three hundred and sixty feet long. These galleries are adorned on the outside with fine rows of columns. Before this green-house is a beautiful parterre, with a fine bason in the middle, from which a spout of water rises forty feet high. It is embellished with four rows of columns, of the Tuscan order, groupes of stone figures beautifully carved, vases, statues of white marble, &c. In summer this parterre seems a forest of orange and lemon trees, myrtles, &c.

The labyrinth is a fine grove, the several walks of which are so interwoven with each other, that it is very difficult for a person who enters it without a guide, not to lose himself. At the entrance are two statues, the one of Æsop, the other of Cupid holding a clue of thread in his hand. At every turning of the alleys you meet with a beautiful fountain, in a bason of fine shell-work, where one of Æsop's fables is very naturally represented; the subject of which is expressed in four lines, engraved in gold letters on a brass plate with a black ground.

Here are a great number of other groves, all beautifully adorned, and at one end of the garden is the place where they breed a variety of foreign beasts and birds.

In the park of Versailles is another palace, called Trianon, situated at one end of the canal which crosses the large one. This is both genteel and magnificent; the architecture and ornaments are in an exquisite taste, and the front about sixty-four fathoms broad. The court before it is adorned with a fine peristyle, supported by marble columns and pilasters. The two wings are terminated by two pavilions, and over the whole building is a balustrade adorned with statues, urns, &c. In the apartments are fine pictures, and the furniture is very sumptuous. The gardens are here also embellished with fine basons, cascades, and groupes of figures, done by the best masters.

In a park contiguous to Versailles is another royal seat, called Marly, delightfully situated in a little valley, with a very fine prospect of the castle of St. Germain, and of the neighbouring country. On coming from St. Germain to this palace, you enter first a round court, three hundred feet in diameter, where stands the guard room, and where terminate the several courts for stables, coach-houses, &c. The palace consists of a large pavillion, standing detached from any other, as also of twelve smaller ones, six on each side: the outside of the great one is adorned with paintings in fresco. The steps are embellished with figures of sphinxes, groups of children, vases, and the like.

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In the great hall are sixteen pilasters, fine looking-glasses, and pictures; and in the king's apartments, and those of the royal family, are beautiful pieces of painting, representing the sieges which Lewis XIV. carried on in person. The small pavilions are joined to each other by arches, through each of which you enter a little arbour. In these small pavilions are apartments for persons of quality.

In the gardens is a large cascade, which is properly a river falling from a very high place, and forming very beautiful sheets of water. At the bottom are several basons, adorned with groupes, statues, &c. The side of the parterre, fronting the large pavilion, presents a most extensive and beautiful prospect. From this parterre you descend to another, adorned with marble statues, and a bason in the middle, which has a number of water-spouts, forming a wheat-sheaf. Beyond this is a large bason surrounded with walks and grass-plats. In going still farther down, you meet with two other basons, embellished with shell-work and groupes of figures, in white marble. The water falling out of these basons, forms several sheets, and enters another below. Among the other pieces of water, is another cascade, which falls from a steep hill into a large bason, in the middle of which is a small one of gilt brass, supported by three Tritons of the same metal.

The hydraulic engine of Marly for raising of water, stands on the river Seine, and is composed of fourteen wheels turned by the current, which set two hundred and twenty-five pumps going at once, throwing up the water into a tower at the distance of six hundred and ten fathoms from the river. Thence the water runs into an aqueduct three hundred and thirty fathoms in length, and from thence is conveyed through iron pipes of eighteen inches bore into the reservoirs of Marly, which are three hundred and fifty fathoms farther, and these again supply all the water-works of Marly and Versailles.

Fontainebleau is but a mean town, though it has a particular sub-governor, a royal prevoté, and a forest court. It is thirty-five miles to the south-east of Paris, and is solely remarkable for its royal palace, in which the French kings have taken great delight, it being well situated for a hunting seat. Though it consists of several sets of buildings added to one another at different times, without any order or symmetry, which constitute a confused mass of various kinds of architecture, yet this very confusion has an air of grandeur, which strikes the eye. Its situation is in a bottom, and it is surrounded by a large forest; but the neighbouring hills are crowned with bare rocks. As the forest abounds with game, the court frequently takes the diversion of hunting in it.

The largest room of this palace is that where plays are acted when the court is here. In this room is a large chimney built by Henry IV. twenty-three feet high, and twenty wide, adorned with four lofty Corinthian columns of spotted marble, with the bases and capitals of white marble. In the midst of the chimney-piece is a table of black marble, on which stands the equestrian statue of the last mentioned prince; underneath are two basso relievos, one representing the battle of Ivry, and the other the surrender of the city of Mante. Two marble statues, representing Loyalty and Peace, stand on each side of this figure, and facing the chimney is a noble theatre for the acting of plays.

The room in which the king dines in public has a very fine ceiling, and noble pictures representing Fortitude, Temperance, Justice, and Prudence, with several other subjects. The other rooms are also adorned with paintings.

The galleries of this palace are likewise very fine. Among the rest the stag-gallery, along the orangery, is particularly worthy of notice, it being adorned with paintings of all the royal palaces, between which are flags heads set off with branches of a very uncommon size. Under each stag's head is an inscription, shewing in what wood, and by what king the stag was killed. Thus many of them are introduced speaking, and very politely saying, king Charles, or Lewis, did me the honour of taking me. In the gallery of Diana is the pic-

ture of Henry the Great in a hunting-dress; and the different kinds of hunting in which he delighted, are represented in several paintings twelve feet high, and twenty broad.

Near this gallery is the aviary, which is extremely large and beautiful, it being ninety feet in length, and nine in breadth. In the middle is a large dome, under which is an artificial rock, made of shell-work, from which issue several springs, the water running through many little channels made in the stone pavement along the whole aviary.

The gardens are adorned with statues and fountains, the largest of which stands in the middle of the garden, and is called the fountain of the Tiber, from that river being represented in brass. Beyond it are a grotto and cascades, and at the entrance of the park is a fine canal six hundred fathoms long, and twenty broad; it is all lined with stone, and has a fountain at each end. Nothing can be more rural and delightful than the alleys of this park, they being all of a vast length.

Mudon, in Latin Moldunum, a market town, five miles to the south-east of Paris, remarkable for the royal palace erected there, the favourite residence of the only son of Lewis XIV. It stands in the middle of a forest, and has a noble avenue leading to it, three quarters of a mile in length, on the right of which is a fine convent belonging to the Capuchins, and on the left the vineyards of Mudon. At the entrance of the court of the palace is a large pile of buildings on the right, and another on the left, which open in the form of a semicircle; but are disjoined from the body of the house. In the middle of the front is a lofty advanced building, entered by three doors. Above it runs an order of architecture, consisting of arches and columns finely designed. Above them is another order accompanied with pilasters; over all is a fountain containing two statues in a cumbent posture, admirably well finished. The wings are not so high as the principal building, and each of them is terminated by a square pavilion.

The inside of this palace was adorned with the richest furniture, and a fine collection of statues, paintings, medals, and other antiquities. The front towards the garden also consists of a lofty advanced building, with wings considerably lower, which terminate on the right and left in two pavilions of the same height as the body of the building. The gardens are much admired for their fine walks, parterres, and water-works, and adjoining to them is a spacious park encompassed with a brick wall, and adorned with woods, basons, and reservoirs of water; the woods being cut through, and divided by beautiful avenues, among which is one distinguished by the name of the Dauphin, which leads to the gates of Paris.

Near Mudon are some excellent stone quarries.

St. Cloud, a borough, seated four miles from Paris, on an eminence near the Seine, and belonging to the archbishop of Paris. This place is a duchy and peerage, the archbishop bearing the title of duke and peer of St. Cloud. In it is a collegiate church, one convent, and a fine palace belonging to the duke of Orleans, adorned with very beautiful galleries, containing fine paintings and sculptures, and the garden belonging to it abounds with fountains, cascades, delightful parterres, with every thing that can please the eye. This place is much resorted to by the inhabitants of Paris, on account of its extraordinary pleasantness. It has a manufactory of porcelain, and a fine bridge of stone over the Seine. Here Henry III. was murdered in 1589.

Senlis, a city seated on an eminence on the little river Nonett, twenty miles to the north-west of Paris, in a district called Valois. It is the residence of a governor, a district court, and a salt office. In this city and its three suburbs are six parish churches; among which is the cathedral, which has a steeple that is one of the highest in France, and the figures which adorn the front of the right wing of this church are very curious. Here are also a collegiate church, and a royal chapel. Its bishop is subject to the archbishop of Rheims, and has within his diocese one hundred and seventy-seven parishes, forty-four chapels of ease, three abbies, nine priories with nineteen infirmaries, and his annual revenue

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amounts to eighteen thousand livres, out of which he pays to the court of Rome one thousand two hundred and fifty-four florins. The city has its own laws, and is defended by a wall, a dry moat, and bastions.

Soissons, the capital of a district called the Soissonnois, and of the whole government, is seated in a pleasant and fruitful valley, on the river Aisne, sixty miles to the north-east of Paris. It is a pretty large well built town, and gives the title of Count. It is the residence of a governor-general, and the seat of a generalité, an intendant, a board of the finances, a salt-office, a court of justice, a forest-court, &c. In this city, besides the cathedral, which has one of the most considerable chapters in the kingdom, are three collegiate churches, one college of the fathers of the Oratory, six abbeys, several convents, a French academy, and an ancient castle. Its bishop is subject to the archbishop of Rheims, in whose absence he performs the ceremony of the king's coronation; he has three hundred and ninety-seven parishes, and twenty-three abbeys within his diocese, which produces a revenue of eighteen thousand livres, out of which he pays the court of Rome's taxation of two thousand four hundred florins. Several councils have been held here.

St. Denis, a town seated in a fruitful level country, in the isle of France Proper, five miles to the north-west of Paris, owes its origin to a celebrated abbey of Benedictines, founded there by king Clotaire, in honour of St. Denis, so early as the year 600, but greatly improved by his son Dagobert. The abbey is now rebuilt with the finest free-stone, and has a garden laid out in a most elegant taste. The church, though Gothic, is a handsome structure, and not only contains a very rich treasury, in which are kept the crown jewels; but is likewise the place of interment for the kings of France and their families; but no tombs have been erected here, for Henry IV. or any of the succeeding kings. The famous marshal de Turenne has a noble monument here erected by the king's order, in a marble chapel built on purpose, where his effigy lies at full length, surrounded with laurels and trophies, and a Roman eagle retreating backwards at the sight of so formidable an enemy. Immortality, with a radiant crown on her head, holds in one hand a crown of laurel, while she supports with the other the dying hero. Wisdom and Valour are also represented in their proper attitudes: the former seems astonished at the stroke which deprives France of that great man, and the latter appears in consternation. On the altar in this abbey is a cross, said to be of massy gold, seven feet high, set with diamonds and rich pearls, and by it a table of gold; the altar is plated over with silver. The present income of the abbey is sixty thousand livres, together with the lordship of the town, and appeals from his court lie only to the parliament of Paris. Besides this church here are thirteen others, among which is the collegiate church of St. Paul, and five convents.

Noyon, a very ancient, pretty large, and well built city, in the district called Noyonnois, on the little river Verre, twenty-two miles to the north-west of Soissons. It is the residence of a governor, and has a salt-office, a forest-court, &c. Besides its cathedral and a royal chapel, it has ten parish churches, two abbeys, two convents, one community, one seminary, and two hospitals. Its bishop, who is also suffragan to the archbishop of Rheims, is a count and a peer of France: his diocese consists of four hundred and fifty parishes, and seventeen abbeys; and his revenue amounts to twenty-five thousand livres, out of which he pays three thousand florins to the court of Rome. The principal trade of this city consists in corn. Here the celebrated Calvin was born. This city has been several times destroyed by fire.

Laon, a city in the district called the Laonnois, stands on a steep eminence in the midst of a large plain twenty miles to the north-east of Soissons. It is well built, and has an old castle, and beautiful streets. It has a governor, a salt-office, a forest-manor, and a court of justice. Besides its cathedral, it has three collegiate churches, five abbeys, two convents, a college maintained at the expence of the city, one general hospital, and an alms-house. Its bishop, who is subject to the archbishop of Rheims, is the second duke and peer of France. Within

his diocese are three hundred parishes, and twenty-four abbeys. His revenue amounts to thirty thousand livres, out of which he pays four thousand florins to the court of Rome. The neighbouring country produces excellent wine.

Beauvais, a city in the district of Beauvaisis, is seated on the river Teraine, sixteen leagues to the north of Paris, and is almost surrounded with hills. Cæsar having besieged and taken this town, is said to have given it the name of Cæsaromagnus. It is fortified, but is of no great strength, it being commanded by the neighbouring mountains. Its cathedral, dedicated to St. Peter, is a magnificent building; it has also six collegiate churches, thirteen parish-churches, three abbeys, a general hospital, and an alms-house. It has likewise a manor-court, which, together with the forest-court, are dependent on the bishop. It has likewise a province-court, and a salt-house. The bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Rheims, is a count and peer of France, and has a diocese consisting of twelve chapters, fourteen abbeys, forty-eight priories, four hundred and forty-two parishes, and three hundred chapels, with an annual revenue amounting to fifty-five thousand livres, out of which he pays a taxation of four thousand six hundred florins to the court of Rome. In this city is a considerable manufacture of tapestry, and in it are also made great quantities of serge and woollen cloth.

The English besieged this city in vain in 1443, and in 1472 it made a brave defence against Charles duke of Burgundy, when the women signalized their courage under the conduct of a brave heroine named Joan Hachet, whose picture they preserve in the town-house; and in memory of this action the women are allowed to march first in a procession annually observed on the tenth of July. The adjacent country abounds in corn, pasture, and fruit, and affords some of the best mutton in France.

St. Germain's, or St. Germain en Laye, a well inhabited town, is seated on an eminence along the Seine, ten miles to the north-west of Paris, and has very good air and water. The English destroyed a palace which stood here in 1346; but a new building being raised by Francis I. it afterwards received the name of the Old Palace, to distinguish it from one built there by Henry IV. which was called the New. Lewis XIII. added some considerable embellishments to it, and Lewis XIV. enlarged it by the addition of five stately pavilions, whence, though it is no regular building, it makes a grand appearance. The New Palace, as it is called, fronts the Old, and stands on the brow of a hill, with a garden of six beds of earth supported by arches sloping into the valley. This building is a true image of the transitoriness of all sublunary things, the galleries in it being turned into granaries, and the paintings scarce distinguishable for filth. The very alcove in which Lewis XIV. was born is now a dust-hole, and the grand stair-case leading into the garden is wholly in ruins, while the arches for the beds in the garden are in many places sunk into the ground. The Old Palace was the residence of James II. after his flight from England, and here too he died. The streets of the town are well paved, the houses are lofty and handsome, with some large squares and hôtels, though it has only one parish-church, three convents, and an hospital.

St. Cyr, a convent of nuns of the order of St. Augustine founded in 1686 by madame de Maintenon, mistress, if not the secret consort of Lewis XIV. of which she herself was abbess till the fifteenth of April, 1719, when she died. It contains fifty ladies of quality, thirty-six lay-sisters, and two hundred and fifty pupils, who must be between the age of seven and twelve; but must prove their nobility for four generations, and have no defect in body or mind. Here they continue till they are twenty years of age, when such of them as are disposed to be nuns are distributed among the royal abbeys, where they are admitted gratis: the others are married to gentlemen, with a portion of four hundred pistoles, besides a certainty of preferment to the bridegroom; or else they are sent back to their parents. On the death of any one of the fifty ladies, her place is filled up by election from among the young ladies. The thirty-six lay-sisters instruct them in every branch of education becoming their sex. This foundation

foundation has an annual revenue of a hundred and eighty thousand livres, a hundred thousand of which arise from the extinction of the abbey of St. Denis, exclusive of its lands and immoveables. The convent is a very spacious and splendid structure.

S E C T. XXXI.

Of the Government of Brittany; its Situation, Extent, History, Produce, and principal Cities, namely Rennes, Nantz, St. Malo's, and Brest; with a concise Description of Belleisle.

THE province of Brittany, called by the French Bretagne, is a kind of peninsula surrounded on the south and west by the Atlantic ocean; on the north by the British channel; but towards the east it joins Normandy, Maine, Anjou, and Poitou. Its greatest length from east to west is sixty leagues, and its greatest breadth forty-five, but in many places it is very narrow. It received its name from the old Britons, who being driven out of Britain about the middle of the fifth century, by the Angles and Saxons, crossed the Channel into Gaul, and, after wandering about for some time, settled in this province, to which they at length gave their name. In succeeding times the Britons were obliged to submit to the kings of the Franks. Charles the Great had a fleet here to act against the Normans, and under his successors, Numenius, a chief of the Britons, created himself king; but his second successor was taken off by some conspirators, who made themselves masters of the country under the title of counts. The Normans afterwards reduced the country, but were unable to keep the quiet possession of it; but at length Conan, count of Brittany, married his only daughter Constantia to Gottfried, count of Anjou, the son of Henry II. of England, and duke of Normandy; and the daughter and heiress of this Constantia marrying Peter of Dreux, Brittany fell to the royal family of France, Peter being a prince of the blood. It was then governed by the dukes of Brittany, and at length, by marrying their daughters to the kings of France, it became united to that crown in the year 1532.

This province contains some very good harbours, but has few navigable rivers, except the Loire and Villaine. The country is in some parts level, and in others mountainous, particularly in Upper Brittany, through which runs a chain of mountains called Mont Acre. It produces little corn and wine, but its extensive and fruitful pastures enable the inhabitants to carry on a profitable trade in butter. It also produces hemp and flax, of which are made great quantities of linen and sail cloth. At Carnot is a lead mine; but the lead found in it is not near so good as that of England. Some places in the diocese of Nantes also yield pit-coal; but that also is much inferior to the English. Horses likewise are another branch of the trade of this country. On the coast are taken great numbers of sardines and other fish.

The inhabitants on the sea-shore are excellent mariners. In Upper Brittany they speak French; but in Lower Brittany Welsh.

This country has its own parliament, which is held at Rennes; as also its own laws and particular states, the latter of which consist of the clergy, nobility, burghers, and peasants, who are summoned by the king every two years. The governor is likewise admiral of Brittany, and under him are two lieutenant-generals, one of whom has the superintendency of eight dioceses, and the other only of the earldom and bishopric of Nantes. Besides these there are three sub-governors. In the meeting of the states, and assessments of taxes, the country is divided according to its nine bishoprics, five of which belong to Upper and four to Lower Brittany. We shall begin with the former, the principal places in which are the following:

Rennes, the ancient Condate, the capital of the province, is seated on the river Villaine, about fifty-five miles to the northward of Nantes, and forty-five to the south of St. Malo's. It is divided by the river into two parts, which have a communication by three bridges. It is pretty large, populous, and the see of a bishop: here is

also held the parliament of the whole country, an intendancy, a country court, a forest court, and a consulate. It contains many well-built houses; but the streets are narrow, dark, and dirty. Besides the cathedral, it has eight parish-churches, and seventeen convents; the Jesuits had here a fine college, and the states of the province have erected in this city a noble statue of Lewis XV. The bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Tours, has a diocese consisting of two hundred and thirty-six parishes, with an income of fourteen thousand livres, out of which he pays a thousand florins to the court of Rome.

The bishopric of Nantes, or Nantz, includes the earldom of Nantois; which is divided by the Loire into two parts. This country is fruitful in wine, corn, good pastures, and cattle: it likewise yields salt and pit-coal, and enjoys a flourishing trade.

Nantes, or Nantz, the ancient Condivium, is in rank the second city in Brittany. It is seated on the Loire, in the forty-seventh degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the first degree thirty-two minutes west longitude, thirty-two miles to the east of the sea, and is one of the greatest trading cities in the kingdom, it being pretty large, populous, well situated, and containing four suburbs. It is surrounded with ramparts and very deep ditches. Among its other fortifications is an old castle, flanked with large round towers towards the city, and with some half-moons towards the suburbs of St. Clement. This was formerly the seat of the dukes of Brittany, to whose eldest son it gave the title of count. It is the see of a bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Tours, and by virtue of his dignity is a counsellor in the parliament of Rennes. Here is also a chamber of accounts, a board of finances, a mint-office, a country court, an admiralty, and a forest court. The diocese of the bishop consists of two hundred and twelve parishes, besides chapels of ease, and he enjoys a revenue of thirty thousand livres, out of which he pays two thousand florins to the court of Rome. The cathedral dedicated to St. Peter is a large antique structure, adorned with high towers. In it are the tombs of several dukes of Brittany: here is also a collegiate church of the Virgin Mary, with eleven parish-churches, fourteen convents, a college, an university founded about the year 1460, and two hospitals. The town-house is built in the modern taste.

Near the city of Nantz is a famous hermitage, in which the hermits have hewn a handsome chapel out of the rock with their own hands, with cells for their lodging, and other conveniences, to which they have with great labour added a pretty garden; from this retreat they have a fine prospect of the city, the Loire, and the adjacent country.

The trade of this city to the French colonies in America, and also to Spain and Portugal, is considerable, without mentioning other European shipping which frequent its port; though ships of burthen can come no farther up the Loire than to Paimboeuf, a market-town, where the cargoes are put into smaller vessels, and carried up to Nantes. An excellent sort of brandy, commonly distinguished by the name of this city, is exported from thence into foreign countries. One of the suburbs called the Fosse lies near the harbour, and is inhabited by rich merchants. Here is a large quay, along which stand very fine houses, and spacious ware-houses.

In this city is a very particular kind of society, which has been established above a hundred years between the merchants of Nantes and those of Bilboa in Spain. This society is called the Contractation, and has in each of these cities a reciprocal tribunal in the manner of a consular jurisdiction: so that a merchant of Nantes, who happens to be at Bilboa, has a right to sit and vote in that tribunal; and the merchants of Bilboa have the same privilege when they are at Nantes. It is on account of this society that Spanish wool pays only a small duty at Nantes; and that, in return, the linens of Brittany are upon the same footing at Bilboa. These two cities had even formerly ships in common, which traded for the profit of the partnership. They have established at Nantes a manufacture of cottons, which succeeds as well as that which has been long since set up at Rouen, and

may in time even exceed it, since cotton and indigo are much cheaper here than in the latter city.

Here Henry IV. surnamed the Great, by the famous edict in 1598, commonly known by the edict of Nantz, granted the Huguenots, or reformed of France, the public exercise of their religion throughout the whole kingdom; and though it had been registered in the parliament of Paris, and also confirmed and sworn to by his successors Lewis XIII. and XIV. the latter most perfidiously revoked it in 1685, cruelly persecuting his Protestant subjects, and driving them out of the kingdom. But, notwithstanding this cruel and impolitic step, there are still many Protestants, as hath been already said, though they keep themselves as much concealed as possible.

St. Malo, or St. Malo's, in Latin *Maclovium*, and *Maclopolis*, is a small but populous city, seated on a little rocky island, formerly called St. Aaron in the English Channel, in forty-eight degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and in the second degree fifteen minutes west longitude; but is joined to the continent by a long mole, not above thirty fathoms broad, at the head of which is a strong castle flanked with large towers. The harbour is spacious, and one of the best on the coast, but of difficult entrance, it being surrounded with several rocks, and at tide of ebb left almost dry, so that it will not admit large vessels, though it is very easy to build or refit such ships as can enter it. On the neighbouring rocks are ten different forts, and the town is surrounded with walls, deep ditches, and always guarded by a sufficient garrison. As soon as the gates are shut, they let loose upon the ramparts twelve or thirteen very fierce bulldogs, which would infallibly tear in pieces any person that ventured to come near them, whence it is commonly said that St. Malo is guarded by dogs, though these are only designed to prevent the garrison from being surprised. This city is also secured towards the sea by a shoal of sand that encompasses it, and, besides the rocks, by small islands; so that the harbour is esteemed one of the keys of France.

This city is very considerable, not only for its strength, but also for its trade. The inhabitants, who are sea-faring people, are famous for their skill in maritime affairs, on which account a great number of privateers are fitted out from hence in time of war, which very much disturb the trade of the Channel, and accordingly made many English captures during the reign of king William, which brought a bombardment upon the town, though it received but little damage.

But in 1758 a select body of above twenty thousand British troops under the command of the late duke of Marlborough, and a powerful squadron under commodore Howe, having landed at Cuncalle bay between the sixth and seventh of June, they burnt all the ships in the harbour to the number of a hundred, great and small; after which, finding the town impracticable, they re-embarked, and arrived soon after at Spithead, with little or no loss.

This city is the see of a bishop suffragan to the archbishop of Tours; his diocese consists of a hundred and sixty parishes; he is lord of the city, and his income amounts to thirty-five thousand livres per annum, out of which he pays a thousand florins to the court of Rome. The cathedral of St. Vincent is one of the most ancient in all France; here are also several fine monasteries, and other considerable public buildings.

Brest, in Latin *Brescia*, a famous sea-port in the bishopric of St. Pol de Leon, situated on the north side of a large and commodious harbour, which opens to the ocean in the most western part of the continent of France, about fifty miles to the north-west of Belleisle, in the forty-eighth degree twenty-five minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree thirty minutes west longitude. It is a small fortified city; the streets are narrow, and it is defended by a strong castle which stands on a rock, very steep towards the sea; and likewise by a tower opposite to the castle, which guards the entrance into the port on that side. 'Tis encompassed on the land-side with a broad ditch, and some other works. It has a spacious fine road and harbour, the latter being surrounded with very good quays, upon which are built ware-houses filled

with naval-stores of all kinds. The harbour lies between the city and the suburb of Recouvrance, which is half as big as the city. The road is extremely spacious, and might contain five hundred men of war; but the entrance to it on account of its narrowness is exceeding difficult, and particularly from the blind rocks which lie under water at high tide. This port is the most secure retreat for the French ships of war, and is the best possessed by this nation on this side the Mediterranean; whence this city is one of the grand magazines of the admiralty of France, the other being at Toulon, in the Mediterranean; and therefore in this harbour the greatest number of the French navy are fitted out. It is said that naval-stores and necessary provisions for seventy sail of men of war are constantly laid up at Brest, and ships of eighty or ninety guns are built here, which renders the place rich and populous. Here is always a strong garrison in the castle, commanded by staff-officers. Lewis XIV. caused an arsenal to be built here, and erected an academy for the marine. There is here a court of admiralty and bailiwick, with only two parish-churches, and a convent. The Jesuits, before their being expelled from France, had also a seminary here.

In the year 1694 the English made an attempt upon Brest, but the design perished; so that the avenues being defended by a numerous train of artillery, and an army superior to that of the invaders, general Talmash, who commanded the English, was mortally wounded in making the descent, and the forces were obliged to retire with loss.

Belleisle is an island about six leagues from the coast of Brittany, in the forty-fifth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the third degree five minutes west longitude. The ancients called it *Colonesus*, or the Beautiful Island, which is the signification of its present name. It is about six leagues long, two broad, and confers the title of marquis. It is surrounded on all sides with rocks, and has only three landing-places, Palais, Sauzon, and Goulsard; every one of which labours under some capital defect, either in being exposed, shallow, or dangerous at the entrance. It contains only one little city, called Palais, three country towns, a hundred and three villages, and about five thousand inhabitants. Palais, the capital, takes its name from a castle in its neighbourhood belonging to the duke of Belleisle, afterwards converted into a citadel. This fortification is strong and regular; it fronts the sea, and is composed principally of horn-works, and provided with two dry ditches, the one next the counterscarp, and the other so contrived as to secure the interior fortifications. The citadel is divided from the largest part of the town by an inlet of the sea, over which is a bridge of communication.

In the year 1759 admiral Hawke, with a squadron of English ships, off the south coast of this island, burnt, sunk, and destroyed most of the French fleet from Brest under Conflans, who was himself either mortally wounded, or lost in making his escape in his boat to shore. Two of the enemy's ships sunk to the bottom with all the men, and the shattered remains of his fleet, to the number of seven sail, ran up for shelter, after throwing their guns over-board into the river Villaine, in Brittany, and there continued disabled on account of the shallowness of the water. The English indeed lost two of their men of war by too eager a pursuit of the enemy; but though they run aground, all the crew were saved, and their loss was otherwise inconsiderable.

In April 1761, this island was attacked by an English fleet under the command of commodore Keppel, and the land forces under general Hodgson. The English fleet after landing their troops and their cannon, which was accomplished with the greatest difficulty, by dragging them up the rocks, laid siege to the city; and the garrison, commanded by the chevalier de St. Croix, a brave and experienced officer, threatened a long and obstinate defence. The enemy made some sallies, which only animated the English troops by the difficulties with which they had to contend; but at length, a furious attack being made upon the enemy's lines which covered the town, they were carried with no great loss; this was principally owing to the uncommon intrepidity of a body of new-raised marines. No action of greater spirit

and gallantry had been performed during the whole war. However, the garrison held out till the seventh of June, when they capitulated, and marched out with the honours of war. This island was kept by the English till the late peace, when it was restored to France.

S E C T. XXXII.

Of the Government of Normandy; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. A concise History of the Country, and of the principal Towns, as Caudebec, Dieppe, Rouen, Bayeux, Cherbourg, and Havre de Grace.

Normandy, which derives its name from the ancient Normans, is bounded on the east by Picardy and the isle of France; on the south by Beaufle, Perche, and Maine; on the west by Brittany; and on the north by the British Channel; extending from east to west upwards of sixty leagues, and from north to south thirty.

This is one of the most fruitful provinces in the whole kingdom, and one of the most profitable to the king. It abounds in corn, flax, hemp, and vegetables for dyeing, but the little wine it produces is very indifferent; it however yields great quantities of apples and pears, of which the natives make cyder and perry for their usual drink. It is also a fine country for cattle, it being full of excellent pastures. The sea supplies it with plenty of fish, and from its water are extracted great quantities of salt. The many iron works here are of no small advantage to the country; it has likewise some mines of copper, and is not without mineral waters.

The principal rivers in this province are the Eure, the Andelle, which rises in this province, and falling into the Seine, is of great advantage in conveying to Paris wood for firing; the Rille or Risle, which rises here, and also falls into the Seine; the Dive, which rises here, and after receiving the Vie, becomes navigable, and discharges itself into the British Channel; the Lezon which rises here, and being joined by the Orbiquet is afterwards called the Tonques, and becoming navigable, loses itself in the Channel; the Carentone, which has also its source in this province, falls into the Rille; and the Orne, which rises here, and after receiving several smaller rivers, falls into the British Channel.

The ancient dukes of this province rose to great power, both here and in foreign countries, and William, in the year 1066, became king of England. In 1135 the male line of this king became extinct in the person of Henry I. and his daughter Matilda marrying Godfrey, count of Anjou, the fruit of this marriage was Henry II. king of England, duke of Normandy, lord of Guienne, Poitou, and Saintonge. He leaving three sons, Richard, Godfrey, and John; the last of them seized on the dominions of both his brothers, and even caused Arthur, the son of Godfrey, to be taken off; for which he was deprived of most of his territories in France, and in 1203 Normandy was annexed to that crown. Henry III. of England ceded to Lewis the Pious and his successors all his claim to this province; which afterwards, to the end of the fourteenth century, some kings bestowed on their eldest sons, with the title of duke of Normandy, till that of Dauphiné was instituted. At length the animosities between the houses of Orleans and Burgundy afforded the English an opportunity of conquering not only Normandy, but a great part of France. This province was subject to England about thirty years, till at last the English were driven out by Charles VII. during the minority of that unhappy prince Henry VI.

This country is governed by its own law, which is called the *Wife*, and on this account Normandy is styled *La Pais de la Sapience*, that is, The Land of Wisdom. Rouen has a parliament, on which all the other courts of the province are dependent. With respect to its finances, it has three generalities, namely, at Rouen, Caen, and Alençon, from which the king is said to have drawn twenty millions of livres a year. Hence the government of Normandy is one of the most considerable in the whole kingdom. Under the governor are two lieutenant-generals, one for Upper and the other for

Lower Normandy; and each of the seven great districts into which the country is divided has a deputy-governor of its own. Under the archbishop of Rouen are the six bishoprics of Normandy, and these seven dioceses contain eighty abbeys and four thousand two hundred and ninety-nine parishes. The principal places in this province are the following, beginning with Upper Normandy.

Caudebec, in Latin *Calidum Beccum*, that is, the Hot Bee, is a small but populous town, seated on the river Seine, into which, near this place, falls a rivulet which runs through the town, and gives name to it. It is closely built, and has walls flanked with towers, and surrounded with deep ditches. It has three suburbs, and the small river Caudebec being divided into several canals in the town, turns a considerable number of mills, that are very serviceable to the tanners and leather-dressers settled here. In this town is a salt and treasurer's office, with a provincial, an admiralty, and a forest court. It contains two convents, one parish-church, and an hospital. Among other manufactures, the inhabitants make hats, which were formerly in great repute, on account of their not letting in the rain; but this branch of trade has greatly declined. This place is a considerable thorough-fare for such as go from Rouen to Havre de Grace, and other parts of the country of Caux, of which it is the capital.

Dieppe, a sea-port town on the shore of the British Channel, opposite to Rye, in England, and much resorted to, particularly with vessels from Scotland. It stands thirty miles to the north of Rouen, on a level spot, between two rocks, or mountains, and the mouth of the river Betune, called at this town the river of Arques, which falling into the sea forms the harbour. It is fortified with bulwarks next the sea, with a fortress at the suburb called Pollet, and a castle, which, together with the craggy rocks that lie on the south, render it a place of considerable strength, though its fortifications are very irregular. Its natural strength induced Henry the Great to choose it for his head-quarters, when opposed by the League at his accession to the throne. It has a good harbour, which is long, but narrow, and on this account of difficult access. In time of war it is generally a station for privateers; but has not a sufficient quantity of water for large ships. The town is pretty large and well built; and the parish church of St. James is a very fine structure, and has a tower from which, in fine weather, the coast of England may be seen. It contains two suburbs, and has both a salt office and a court of admiralty. It is chiefly inhabited by sea-faring men, who are esteemed very expert in maritime affairs, as also by mechanics who make curious works in ivory, and by merchants who carry on a considerable trade to foreign parts. The inhabitants were mostly Protestants till the persecution which ensued upon the revocation of the edict of Nantes.

This town has been frequently taken and retaken in the wars between England and France. In 1694 it was almost totally destroyed by bombs fired into it from the English fleet commanded by lord Berkeley; and in the wars of queen Anne it was also roughly treated, after which the court sent thither an architect and engineer who rebuilt it in a regular manner: this indeed gives the town an external air of beauty, but is attended with very great inconvenience to the inhabitants.

The chief trade of Dieppe consists in herrings, with which they furnish Paris and the province of Normandy; they also fish for whittings, mackerel, and oysters, which they sell in the neighbouring provinces; together with their ivory works and laces made here. The sea-compasses made in this town were formerly much esteemed: but its trade is not so considerable as it was formerly.

Rouen, the *Rothomagus* of the antients, afterwards called *Rothomum*, the capital of Normandy, is seated in a district called *Le Vexin Normand*, and is environed on three sides by high hills covered with trees, and on the fourth is seated on the north bank of the Seine, in the forty ninth degree thirty-six minutes north latitude, and in the first degree ten minutes east longitude. It is also watered by two little rivers called *Aubette* and *Robec*. The tide flows so high up the Seine, that vessels of above

two hundred tons burthen can come up hither, and load and unload at a large quay, which is built along the city. Its situation is so very commodious for trade, that Rouen is considered as the center of it in the north of France. It had formerly a stately stone bridge over the Seine, of thirteen arches, but it is now ruined; and there is another of boats of a very artificial structure built near it, and extending two hundred and seventy paces in length; it rises and falls with the tide, and is paved like the streets. This bridge, however, costs a great deal of money to keep it in repair; and they are obliged in winter to take it in pieces, lest the ice should damage or carry some part of it away. The city has no other fortifications but a wall, with round towers in the antique taste, and irregular bastions to defend the gates on the land-side, except an old castle which was begun in the year 1419, as soon as king Henry V. of England had made himself master of Rouen, and finished in the reign of Henry VI. in 1443. It is an antique building of little strength, flanked with five large round towers, and having a draw-bridge, the whole being encompassed with a wet ditch. In this city there is, however, no garrison, though it has a particular governor.

Rouen is very populous, for it contains seven thousand two hundred houses, in which are sixty thousand persons; but is not very spacious. The streets in general are very close and narrow, and the houses mostly of wood and plaster; it has, however, six large suburbs, in which are five parishes, and thirty in the city: it has also fifty convents, and four abbeys; the Jesuits had also a college here. Its archbishop has six suffragans, and a province of thirteen hundred and eighty-eight parish-churches, besides chapels, and his annual revenue amounts to eighty thousand livres, out of which he pays twelve thousand florins to the court of Rome. He styles himself primate of Normandy, though he has no archbishop in his province suffragan to him; but from this title he has no superior in France, and he depends immediately on the holy see. The city is adorned with many stately piles of building, among which is the cathedral dedicated to the Virgin Mary, the choir of which is lined round with copper. It has three very lofty towers, particularly that of the pyramid, the spire of which is only made of wood and covered with lead gilt. It has two hundred steps, and the whole edifice upwards of six hundred to the top. In this cathedral are to be seen the monuments of several kings, lords, and prelates; and likewise the monument of John duke of Bedford, who was regent of France under our Henry VI. In the butter tower, as it is called, which is that just mentioned, is a great bell ten feet in height, the same in diameter, and weighs thirty-six thousand pounds. On the great gate is a triumphal arch in honour of king Henry the Great, with emblems of his conquest over the holy league. The body of the church is supported by twenty pillars, and, upon the whole, this church exceeds in beauty and regularity that of Notre Dame at Paris. The other remarkable structures are the church of St. Toin, a very lofty building, chiefly famous for its great bell; the convent of the Cordeliers; the church which lately belonged to the Jesuits; the church and abbey of St. Owen; and the parliament-house; which are all beautiful structures. The archbishop's palace is also a fine building, adorned with elegant paintings and pleasant gardens. In the veal market stands the image of the celebrated maid of Orleans, whom the English had the cruelty to burn as a witch, and is represented kneeling before Charles VII. And in the New-market is the statue of Lewis XV. erected in 1721; but this is a very ordinary piece of workmanship.

The trade carried on in the city and district of Rouen is very extensive, consisting of woollen and linen cloths, leather, hats, paper, and many other merchandizes. The woollen manufactures, which employ several thousand workmen, are particularly advantageous to the whole province; but they are only so far profitable to the nation in general, as they prevent the money from being sent abroad; but the linen manufactures of various sorts exported to Spain are highly beneficial, and the returns generally made in cash.

Rouen has undergone various calamities and vicissitudes of fortune: it has been almost entirely burnt thirteen or

fourteen different times. In 841 it was taken by the Normans; the English made themselves masters of it in 1418, and in 1449 it was surrendered to Charles VII. the French king. It was afterwards stormed and taken by the French Protestants, and re-taken and plundered in 1562 under Charles IX. Anthony of Bourbon, king of Navarre, received a mortal wound before it; but his son Henry IV. took it in 1592. In this city died William I. king of England, commonly surnamed the Conqueror.

Caen, in Latin Cadomus, is situated in a district of the same name, thirty miles to the south of Havre de Grace, sixty-five to the west-by-south of Rouen, and a hundred and twenty-five to the west of Paris. It stands in a valley between two large meadows, at the confluence of the rivers Orne and Odon, by the united stream of which it is divided into the Upper and Lower Towns, that have a communication by means of the bridges of St. James and St. Peter, on the latter of which is erected a stately town-house, adorned with four large towers. The Upper Town is defended by a castle built upon a rock and very well fortified, and the Lower is entirely surrounded with water. It is a place of good trade, vessels of some burthen being able to come up from the sea to St. James's bridge, and its inhabitants are supposed to amount to forty thousand souls. It is the second town in Normandy, and contains an intendancy, an admiralty, a provincial and forest court, with a salt-office. It has twelve parish-churches, one collegiate church, two abbeys, fourteen convents, with a house which till lately belonged to the Jesuits, and two hospitals. King Charles VII. founded an university here about the year 1430, and likewise a mint. An academy of sciences and belles lettres was also established in this city by Lewis XIV. and in the Royal square, which is both spacious and regular, with fine houses on three sides of it, stands a marble equestrian statue of that prince, surrounded with an iron balustrade. The principal trade of this town and its district consists in cloth and fine linen.

Bayeux, the capital of the country of Bessin, is seated on the river Aure, fifteen miles to the north-west of Caen, and contains an admiralty, a salt office, a forest and district court, &c. It has seventeen parish-churches, nine convents, two hospitals, and a college and seminary, which lately belonged to the Jesuits. The bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Rouen, has a diocese of six hundred and fifteen parishes, with a revenue of sixty thousand livres, out of which he pays four thousand four hundred and thirty-three florins to the court of Rome. The cathedral, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, is a very stately structure, beautified with a tower and two lofty spires. The city is divided into Upper and Lower, and manufactures of cloths, serges, and stockings, were set up here, which succeeded very well; but the high taxes imposed on them, which the merchants were forced to pay, obliged them not only to abandon those manufactures, but likewise to quit the city.

Cherbourg, in Latin Cæsar's Burgus, a sea-port town in the English Channel opposite to Hampshire, is situated fifty miles to the north-west of Caen, in a district called the Coutantin, and lies between Cape La Hogue and Barfleur. It contains an admiralty, a bailiwick, and a viscounty court: it has also one abbey, and a general hospital. Here they formerly made very fine glass, which, for clearness and beauty, even excelled that of Venice; but, for certain political reasons, the work has been removed to Auxerre, in Burgundy. It was a very strong place, from the fortifications that have been lately erected there, before they were destroyed, together with the famous bason, by the English in the year 1758. The port is small but pretty good, for vessels of three hundred tons can come into it, and some merchant ships are built here.

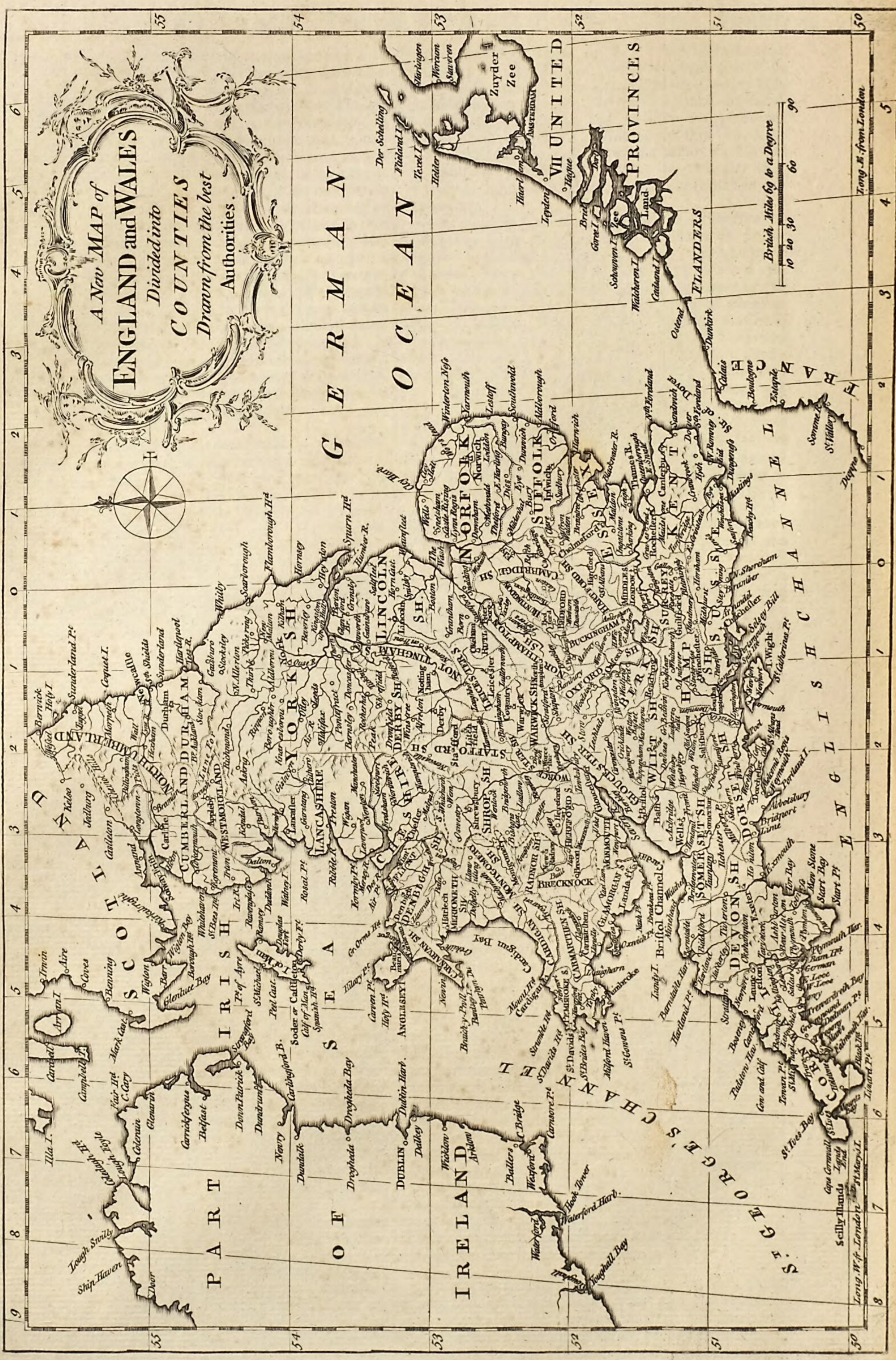
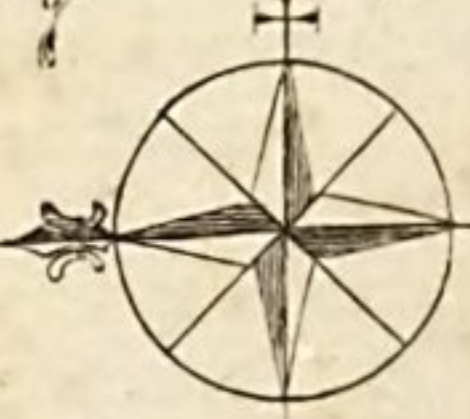
Off this place the confederate fleet, under admiral Russel, obtained a signal victory over that of the French, commanded by M. de Tourville, in 1692, and afterwards burnt, took, or sunk about twenty of their ships of war, near Cape La Hogue; among which was le Soleil Royal, or the Royal Sun, the French admiral's ship.

In the last war the British forces, under the command of the late duke of Marlborough and lord George Sackville, landed

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A New MAP of
ENGLAND and WALES
Divided into
COUNTIES
Drawn from the best
Authorities.



British Miles 60 to a Degree
10 20 30 60 90

Long. W. from London

landed here and took the town, which they entered without the least opposition in August, 1758, together with the ships in the basin; demolished the fortifications, and ruined the other works, particularly the basin and harbour, with the sluice, and all the forts, carrying away twenty-one fine pieces of brass cannon and two mortars, which were brought to England.

The district of Havre de Grace constitutes the western part of the country of the Caux, in Upper Normandy, and, though a particular military government, is subject to the civil and ecclesiastical government of this province. The principal places it contains are the following:

Havre de Grace, a strong sea-port at the mouth of the river Seine, forty-five miles to the west of Rouen, was built by Francis I. who also called it, after his own name, Ville François, whence it has been also called Franciscopolis; but this name is now superseded by the other. This is the capital and seat of its little government, and contains a naval intendant, a viscounty, an admiralty, a royal court of justice, and a salt-office; with one parish-church, one seminary, and two convents. It has a good harbour between the town and citadel, which is small but regularly fortified, and an arsenal. It is a pleasant well built town, and a place of good trade, several mer-

chants residing here. In the reign of Charles IX. it was seized by the Protestants, who in 1562 delivered it to queen Elizabeth, in consideration of the assistance that princess had given them; but the following year it was vigorously besieged by the French, and with equal courage defended by the English, under the earl of Warwick; but a pestilence, which raged in the town, forced them to surrender in July, 1563. Afterwards, in 1694, this city was almost entirely destroyed by a bombardment from an English fleet.

Harfleur, a sea-port town, forty miles to the north-west of Rouen, and about five to the west of Havre de Grace, between two hills, the one on the east, and the other on the west. It contains an admiralty court, and a salt-office: it is also the seat of a royal justice, and has a small magazine; but has only one parish church, and one convent. It was formerly a considerable port; but that of Havre being found more convenient, it has been neglected, and is now only capable of receiving small vessels. It was twice taken by the English, namely, in the years 1415 and 1440.

We shall treat of the islands on the coast of Normandy, as Alderney, Guernsey, and Jersey, in describing the opposite coast of England.

CHAP. XXIX.

OF GREAT BRITAIN.

SECT. I.

Of GREAT BRITAIN in general.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, and Face of the Country; the Plants, Fruits, Beasts, Birds, and Minerals.

GREAT Britain is the largest island in Europe, and one of the most populous, rich, and fruitful. It includes England and Scotland, which were united in 1707; only the latter reserved their peculiar laws. The whole island is of a triangular form, the Lands-end, the Dover-head, and Caithness shooting out into so many promontories, and forming the three corners. The sea its boundary has several names adapted to the several coasts; on the north it is called the Northern sea; on the east the German ocean; on the south the British Channel; and on the west the Irish sea, or St. George's Channel. Its latitude at the Lizard-point, in Cornwall, is, according to Moll, in the fiftieth degree north, and at the Headland at Caithness, or Dungsbyhead, in Scotland, in the fifty-eighth degree thirty minutes; so that, according to the geometrical measure of English statute miles, which is sixty-nine miles and eight hundred and sixty-four feet to a degree, the true length of the island, measured in a straight line, without attending to the hills and winding of the roads, is five hundred and eighty-seven miles; and the longitude, placing the first meridian at Teneriffe, is nine degrees forty-five minutes, at the Land's-end, in Cornwall, and at the South Foreland, in Kent, seventeen degrees fifteen minutes, in all seven degrees thirty minutes: the parallel there giving thirty-eight miles to a degree of longitude, the true distance from east to west in a straight line is two hundred and eighty-five miles.

The sea, which surrounds it, is not only a security against an enemy, but against the violent cold to which the climate would otherwise be exposed; for the tides and constant motion of the sea send us a kindly vapour, which qualifies the natural sharpness of the air, even to such a degree, that in some parts of France and Italy more severe weather is felt in winter than in England. The climate is indeed infinitely preferable to that of any part of the continent in the same latitude, the summers being neither so hot, nor the winters so cold. The har-

bours in Holland, Germany, and Denmark, are blocked up with ice, while ours which lie in the same latitude are open. If we pursue this observation still farther, and consider the same latitudes in America, we shall find there that in winter the very seas are constantly frozen, and that even brandy itself will freeze.

The air is generally very good and wholesome, except in the hundreds of Essex and Kent, the fens in Lincolnshire and Cambridgeshire, and some other low marshes near the sea. Though the winters are rainy and subject to thick fogs, and the weather to great variations, these do not impair the health of the inhabitants, who are accustomed to them; for they generally live as long as those of any other countries, and some die every year at above a hundred years of age. We have instances of some living even to a much longer period; thus Thomas Parr, of Shropshire, was a hundred and fifty-two years of age when he died, and Henry Jenkins, a Yorkshireman, a hundred and sixty-eight. Though the frequent rains sometimes damage the hay and corn, yet even these have their advantages, as they generally occasion our having good pastures throughout the year.

The soil, indeed, in a great measure owes its fertility to the mild vapours just mentioned, which, by mollifying the air, nourish the vegetable world, and furnish us with gentle showers in their proper season. We have, indeed, as well as other countries, storms of thunder, lightning, and tempests; but they are less frequent and much less violent than in hotter climates.

That part of Great Britain which lies towards the Western ocean is mountainous, as Cornwall, Wales, and many large tracts of Scotland; but the inner parts are generally a plain champaign country, intermixed with hills of easy ascent and gentle acclivities. The most remarkable mountain, or rather chain of mountains, as it may be termed, is a continued ridge which extends from north to south, dividing as it were the whole island into the east and west parts, and is by writers called the English Appennines. The southern and eastern parts of the country chiefly consist of little fruitful hills and vallies, champaign fields, inclosed grounds of arable, pasture, and meadow lands, agreeably intermixed with woods, forests, parks, and chaces. The highest mountains in England are the Wrekin in Shropshire, the Plinlimmon

and Snowden in Wales, the Cheviot hills on the borders of Scotland, those of the Peak in Derbyshire, the Pendle, &c. in Lancashire, the Wolds in Yorkshire, Cotswold in Gloucestershire, the Chiltern in Bucks, and Malvern in Worcestershire.

This great island is surrounded by many smaller ones, as the Isle of Wight, the Isle of Man, the cluster of islands called the Cassiterides, or Scilly islands of Cornwall, the Orcades, the Shetland islands, and Æbrides islands in Scotland.

Great Britain has on all sides very convenient harbours, and abundance of navigable rivers that convey the riches of all the nations in the known world into the very heart of the kingdom: the most considerable of these are the Thames, the Severn, and the Trent, in England; the Clyde, the Forth, the Tay, &c. in Scotland.

The country is for the most part level, and uncommonly fertile. One favourable year for corn is sufficient to supply three years of plenty to the inhabitants; and even at such times when the seasons prove unfavourable, there is generally a sufficiency, for after immoderate rains the corn sown on the hills produce great abundance, and in a time of the greatest drought the low and fenny parts produce most plentiful crops. Hence nothing can prevent that plenty which Providence has been graciously disposed to pour out on this happy country, but that immoderate thirst of gain which excites the avaricious to export so great a quantity of corn as to distress the inhabitants.

This country likewise abounds in excellent vegetables and fruits, both of which are excellent. Our kitchen gardens abound with colly-flowers, artichokes, asparagus, lettuces of various sorts, cabbages, peas and beans of different kinds, broccoli, kidney-beans, cucumbers, spinage, and pot-herbs of all sorts; mushrooms, carrots, potatoes, turnips, onions, beets, &c.

Kent is famous for its orchards of cherries and apples; but none of the countries afford such plenty of apples for cyder as Herefordshire and Devonshire. Besides apples, pears, and cherries, we have a great variety of excellent fruit, as quinces, peaches, apricots, nectarines, plums, grapes, strawberries, raspberries, currants, gooseberries, barberries, cranberries, bilberries, walnuts, hazle-nuts, &c. but it must be acknowledged, that some of our fruits have not that delicious flavour which is only to be found in warmer climates. Great quantities of cyder and perry are made from the apples and pears of England. Among its products are excellent saffron, said to be superior to any in the world, liquorice, woad, and great plantations of hops; but it produces little flax and hemp.

This country was formerly plentifully provided with timber, and particularly with large oaks fit for ship-building; but timber now has become scarce, and for want of planting in time we are obliged to be supplied with great quantities from abroad. The timber growing in this island, besides oak, are ash, elm, and beech; we have also poplar, maple, walnut-tree, sycamores, hornbeam, arbores, hazle, willow, fallow, and other species of wood not distinguished with the name of timber, but ornamental and exceeding useful.

The pastures of England are excellent, and consequently the grazing of this country very considerable. Here are bred excellent horned cattle; the oxen are the largest and best that are any where to be met with, and the smaller sort bred in Wales and the north are good for present spending. The breeding of sheep is a very principal article; it is computed that there are no less than twelve millions of fleeces shorn annually; and that the fine English wool, next to that of Spain and Portugal, is the best in the known world; which, with the working of it, amounts to near one-fifth of the revenues of the whole country. King Edward IV. received a present of three thousand sheep from the king of Spain, some of the breed of which are still in being. Our sheep are indeed valued both for their fleeces and their flesh; those of Lincolnshire are remarkably large; but the flesh of the small down mutton is no less admired.

The horses for the chace and saddle are very beautiful, and generally about fifteen hands high, swift, and extremely well proportioned. Those of our cavalry are

remarkable for their size, strength, and spirit; and those for draught, either for coaches or waggons, can scarcely be paralleled.

This kingdom also produces asses, some mules, but these last are greatly inferior to those of Spain and Portugal; goats, red and fallow deer, hares, rabbits, dogs, foxes, squirrels, ferrets, otters, badgers, weazels, cats, pole-cats, moles, rats, mice, &c.

Our tame-fowl are swans, geese, turkeys, peacocks, common poultry, ducks, and tame pigeons. The wild are woodcocks, pheasants, partridges, plover, wigeon, teal, wild-geese, wild-ducks, bustards, snipes, wood-pigeons, grouse, quails, eagles, hawks of various kinds, blackbirds, starlings, thrushes, nightingales, goldfinches, bullfinches, linnets, larks, &c.

We have a great variety of river-fish, as salmon, carp, tench, pike, trouts, perch, bream, haddock, dace, eels, roach, barbels, flounders, plaice, smelts, gudgeons, &c. The seas produce cod, mackarel, herrings, pilchards, lobsters, crabs, oysters, muscles, cockles, shrimps, prawns, &c.

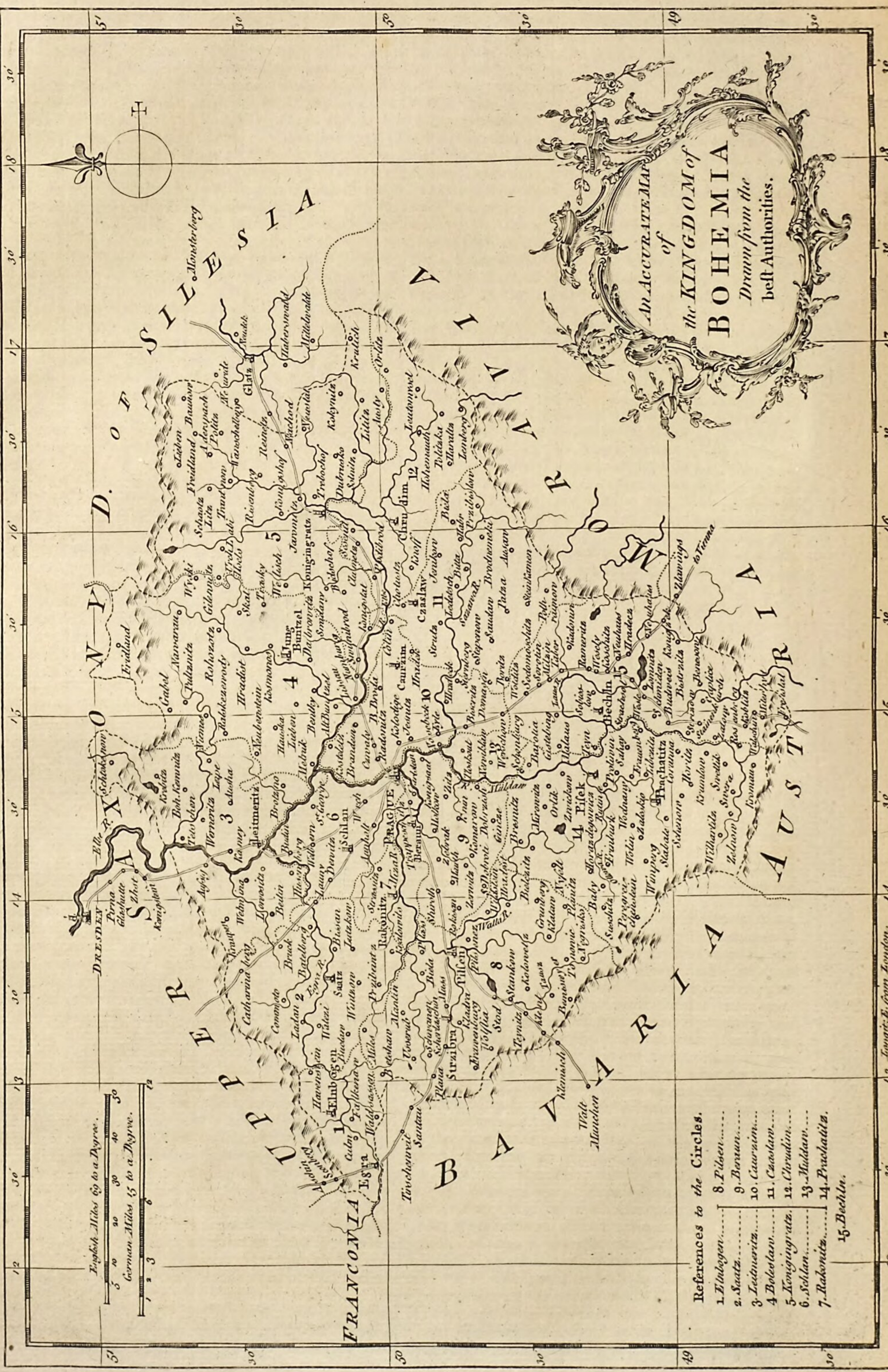
With respect to minerals, the copper-mines in Cumberland and Somersetshire, and those of iron in Sussex and Surry, are of no great importance; but this is made up by the vast tin and lead-mines in Cornwall, Derbyshire, and Wales, &c. whose metals are so far from being surpassed, that they have not their equal in any other country. The mountains are found to contain marble, and near Plymouth there is marble that nearly resembles the Egyptian granite; we have also alabaster, fire-stone, crystal, alum, and vitriol. Our fullers-earth is of singular use in the cloathing trade. Among other minerals coals ought not to be omitted, since the quantity produced in this island is greater than in any other country in Europe, and the coals much better. Great Britain also produces very considerable quantities of salt, both from salt-springs and sea-water.

SECT. II.

Of the Manners and Dispositions of the English. Of the English Tongue, and the Manner in which it received its various Changes, till it arrived at its present Degree of Perfection. Of the Religions of the Inhabitants; with a particular Account of the Church of England; the Convocations and the Ecclesiastical Courts.

THE number of inhabitants in Great Britain was a considerable time ago computed at nine millions; and if the great increase of many of the cities and towns in this kingdom be considered, it can scarcely be doubted that the number at present exceeds ten millions, of which it is said there are near ten thousand Jews. With respect to the character of the English, they have always been allowed to be brave and naturally jealous of their liberties; they are industrious, fitted for labour, lovers of the liberal arts, and capable of carrying them to the greatest perfection. They are also generally humane and friendly; but at the same time blunt, artless, and not fond of compliment; and particularly averse to servility and cringing. Their generosity and humanity has been frequently shewn even to their enemies, in such a manner as to do honour even to human nature: the greatest fault observable amongst them is, that the lower sort of people particularly have too contemptible an idea of foreign nations, and are apt to treat the strangers who visit this country with rudeness. As the English are a mixture of various nations, there is not here that dull uniformity of character that is to be found in other countries; but, on the contrary, the greatest diversity appears in their dispositions and manners, which serves to enliven conversation, and to render it more agreeable.

The inhabitants of the several parts are of a different original. Those of Cornwall and Wales are in general the posterity of the ancient Britons, who, upon the invasion of the Picts and Saxons, retired to those mountainous borders in the west of England, which they have ever since retained. The Scots are not without a mixture of the Picts, particularly in the Lowlands, which they possessed before the former had totally subdued them.



English Miles 60 to a Degree.
German Miles 15 to a Degree.

- References to the Circles.
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| 1. Elbogen..... | 8. Pilsen..... |
| 2. Saatz..... | 9. Beraun..... |
| 3. Leitmeritz..... | 10. Casarain..... |
| 4. Bolelan..... | 11. Casarain..... |
| 5. Koniggratz..... | 12. Chrudin..... |
| 6. Schlan..... | 13. Mullan..... |
| 7. Rakowitz..... | 14. Prachitz..... |
| | 15. Bechn..... |

But the Highlands, particularly the western, are said by some authors to be peopled from Ireland.

The ancient language of Great Britain is generally allowed to have been the same with the Gaulic, the island being probably first peopled from Gallia, as both Cæsar and Tacitus affirm, and prove by their religion, manners, customs, and the nearness of their situation; but we have now very small remains of the ancient British tongue, except in Wales, Cornwall, the islands and highlands of Scotland. Some time before the birth of our Saviour Julius Cæsar made a descent upon Britain, though he may be said rather to have discovered than conquered it; but about the year of Christ 45, in the reign of Claudius, Aulus Plautius was sent over with some Roman forces, by whom Codigunus and the brave Caractacus, two British kings, being overcome in battle, a Roman colony was planted at Malden, in Essex, and the southern parts of the island reduced to the form of a Roman province; afterwards the island was conquered as far north as the firths of Dumbarton and Edinburgh, by Agricola, in the time of Domitian; upon which a great number of the Britons retiring from the conquered countries to the mountains of Wales, carried their language with them.

Thus the greatest part of Britain becoming a Roman province, the Roman legions who resided here for above two hundred years undoubtedly disseminated the Latin tongue; and the people being governed by laws written in Latin, must necessarily introduce a mixture of languages. The British tongue thus continued mingled only with the provincial Latin, till the Roman legions being called home, the Scots and Picts seized that opportunity to attack and harass England; upon which king Vortigern, about the year 440, called the Saxons to his assistance, who coming over, repulsed the Scots and Picts, and were rewarded with the isle of Thanet, and the whole country of Kent; but growing too powerful, they dispossessed the inhabitants of all the country to the south of the Severn, and thus the British tongue was in a great measure destroyed, and the Saxon introduced in its stead.

In the beginning of the ninth century the Danes invading England, got a footing in the northern and eastern parts of the country, their power gradually increased, and, in about two hundred years, they became sole masters of it. By this means the ancient British obtained also a tincture of the Danish language; but their government was of no long continuance; for they being driven out, and the Saxons again possessing the throne, did not make so great an alteration in the Anglo-Saxon as the next revolution, when the whole island, in the year 1067, was subdued by William the Conqueror, duke of Normandy; for the Normans endeavoured to make their language generally received. Thus was the ancient British tongue in a manner extirpated by the Romans, Saxons, Danes, and after that blended with the Norman French.

But a change in the language has also been effected by two other causes: the first is that of commerce; for as the inhabitants of Great Britain have long applied themselves to trade, the names of offices, dignities, wares, and terms of traffic, have been introduced and formed according to the genius of our own tongue. The second is that of learning, from which it has received no small improvement; for as to the Greek and Latin, the learned have, together with the arts and sciences, introduced almost all the terms of art in the mathematics, philosophy, physic, and anatomy; and we have entertained many more from the French, &c. so that at this day our language, which about eighteen hundred years ago was the antient British, is now a mixture of Saxon, Teutonic, Dutch, Danish, Norman, and modern French, embellished with the Greek and Latin: yet this is undoubtedly so far from being a disadvantage to the English tongue, as it is now spoke, for all languages have undergone changes, that it has so enriched it, that it is now become, perhaps, the most copious, significant, fluent, and masculine language in Europe.

The Reformation in England, begun in the reign of Henry VIII. was greatly promoted under his son Edward VI. It was, however, checked by queen Mary, but completed by queen Elizabeth, her sister. This Reforma-

tion being conducted by the bishops, the established church of England became episcopal. Calvin indeed used many endeavours to obtain a share in the advancement and direction of this ecclesiastical reformation; but being desirous of depriving the bishops of their temporal grandeur, of banishing all external ornaments and pomp from divine worship, and introducing the Geneva constitution, the bishops declined his offers of assistance. Many, however, approving of Calvin's doctrine, formed an ecclesiastical government on his plan. These were afterwards termed Puritans, from their avowed desire of freeing the church from the impurities still retained in it, and Nonconformists, from their not conforming to the rules of the established church. Many of these instituted presbyters without bishops, from whence they obtained the name of Presbyterians, instituting also church laws among themselves, and being governed by synods composed of the ministers of several different churches. Others maintaining, that every Christian congregation ought to be free, and subject neither to bishops nor synods, these were termed Independents.

The Episcopalians and Presbyterians are the two principal parties, and differ the least from each other; the first form the established religion of England and Ireland, and the latter of Scotland. The most numerous of the other religious sects are the Baptists, who do not believe that infants are the proper subjects of baptism, and in the baptism of adults practise immersion. It is here proper to observe, that the English Presbyterians differ almost as much from the church of Scotland, as from the church of England; synods growing gradually out of use, each separate congregation is become in a manner independent of the rest. They have most of them forsaken the opinions of Calvin, and believing universal redemption, maintain that the Universal Parent has excluded none of his offspring from a possibility of salvation; while the Independents, and many congregations of the Baptists, agree with the church of Scotland in the doctrines of particular election and reprobation. It must also be added, that the Presbyterians, with the church of England, receive the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper at noon, while the Independents and Baptists receive it after the conclusion of the afternoon service.

One of the principal of the other sects is the Quakers, who profess to be guided by an internal revelation dictated by the Spirit of God; they have no regular ministers, and neither practise baptism, nor commemorate the death of Christ in the Lord's Supper.

The Methodists have lately arisen, and now form a very numerous body; most of them are also members of the church of England, and profess to adhere more closely than the other members of that church to the thirty-nine articles, and the greatest part of them are rigid Calvinists.

The number of Papists here is also very considerable, and in Ireland it even greatly exceeds that of the Protestants.

Many authors have exclaimed with great heat of the many sects in England; but let it be considered, that civil and religious liberty are closely connected, and that it does not become any church who makes no pretensions to infallibility to set up the standard of persecution. May the minds of Britons ever be free, and in affairs which solely relate to another life, may they be accountable only to their conscience and their God! May candor and charity, a love of truth and of liberty, unite those who differ in sentiment, and then nothing will result from diversity of opinion but peace, order, and harmony.

But to return: the church of England is under the government of two archbishops and twenty-five bishops, who are subject to the king as supreme temporal head of the church. The archbishop of Canterbury is styled the first peer and metropolitan of the kingdom; he takes place immediately after the royal family, and consequently precedes not only all dukes, but likewise the great officers of state. In addresses to him he enjoys the title of Your Grace, in common with dukes, and also that of Most Reverend father in God. He has the power of holding juridical courts in church affairs, with many other privileges relating to the granting of licenses and dispensations,

fations, in all cases formerly sued for at the court of Rome, where they are not repugnant to the law of God, or the king's prerogative. He has also within his province, by common law, the probate of all wills, where the party dying is worth upwards of five pounds. He has under him twenty-one bishops, besides his own particular diocese; these are the bishops of London, Winchester, Ely, Lincoln, Rochester, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worcester, Bath and Wells, Salisbury, Exeter, Chichester, Norwich, Gloucester, Oxford, Peterborough, Bristol; and in Wales, St. David's, Landaff, St. Asaph, and Bangor.

The archbishop of York likewise takes the precedence of all dukes who are not of the blood royal; as also of all the great officers of state, except the lord chancellor, who is immediately next in rank to the archbishop of Canterbury. In his diocese he is styled Primate of England and Metropolitan; he also enjoys the title of his Grace, and Most Reverend father in God. Exclusive of his own diocese, in his province are Durham, Carlisle, Chester, and Sodor and Man; but the last bishop has no seat in the house of peers. In Northumberland he has the power of a palatine, and jurisdiction in all criminal proceedings.

The twenty-five bishops are styled Right Reverend and Your Lordship; all these, except the bishop of Sodor and Man, walk next after the viscounts, and precede the barons. In parliament they sit in a double capacity as bishops and barons; they also enjoy many other privileges, as freedom from arrests, out-lawries, &c. The principal of these bishops is that of London, next to him is Durham, who being invested with a temporal jurisdiction, and the power of hunting, may be esteemed a temporal prince. The third is the bishop of Winchester, and the rest take place according to seniority of consecration. These several bishops are subordinate to their metropolitan, and in spiritual affairs subject only to his jurisdiction. Each has also a kind of jurisdiction in his own diocese, but from their courts lies an appeal to their metropolitan; but criminal causes do not fall under their cognizance. They live in great state; their revenues are also considerable; but where the income is not very large, some other lucrative preferment, as a deanery, is generally annexed to it.

The business of a bishop is to examine and ordain priests and deacons, to consecrate churches and burying-places, and to administer the rite of consecration. The jurisdiction of a bishop relates to the probate of wills; he is to grant administration of goods to such as die intestate; to take care of perishable goods, when no one will administer; to collate to benefices; to grant institutions to livings; to defend the liberties of the church; and to visit his own diocese once in three years.

Next to the bishops are the deans and prebends of cathedrals, out of whom the bishops are chosen. After these are the archdeacons, of which every diocese has one or more, the whole number in the kingdom of England amounting to sixty. Their office is to visit the churches twice or thrice every year. The archdeacons are followed by the rural deans, who were formerly styled arch-presbyters, and signify the bishop's pleasure to his clergy, the lower class of which consists of priests and deacons.

Scotland is divided into thirteen provincial synods, which consist of sixty-eight presbyteries, and these again of a number of parishes.

With respect to the ecclesiastical government and courts, it is proper to observe, that the principal part of the ecclesiastical government was formerly lodged in the convocation, which is a national synod of the clergy, assembled to consider of the state of the church, and to call those to an account who have advanced new opinions inconsistent with the doctrines of the church of England; but in the reign of his late majesty they being thought to proceed with too much heat and severity against some learned divines, and to be too great a check upon free enquiry, they have not been permitted to sit for any long time since. However, they are assembled at the same time with the parliament by the authority of the king, who directs his writs to the archbishop of each province to summon all bishops, deans, archdeacons, &c. to meet at a certain time and place.

The convocation consists of one proctor, sent from each cathedral and collegiate church, and two from the body of the inferior clergy of each diocese. The upper-house in the province of Canterbury consists of the archbishop, who is president, and twenty-two bishops; and the lower house of all the deans, archdeacons, and proctors, in all a hundred and sixty-six. They usually meet in king Henry the seventh's chapel in Westminster. The archbishop of York holds his convocation at the same time in the city of York. The first business of the lower house is to choose a prolocutor, who is presented to the upper house by two of the members; one of whom makes a speech in Latin, and the prolocutor they have chosen another, to which the archbishop returns an answer in the same language.

The court of arches is the most ancient consistory of the province of Canterbury, and all appeals in church matters from the judgment of the inferior courts are directed to this. The processes run in the name of the judge, who is called dean of the arches, and the advocates who plead in this court must be doctors of the civil law. The court of audience has the same authority with this, to which the archbishop's chancery was formerly joined.

The prerogative court is that wherein wills are proved and administrations taken out.

The court of peculiars relating to certain parishes have a jurisdiction among themselves for the probate of wills, and are therefore exempt from the bishops courts. The see of Canterbury has no less than fifteen of these peculiars.

The court of delegates receives its name from its consisting of commoners delegated or appointed by the royal commission; but it is no standing court.

Every bishop has also a court of his own called the consistory court. Every archdeacon has likewise his court, as well as the dean and chapter of every cathedral.

S E C T. III.

Of the Learning, Arts, Sciences, Manufactures, Trades, Commerce, and Coin of the English.

IN the beginning of the last section we gave a concise account of the manners and dispositions of the English; and we shall here consider their learning and skill in the arts. Great Britain has produced a number of persons eminent for their learning and their improvement in the sciences; and among these England will ever boast a Friar Bacon, a Lord Verulam, a Sir Isaac Newton, and a Locke. The sciences are here highly esteemed, encouraged, and cultivated. With respect to seminaries of learning, we have indeed only two universities in England; but these are noble ones: in that of Oxford there are generally two thousand students, and in Cambridge fifteen thousand. As these universities are entirely of the established church, the Dissenters have instituted several academies, where the students go through a course of studies, to prepare them for the ministry. In Scotland there are four universities, those of Edinburgh, Glasgow, St. Andrew, and Aberdeen; and there is scarce a great town in England where there is not a free-school founded for the instruction of the sons of the citizens, or burghesses, in the learned languages.

With respect to the polite arts, the English have long been famous for their skill in portrait painting; but we have not yet equalled the Italians in history painting, or the French in engraving: we have, however, at present some admirable sculptors that would do honour to any nation; and both engraving and painting in all its branches are making speedy advances towards perfection. The English have a good genius for civil architecture, and in ship-building are inferior to no nation upon earth. In other elegant and useful arts England has also produced many able masters. As this country has produced the greatest philosophers, so the several arts dependent on the sciences have here been greatly improved; the orrery, the air-pump, the wonderful machine for raising a perfect river of water from the bottom of coal-pits by means of fire, the vast improvement made in the engines formed

for extinguishing of fires, were all invented by the English; and, to the honour of England, the ingenious Mr. Harrison has lately invented an easy method of discovering the longitude at sea.

The English, says Dr. Busching, were the first who set on foot that noble manufacture of silk and woollen tapestry, in which life and nature are imitated with admirable skill. Our broad-cloths are the finest and most beautiful in the world, and are admired and purchased in every quarter of the globe; indeed the woollen manufacture is in so flourishing a condition, that the value of cloths and stuffs annually exported amounts to two millions sterling. The manufactures of flowered silk have been greatly improved, and in the beauty of the patterns they excel those of France or any other country. We have lately invented a method of printing on plain silk figures in gold. Our printers of linen too greatly excel those of other nations, from the superior skill of the pattern-drawers.

In short, there is scarce a manufacture in Europe but what is brought to great perfection in England; our locks, edge-tools, guns, swords, and other arms, are said to exceed any thing of the kind; household utensils of brass, iron, and pewter, are very great articles; and our clocks and watches of price are very much esteemed; though the miserable cheap work bought up and sent abroad has dishonoured the nation. There are but few manufactures in which we are defective; but in those of bone lace and paper we do not excel. With respect to the last, an astonishing improvement has been made in England in writing and printing paper; but the French paper for copper-plate prints is still superior to ours.

Great Britain enjoys a fine situation with respect to commerce, and is surrounded with excellent harbours. Its trade and navigation is greatly superior to what they were formerly, and the inhabitants at present carry on an extensive trade to every part of the globe.

In time of peace we export to France tin, lead, horn plates, great quantities of tobacco, with some flannel, and in time of scarcity we send them corn; and from thence we import brandy, wine, laces, linen, cambrics, lawn. This trade is of very great disadvantage to England. Our smugglers also, to the great detriment of Great Britain, convey thither gold, silver, and wool.

To Holland we send almost all sorts of commodities and manufactured goods, either of our own produce or imported from abroad, and receive from thence spices, drugs for dying, vast quantities of fine linen, tapes, whale fins, and toys.

To Flanders we send tin, lead, hard-ware, sugar, flannels, a few stuffs, serges, and tobacco; for which we receive fine laces, linen, cambrics, tapes, and other goods.

To Germany we send woollen manufactories of every kind, all sorts of East India goods, tin, lead, ginger, sugar, and tobacco. In return we have from thence linen, thread, goat skins, and many other commodities. In many places, however, several of our manufactories are prohibited; and yet it is thought that the balance of trade is considerably in our favour.

We have very little trade with Denmark and Norway, except for a few coarse woollen goods and tobacco; but we receive from them timber, planks, firs, deer skins, and many other articles of commerce, for the greatest part of which we are obliged to pay ready money. The Swedes also buy little of us, and we purchase of them copper, iron, deals, timber, and naval stores; but not so much iron as formerly, since its being allowed to be imported from our own plantations in America.

To Russia we send tin, lead, worsted stuffs, long ells, coarse cloths, cottons, fustians, perpetuanas, lace, thread, allum, copper, and a great quantity of tobacco. From thence we import pot-ashes, hemp, flax, linen, cable-yarn, bees-wax, isinglass, hides of several sorts, and leather; with linseed, train-oil, flax, hemp, hogs bristles, caviare, &c. This trade is carried on by a particular company.

We send to Italy various kinds of East India goods, broad-cloth, long ells, bays, druggets, camblets, leather, tin, lead, pilchards, herrings, salmon, cod, and various

other articles. From thence we import wine, oil, soap, olives, dying drugs, anchovies, and raw, thrown, and wrought silk. From the king of Sardinia's dominions we have the fine silk called organzine, which is thrown here by an engine, of which a very curious one has been many years at Derby, and for some time in two or three towns in Cheshire.

To Spain we send nearly the same commodities as to Italy, many of which are exported from thence to their American dominions. In return we have wine, oil, fruit, wool, indigo, cochineal, and other drugs, with gold and silver in specie or bullion.

Portugal takes from us almost all kinds of our commodities, and from thence we receive wine, oil, fruit, and salt. Though the balance of trade with Portugal is supposed to be greatly in our favour, yet it is of no little advantage to them, as they would be unable to sell what we take from them at other markets; and as they send great quantities of our goods to Brazil, they are enabled to draw from thence immense treasures.

The African trade is of very great advantage, as we not only send many of our own and the East India manufactures for the purchase of slaves; but with these last supply our plantations in America, and have also from Africa gold dust, gum seneca, malagueta, ivory, red wood, and many other valuable commodities.

To the East Indies we export some woollen cloths, lead, and other English manufactures, with a very great quantity of silver; and import from thence great quantities of tea, china ware, raw and wrought silks, calicoe, chintz, cabinets, &c. all the wrought silks, calicoes, and chintz, being exported again.

The Hudson's bay company export woollen goods, haberdashery wares, hatchets, arms, and other hard-ware, and import great quantities of skins and furs of different kinds.

To the sugar islands in America we export all manner of clothing, both linen and woollen, furniture for their houses, and hard-ware; and take the produce of those islands in return, which beside sugar, yield ginger, indigo, rum, molasses, coffee, cacao, or the chocolate nut, and pimento, or Jamaica pepper.

To the tobacco plantations on the continent of America, we also export clothing, tools, hard-ware, and furniture, receiving tobacco in return, a great part of which is re-exported.

We export the same species of goods to Carolina, and receive from thence vast quantities of rice and skins, pitch and tar.

To Pennsylvania, the Jerseys, New-York, and New-England, we send the same articles, and receive in return log-wood, and the produce of Spanish America, with which they frequently carry on a clandestine trade, and also ships ready built, mahogany, cedar, drugs, and furs.

In short, to Ireland the merchants export fine broad-cloth, silk, ribbons, gold and silver lace, hard-ware, pewter, hops, coals, tobacco, sugar, East India goods, and from thence import great quantities of linen, linen yarn, and wool, together with beef, butter, pork, and tallow.

The annual exports of English and foreign goods amount to between six and seven millions sterling, and our imports do not exceed five millions. As a considerable part of this is again exported, the annual issues from England for foreign merchandize, has been estimated at four millions. Yet our foreign trade does not amount to one sixth part of the inland; the annual produce of the natural products and manufactures of England amounting to above forty-two millions. The gold and silver of England is received from Portugal, Spain, Jamaica, the American colonies, and Africa; but great part of this gold and silver we again export to Holland, and the East-Indies; and it is supposed that two-thirds of all the foreign traffic of England is carried on in the port of London.

In Great Britain money is computed by pounds, shillings, and pence, twelve pence making a shilling, and twenty shillings one pound, which is only an imaginary coin. The gold pieces consist only of guineas, halves, and

and quarters; the silver of crowns, half-crowns, shillings, six-pences, groats, and even down to a silver penny; and the copper money only of half-pence and farthings.

SECT. IV.

A concise View of the History of England; the Titles of the King, his Arms, and Forces by Sea and Land.

THE Britons, the ancient inhabitants of this island, were first invaded, as hath been already observed, by Julius Cæsar, and afterwards subdued by the Romans. In the reign of Valentinian III. they quitted the island, and taking with them all the Roman and British forces, left the kingdom exposed to the excursions of the Picts and Scots. The Britons successively elected several monarchs, who were deposed almost as soon as they were advanced to the throne, till they made choice of Vortigern, who finding it difficult to contend with the Picts and Scots who invaded his dominions, solicited succours from abroad, and accordingly in 449, a large body of Anglo-Saxons arrived, under the conduct of two leaders, Hengist and Horsa, who having obtained a victory over the enemy, settled here; and other bodies of Saxons coming over, extended their dominions, and at length conquered England, which received its name from the Angles. They erected seven monarchies, those of Kent, Suffex, the East-Angles, the West-Saxons, the East Saxons, Northumberland, and Mercia. Egbert, king of the West-Saxons, at length united all the other kings under him. In the ninth century the Danes passed over to England, and proved so troublesome to the Saxon princes, that they were at length obliged to share the kingdom with them. This division lasted till the year 1041, when the Saxons again recovered the whole country. Upon the death of this prince, he was succeeded by Harold; but William duke of Normandy invaded the kingdom, and coming to a battle with Harold near Hastings in Suffex, defeated his rival, who was slain in the engagement, and agreeing to observe the Saxon laws was proclaimed king.

After his decease, and that of his two sons, his descendants of the female line contended for the throne, which Henry II. surnamed Plantagenet, at last ascended in 1154, and transmitted it to his descendants. This prince was by inheritance earl of Anjou, Maine, and Touraine; by marriage, duke of Guienne; and by the success of his arms, lord of Ireland. John, the youngest son of Henry II. was obliged to grant the Magna Charta. Edward I. subdued the principality of Wales, and endeavoured to maintain his superiority in Scotland. Edward III. the eldest son of Edward II. succeeded to the crown in the life-time of his father; the queen and Mortimer during his minority, usurping the administration, governed in his name, and murdered Edward II. But Edward III. afterwards caused Mortimer to be seized in the queen's apartment, and executed. This prince invaded France, and in 1346 obtained the glorious victory of Cressy, and about the same time David king of the Scots was made prisoner. John the French king, and his son Philip were taken prisoners at the battle of Poitiers, by Edward the Black Prince. Richard II. the son of Edward the Black Prince, and grandson of Edward III. succeeded to the throne. He suppressed a rebellion raised by Wat Tyler; but the parliament, disgusted at his administration, raised an army against him and made him prisoner. The duke of Lancaster, the king's uncle, claimed the crown of Castile in right of his wife, and invaded Spain. His son the duke of Lancaster dethroned Richard II. and usurping the crown was styled Henry IV. and being confirmed in the throne by the parliament, Richard was soon after murdered.

Henry V. gained several victories over the French, took many of their towns, and having married Catharine, daughter to Charles VI. king of France, by the convention of Troyes, obtained the reversion of that crown, but died in the midst of all his expectations. His infant son, Henry VI. who was crowned at Paris, inherited

both kingdoms; but under him the English arms in France met with a sad reverse, by his losing that kingdom. At this time disputes arose concerning the crown between the houses of York and Lancaster, both which were of the royal blood, and were commonly called, in allusion to their arms, the White and Red Rose; and these disputes soon broke out into a bloody civil war, which was frequently renewed. Edward IV. the eldest son of Richard duke of York, was at length established on the throne, while Henry VI. was confined in the Tower, and at last murdered. Edward V. the eldest son of Edward IV. with his brother Richard duke of York, were also murdered in the Tower, by their uncle Richard duke of Gloucester, who ascended the throne by the name of Richard III. but Henry earl of Richmond defeating that unnatural monster at Bosworth, and that murderer, who was the last male of the house of York, being killed in the battle, Henry in 1485, obtained the crown. This was Henry VII. who being of the house of Lancaster, and marrying Elizabeth of the house of York, in him both roses were united. Henry VIII. the son of Henry VII. was remarkable for his numerous marriages, his manner of living, government, and power. On account of his book on the seven sacraments, which was written against Luther, he was dignified by the pope with the title of Defender of the Faith, a title which the kings of England had long before assumed, as appears from several charters granted to the university of Oxford. This king soon quarrelled with the pontiff, and under him the happy reformation of religion began in England; and the parliament enacted an oath of supremacy, by which all ecclesiastics were compelled to acknowledge the king as supreme in all causes both ecclesiastical and civil. Under Edward VI. the Reformation was promoted; but his sister and successor Mary again introduced popery, lighted the fire of persecution, and lost Calais, the only place in France belonging to the crown of England. Under her sister Elizabeth the Reformation was completed, and very considerable improvements made in trade and navigation. She appointed for her successor James I. king of Scotland, who endeavoured to unite both kingdoms, under the name of Great Britain. This weak and pusillanimous prince paid little regard to the constitution of England. His example was followed by his son Charles I. The people rose in defence of their liberties, and that unhappy prince lost his head on the block. The Scots proclaimed his son Charles II. but were defeated therein by Oliver Cromwell, who governed these kingdoms under the title of protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland. In his time the English made themselves masters of Jamaica and Dunkirk. His son Richard was afterwards chosen protector; but being averse to the cares of government, he made little or no opposition to the return of Charles II. who was restored to his throne by his ancestors.

This last prince sold Dunkirk to the French; under his reign a dreadful pestilence ravaged England, and London was destroyed by fire. James, duke of York, married his eldest daughter Mary to William prince of Orange, and Anne his second daughter to prince George of Denmark, and on Charles's decease ascended the throne; he then openly declared himself a Papist, and strenuously endeavoured to bring this kingdom again into subjection to the see of Rome. In the year 1688 was born James the present pretender, whom some affirm to be the lawful son of king James II. by his second spouse, while others deny it. Against this prince the church of England united with the Dissenters, and both applying to his son-in-law the prince of Orange, invited him to assist in the defence of their liberties: on which behalf landed in England, and the king fled to France; whence the crown, which he had thus abdicated, was in a national convention offered, with certain restrictions, to the prince of Orange and his consort Mary. This prince, who assumed the title of William III. was succeeded by Anne, king James's youngest daughter, and under her, in 1706, was accomplished the union of the kingdoms of England and Scotland, under the general name of Great Britain. On her decease, in 1714, the crown devolved to George Lewis, elector of Hanover, and duke of Brunswick Lunenburg. His reign began with a rebellion, which

was soon suppressed. That prince was peaceably succeeded by his son George II. in whose reign another rebellion broke out, and was quelled by the bravery of his son William, duke of Cumberland. His reign was distinguished by a number of victories that will do honour to the British annals, and on the twenty-fifth of October, 1760, he was succeeded by his grandson George III. his present majesty.

The titles of this prince are, George III. by the grace of God king of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith, arch-treasurer and elector of the holy Roman empire, &c. In addressing him he is stiled Your Majesty, or Sir: the eldest son is from his birth stiled duke of Cornwall; but receives the title of prince of Wales by creation, and in both those provinces certain revenues are annexed to these titles. All the king's children are stiled their royal highnesses.

The arms of Great Britain are, in the first grand quarter gules, three lions passant guardant in pale or; the imperial ensigns of England, impaled with the royal arms of Scotland, which are or, a lion rampant with a double tressure flowered and counter-flowered, with fleurs-de-lis gules. The second quarter is the royal arms of France, azure three fleur-de-lis or. The third, the ensign of Ireland, which is azure, a harp or, stringed argent. The fourth grand quarter is his present majesty's own coat gules, two lions passant guardant or, for Brunswic, impaled with Lunenburg, which is or, semee of hearts, proper, a lion rampant azure, having ancient Saxony, viz. gules, a horse current argent, grafted in base, and in a shield sur tout gules, the diadem or crown of Charlemagne. The whole within a garter, as sovereign of that most noble order of knighthood, inscribed with the motto *HONI SOIT QUI MAL Y PENSE*, that is, "Evil be to him that evil thinks," given by Edward III. the founder of the order. The crest is a helmet full faced and grated, mantled with cloth of gold, double ermine, and surmounted by an imperial crown, on the top of which is a lion passant guardant or, crowned. The supporter on the dexter side is a lion guardant or, crowned, the proper supporter of the English ensign; on the sinister a unicorn argent horned and hooped or, gorged with a collar of crosses, pattee, and fleur-de-lis, a gold chain fixed to it; both standing on a compartment, from whence issue from one stem the two royal badges of his majesty's chief dominions, namely, on the right a rose party per pale, argent, and gules, stalked and leafed vert, for England; and on the left a thistle for Scotland, being so adorned by James I. whose supporters, as king of Scotland, were two unicorns; and England being under him united to that nation, gave occasion to our carrying one of them on the sinister side; and in 1614, as king of Ireland, he caused the harp to be marshalled with the arms of Great Britain.

The land-forces of these kingdoms in time of peace amount to about forty thousand national men, including troops and garrisons in Ireland, Gibraltar, Minorca, and in America; but in time of war there have been in British pay, natives and foreigners, above a hundred and fifty thousand. We have also a registered militia, consisting of near two hundred thousand men.

The complement of seamen in time of peace usually amounts to twelve or fifteen thousand. In time of war they have amounted to no less than sixty thousand men.

The men of war of the line of battle, from a hundred down to fifty guns, amount to no less than a hundred and fifty sail; and the total of the royal navy, including fifth and sixth rates, with sloops of war, amount to three hundred and ten; besides bomb-vessels, fire-ships, and royal yachts.

This navy is commonly divided into three squadrons, namely, the red, white, and blue, which are so termed from the difference of their colours. Each squadron has its admiral; but the admiral of the red squadron has the principal command of the whole, and is stiled vice-admiral of Great Britain. Subject to each admiral is also a vice and a rear-admiral. But the supreme command of our naval force is, next to the king, in the lords commissioners of the admiralty.

S E C T. V.

Of the Civil Government of the King's Court; the great Officers of State; and the Orders of Knighthood.

THE civil government of the court is committed to the lord steward of the household, who has authority over all the officers and servants of the palace, except those of the king's chapel, chambers, and stables. He also attends the king at the meeting of parliaments, administers the oaths of allegiance and supremacy to all the members of the house of commons, and, at the end of the parliament, adjusts the parliamentary expences, &c. In the king's presence he carries a white wand; but at other times it is carried by a footman bare-headed.

The next is the lord chamberlain, who presides over all the affairs belonging to the king's chamber, and all above stairs, except the precinct of the king's bed-chamber, which is wholly under the groom of the stole. He has also the oversight of the serjeant at arms; of the chaplains, though he himself is a layman; of the physicians, surgeons, barbers, &c. of the wardrobe, the beds, music, comedians, hunting, messengers, handicrafts, and artizans, retained in the king's service.

The master of the great wardrobe is an officer of considerable dignity; he has therefore a salary of sixteen hundred pounds a year, and a deputy under him of four hundred pounds, with other officers. To his office also belong several tradesmen and artificers, who furnish such things as are necessary for the coronations, marriages, and funerals of the royal family; provide robes for the knights and officers of the garter; coats for the king's heralds and pursuivants at arms.

And lastly, the master of the horse, who has the management of the king's stables and breed of horses, and presides over the equeries, pages, footmen, grooms, farriers, smiths, coachmen, saddlers, and other trades working for the king's stables. He has also the care of the lands and revenues appointed for the king's breed of horses, litters, coaches, chairs, &c. The master of the horse has the peculiar privilege of making use of the king's coaches, horses, pages, and footmen, when he goes abroad; and upon any solemn cavalcade he rides next the king, leading a horse of state.

There are also sixteen lords of the king's bed-chamber, including the groom of the stole.

Most of the other officers and servants are under the above four principal officers of his majesty's household.

The great officers of the crown were originally nine, namely, the lord high steward, lord chancellor, lord high treasurer, lord president, lord privy-seal, lord great chamberlain, lord high constable, and lord high admiral. But these have been greatly mutilated and changed, as will appear from the following account:

I. The lord high steward is appointed by the king as judge, when a peer is to be tried for high treason. This office was anciently the highest in the government, and its power so extensive, that it was thought unsafe to trust it any longer in the hands of a subject. The last who enjoyed this office by inheritance was Henry of Bolingbroke, afterwards king of England. Since his time it has been revived only upon particular occasions; as at the king's coronation, or the arraignment of a peer, after which he publicly breaks the white staff, which he bears in his hand as a badge of his office, to shew that it is expired.

II. The lord high chancellor, or keeper of the great seal, is esteemed the first minister of state, and takes place immediately after the archbishop of Canterbury; and, by virtue of his office, he is a member of the privy-council. He keeps the great seal, and causes are referred to him from the other courts, he having the power of judging according to equity, and of moderating the rigour of the common law. His decrees can only be reversed by the house of Lords. Out of this office the lord high steward is usually chosen.

III. The lord high treasurer was formerly an officer of great power and authority; but ever since the Revolution

It has been under the direction of several commissioners, styled lords of the treasury.

IV. The lord president of the privy-council lays before that body such business as is to be transacted there, and, if the king be absent, makes a report to his majesty of what has passed in council.

V. The lord privy-seal, through whose hands pass all grants, charters, and pardons signed by the king, before they come to the great seal; together with bounties and such other things as do not require the great seal. He is, by virtue of his office, a privy counsellor.

VI. The lord high chamberlain of England, whose office is to carry the king's coif and gloves at his coronation, with the sword, scabbard, &c. to dress the king that day in his royal robes, to serve him with water, to wash his hands, and to undress him. To him belongs the care of providing every thing necessary in the house of Lords during the session of parliament. When the king goes to the house, he gives the sword of state to whatever lord he pleases, walks on the right hand of it, next the king's person; has under his direction the gentleman usher of the black rod, with the yeoman usher and door-keeper; and upon solemn occasions, when he enters Westminster-hall, has the keys of that hall and the several courts in it delivered to him.

VII. The lord high constable had such an extensive power, that it has been long abolished, except at coronations, when an officer is created to assist at the ceremony, and his power ends with it.

VIII. The earl marshal on particular occasions takes cognizance of affairs relative to war, regulates ceremonies, and presides over the herald's office. This post has long been hereditary in the family of the dukes of Norfolk.

IX. The lord high admiral had formerly the superintendence of all maritime affairs; but the office is at present, as we have already observed, executed by commission, the directors of which are styled the lords of the admiralty.

The orders of knighthood in Great Britain are three, two English and one Scots, and of all these the king is grand master. The order of the Garter, or St. George, was instituted in 1350, by Edward III. and contains twenty-six knights, including the king. Its insignia or badge is St. George on horse-back, with a dragon of enamelled gold, bearing the motto, *HONI SOIT QUI MAL Y PENSE*. This George is worn at a blue ribbon, and this motto is likewise embroidered with gold on a blue garter worn on the left leg.

The order of the Bath was constituted by Henry IV. and revived with some improvements in 1725, by George I. It derives its name from a very ancient custom of instituting knights by bathing. This order consists of thirty-five knights, exclusive of the sovereign. Its ensigns are three crowns in a field or, with this inscription, *TRIA JUNCTA IN UNO*, that is, three joined in one; and is worn pendant at a red ribbon.

The order of the Thistle, instituted in Scotland, was revived in 1703 by queen Anne, and its statutes were enlarged in 1725 by George I. The knights of this order are but twelve in number, besides the sovereign, who presides as grand master. Its ensigns are the image of St. Andrew worn pendant to a green ribbon, and the motto *NEMO ME IMPUNE LACESSET*. The collar is composed of thistles interwoven with sprigs and leaves of rue, which are all of gold.

SECT. VI.

Of both Houses of Parliament; the civil Liberties of the People, the Courts of Justice, and the Manner in which the Laws are executed.

THAT august body the parliament of Great Britain consists of two houses, one of which is called the house of Lords, and the other that of the Commons. Before the Union the house of Lords consisted only of the spiritual and temporal peers of England, and the house of Commons of five hundred and thirteen knights, burgesses, and citizens: but at the Union sixteen peers of

Scotland were added to the house of Lords, and forty-five Scots commoners to the house of Commons. The first of these are chosen before the sitting of every new parliament by the peers of Scotland out of their own body.

The use of parliaments is to maintain the constitution, and keep inviolable the privileges of the people; they also raise subsidies, make laws, and redress all the public grievances. The power of calling a parliament, and of adjourning and proroguing it, is entirely lodged in the sovereign.

The sitting of the parliament is appointed by the king's proclamation, with the advice of the privy council, and in choosing a new one writs are issued out by the Lord Chancellor to the Lords, to appear at the time and place appointed. Writs are also sent to the sheriffs of every county, commanding them to summon the electors to choose as many knights, citizens, and burgesses in their respective counties as are to sit in the house of Commons. The writs for Scotland are directed to the Privy Council for summoning the sixteen peers, and for electing the forty-five members. No judge, sheriff, or clergyman, can be elected; and no gentleman, except he has six hundred a year. They always assemble in St. Stephen's chapel by Westminster-hall.

The house of Lords is also situated near Westminster-hall, by the painted chamber and court of requests. It is a spacious and lofty room, hung with tapestry, representing the defeat of the Spanish armada. At the upper end of the room is the throne, upon which on solemn occasions the king is seated in his robes, with the crown on his head, and adorned with all the ensigns of majesty. On the right hand of the throne is a seat for the prince of Wales, and on the left another for the next person of the royal family. Behind the throne are places for the young peers who have no votes in the house. At a small distance below the throne on the king's right hand, are the seats of the two archbishops, and a little below them the bench of bishops. On the opposite side of the house sit those peers who rank above barons. Just before the throne are the wool-packs across the room, on which are seated the dignitaries of the law. The lord high chancellor, who is speaker of the house of Lords, sits on that nearest the throne, with the great seal and mace by him. On the other two wool-packs placed parallel to this, sit the lord chief justice, the master of the Rolls, and the other judges, who have no vote in the house; and are only advised with in points of law. They are supposed to be placed on wool-packs to remind them of the great importance of the woollen manufacture to this nation. When the king is present with the crown on his head the lords sit uncovered, and the judges stand till his majesty gives them leave to sit. A stranger cannot form a more just notion of the dignity of this nation, than by attending this august assembly when the king is present with the crown upon his head, and not only his majesty, but the Lords are in their robes, and the Commons attending without the bar.

The Commons, as we have already observed, meet in a spacious room called St. Stephen's chapel. It is wainscoted up to the ceiling, and accommodated with galleries supported by slender iron columns, adorned with Corinthian capitals and sconces. At the upper end the speaker is placed on a raised seat ornamented with Corinthian columns, and the king's arms carved and placed on a pediment; before him is a table, at which the clerk and his assistant sit near him at each hand just below the chair; and on each side, as well below as in the galleries, the members are placed promiscuously. The speaker and clerks always wear gowns in the house, but no other of the members, except the four representatives for the city of London, who the first day of every new parliament are dressed in scarlet gowns, and sit all together on the right hand of the chair next the speaker.

No act is valid without the concurrence of both houses, and the king's approbation. Any bill for making a new law, or altering an old one, may be brought first into the house of Peers, except a money bill; but no bill relating to the revenues or public taxes can be brought into the house of Peers first, or altered when it comes up from the Commons, though it may be totally rejected

by the Lords. Thus, where the Lords might be tempted to pursue their own interest to the prejudice of the public, and might receive the greatest pecuniary advantages from being corrupt, in granting supplies, they have only the power of refusing, while the Commons alone have that of enacting.

It will be proper here to give in one view a sketch of the constitution of Great Britain. The king has all the honours, and all the splendor of majesty; he has the power of doing good in its fullest extent, and it is surely no diminution to his glory, that he is confined from doing what would render him hated and despised by his contemporaries, and infamous to posterity. Though he has not the power of making laws, yet no law can be enacted without his consent; and though the execution of them is always entrusted to his care, he cannot seize the property of the most inconsiderable man in his dominions, except it be forfeited by law: the subject may without the least danger sue his sovereign, or those who act in his name, and under his authority; he may do this in open court, where the king may be cast, and obliged to pay damages to his subject. He cannot take away the liberty of the least individual, unless he has by some illegal act forfeited his right to liberty, or except when the state is in danger, and the representatives of the people think the public safety makes it necessary that he should have the power of confining persons and seizing their papers on a suspicion of guilt; and this power is never given but for a limited time.

The king may pardon, but neither he nor the judges to whom he delegates his authority, can condemn a man as a criminal, except he be first found guilty by twelve men, who must be his peers or equals. That the judges may not be influenced by the king, or his ministers, they have their salaries for life, and not during the sovereign's pleasure. No person can be deprived of his liberty even for the highest crime, till some presumptive proof be given upon oath before a magistrate. If a person be charged with a capital offence, he must not undergo the ignominy of being tried for his life, till the evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of the town or county in which the fact is alledged to be committed, and not without twelve of them agreeing to find a bill of indictment against him. If they do this, he is to stand a second trial before twelve other men; he is therefore furnished with a pannel or list of the jury, who are his true and proper judges, that he may learn their characters, and discover whether they want abilities, are bribed, or are prejudiced against him. He may in open court object to twenty of the number, and to as many more as he can shew any cause why they should not be admitted as his judges, till at last twelve unexceptionable men are sworn to give a true verdict according to the evidence produced in court. These only are the judges from whose sentence the prisoner is to expect life or death; and as from their judgment there lies no appeal, they are to be all of one mind, and after they have fully heard the evidence, are confined without meat, drink, or candle, till they are unanimous in acquitting or condemning the prisoner. Our freedom consists in its being out of the power of the judge on the bench to injure us. Indeed juries have always been considered as giving the most effectual check to tyranny; for in a nation like this, where a king can do nothing against law, they are a security that he shall never make the laws, by a bad administration, the instruments of cruelty and oppression. Nothing is here wanting to clear up the cause of innocence, and to prevent the sufferers sinking under the power of corrupt judges, and the oppression of the great. The racks and tortures that are cruelly used in other parts of Europe to make a man accuse himself, are here unknown, and none punished without conviction, but he who refuses to plead in his own defence.

But as the nobility are always exposed to popular envy, were they to be judged by the people, they might be in the greatest danger from their judges, and would want the privilege of being tried by their peers, a privilege enjoyed by the meanest subject; they are therefore not to be tried by the ordinary courts of judicature, but by that part of the legislature of which each is a member.

On the other hand, the house of Commons can search into the conduct of the highest peer in the realm, and in the name of the people impeach the favourite or minister of the king. They can call the judges to an account for the mal-administration of their office. Thus the Commons are the grand jury of the nation; but as it would be improper that those who are impeached in so high a court should be tried by a lower, which might be overawed by the power of the house of Commons, therefore, to preserve the dignity of the peers, and the security of the subject, those whom they impeach are tried by the Lords, whose superior dignity ought to set them above all influence, and who are influenced neither by the same interests nor moved by the same passions.

The courts of justice sitting at Westminster are open four times a year; that is, at Easter, Trinity, Michaelmas, and Hillary terms. There are four courts, the court of chancery, the king's bench, common pleas, and the court of exchequer; besides that of the duchy of Lancaster, which takes cognizance of all the causes relating to the revenue of that duchy, which has been long annexed to the crown; the chief judge of that court is called the chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster.

The court of chancery, which is a court of equity, is next in dignity to the high court of parliament, and is designed to relieve the subject against frauds, breaches of trust, and other oppressions; and to moderate the rigour of the law. The chief judge is the lord chancellor, or lord keeper; and the form of proceeding is by bills, answers, and decrees, the witnesses being examined in private: however, the decrees of this court are only binding to the persons of those concerned in them, for they do not affect their lands and goods; and consequently, if a man refuses to comply with the terms, they can do nothing more than send him to the prison of the Fleet. This court is not like the others, which have no power except in term-time, this being always open; and if a man be sent to prison, the lord chancellor, in any vacation, can, if he sees reason for it, grant a habeas corpus. At these times he may also grant prohibitions.

The lord chancellor has twelve assistants, called masters in chancery, who take depositions upon oath, for which they have an office in Chancery-lane: they also examine accompts depending in that court, and decide disputes referred to them by the lord chancellor in their separate offices. Besides these there are several masters extraordinary to take affidavits in the country.

The principal of the twelve is the master of the rolls, who has the custody of all charters, customs, commissions, deeds, and recognizances; which being made on rolls of parchment, gave occasion to his name. In his office are kept all the rolls since the beginning of the reign of Richard III: This officer usually hears causes in chancery in the absence of the chancellor, and in his court hears and determines the causes brought before him; he has the gift of the offices of the six clerks, who enrol all patents, commissions, licences, pardons, and other instruments that pass the great seal. Under the six clerks there were formerly sixty, but now there are ninety, and these, with their under clerks, perform the business of their office.

The court of king's bench is the highest court in England at common law, except the house of Lords; it takes cognizance of treason, felony, breaches of the peace, oppression, &c. and can examine and correct the judgments and proceedings of all the inferior courts, except that of the exchequer, not only in pleas of the crown, but in those that are personal; errors committed by justices of the peace come also under its cognizance. In this court are four judges, who hold their places for life; the principal of whom is stiled the lord chief justice of the king's bench. His jurisdiction is very extensive, and his warrant is of force in any part of the kingdom. This court grants prohibitions to other courts, both ecclesiastical and civil, when they exceed the bounds of their jurisdiction.

The court of common-pleas is so called because the pleas usually here debated are between subject and subject. Here all civil causes are tried, and real actions are pleadable in no other court. There are four judges belonging

ing to it, the first of whom is called lord chief justice of the common-pleas. None but serjeants at law can plead in this court, and all facts are tried by a jury.

The court of exchequer formerly received its name from a striped or chequered cloth spread over the table; it consists of two courts, one of which tries causes according to law, and the other according to equity. The court of equity is held in the exchequer-chamber before the lord treasurer, the chancellor of the exchequer, the lord chief baron, and the three barons of the exchequer; besides a curfitor baron: but the two first sit very seldom, and the five last almost always. Here are tried all causes relating to the king's revenue. All judicial proceedings, according to law are tried only before the barons.

In the different counties in England assizes and sessions are held twice a year for the more regular distribution of justice; and for this purpose the twelve judges are commissioned by the king to go the circuits. At these assizes all civil and criminal causes are determined. The first is called Lent assizes, and begins soon after Hillary term; and the other, called the summer assizes, after Trinity term. There are six of these circuits, besides those in Wales, in which principality two distinct judges are appointed; and both in England and Wales all causes are determined by a jury.

The commitment of malefactors is made by a justice of the peace, who examines witnesses to the fact upon oath; and if the evidence appears plain, he makes a mittimus, and sends the malefactor to prison, where he continues till the next assizes.

There are justices of the peace in every county, and such in whom the king is supposed to have a greater confidence are stiled justices of the quorum, because in their dedimus there are these words, *quorum A. B. unum esse volumus*; which signifies, that no business of consequence must be transacted unless with the concurrence of one of these. Their office is to call before them, examine, and commit to prison all murderers, thieves, vagabonds, and all disturbers of the peace.

Every city and corporation in England choose their own magistrates, who regulate all affairs belonging to their respective corporations, and try persons supposed guilty of small crimes, but cannot exercise their power out of their own liberties.

Besides the above courts, there are court leets and court barons, which properly belong to the lords of the manors, who appoints stewards to hold them in their name. The first is a court of record; it being reputed the king's court, because its authority is derived from the crown. It is kept twice a year, and in it enquiry may be made of riots and other criminal matters; but all great offences must be certified to the justices of assize.

A court baron is held in every manor, though the other is not, and is thus called from the lord of the manor, who was anciently stiled baron. All tenants belonging to the manor are summoned to this court, part of whom are sworn for a jury, and the steward sits as judge. The jury is directed to enquire after the decease of copy-holders and free-holders, and to bring in their next heir, and also of the encroachments of any tenant. They likewise make orders and laws among themselves, with a penalty for transgressions, payable to the lord of the manor.

There are also sheriff-courts, and hundred courts, held every month in all parts of England, where small causes are determined.

The laws of England are esteemed more merciful with respect to offenders, than those which at present subsist in any other part of the known world. However, the punishment of such who at their trial refuse to plead guilty or not guilty, is very cruel. In this case the prisoner is laid upon his back, and his arms and legs being extended with cords, and a considerable weight laid upon his breast, he is allowed only three morsels of barley-bread, which is given him the next day without drink, after which he is allowed nothing but foul water till he expires. This punishment is however seldom inflicted; but some offenders have chose it, in order to preserve their estates for their children. Those guilty of this crime are not now suffered to undergo such a length

of torture; but have so great a weight placed on them, that they soon expire. In case of high treason, though the criminal stands mute, judgment is given against him, as if he had been convicted, and his estate is confiscated.

All capital crimes are in England included under high treason, petty treason, and felony; the first consists in plotting, conspiring, or rising up in arms against the sovereign; or in counterfeiting the coin. The traitor is punished by being drawn on a sledge to the place of execution, when after being hanged on the gallows for some minutes, the body is cut down alive, the heart taken out and exposed to public view, and the entrails burnt: the head is then cut off, and the body quartered, after which the head is usually fixed on some conspicuous place. All the criminal's lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loses her dowry, and his children both their estates and nobility. But though the sentence passed upon all traitors is the same, yet with respect to persons of quality, it is generally changed into beheading. Though coining of money is adjudged high treason, the criminal is only drawn upon a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged.

The punishment for misprision of treason, that is, for neglecting, or concealing it, is imprisonment for life, the forfeiture of all the offender's goods, and the profits arising from his lands.

Petty treason, which includes a child's killing his father, a wife her husband, a clergyman his bishop, or a servant his master or mistress, is punished by being drawn on a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged. Women guilty either of this crime or high treason, are sentenced to be burnt alive; but instead of suffering the full rigour of the law, they are strangled at the stake, before the fire takes hold of them.

Felony, which includes murders, robberies, forging notes, bonds, &c. is punished by hanging, only murderers are to be executed soon after the sentence is passed, and then delivered to the surgeons, in order to be publicly dissected, or their body hung up in chains. Persons guilty of robbery, when there are some alleviating circumstances, are frequently transported for a term of years to his majesty's plantations; and in such cases where the benefit of the clergy is allowed, the criminal is burnt in the hand with a hot iron.

Manlaughter is the unlawful killing a person without premeditated malice, but with a present intent to kill; as when two persons quarrelling, one kills the other; in this case the criminal is allowed the benefit of the clergy for the first time, and only burnt in the hand.

Chance-medley is the accidental killing of a man, without an evil intent, for which the offender is also to be burnt in the hand, unless he was doing an unlawful act, which last circumstance makes the punishment death.

Shop-lifting and receiving goods knowing them to be stolen, are punished with transportation, or burning in the hand.

Perjury and keeping disorderly houses are punished with the pillory and imprisonment.

Petty-larceny, or small theft, under the value of twelve-pence, is punished with whipping.

Striking, so as to draw blood, in the king's court, subjects the criminal to the loss of his right hand.

Striking in Westminster hall while the courts of justice are sitting, is imprisonment for life, and the forfeiture of all the offender's estate.

Drunkards, vagabonds, and loose, idle, disorderly persons, are punished by being set in the stocks, or by paying a small fine.

Formerly in several parts of England scolding women were set in a vehicle called a ducking-stool, where they were placed on high, and drawn through the town to some deep water, into which they were three times plunged, and then again carried about and exposed to the derision and contempt of the populace.

With respect to the courts of justice and the punishments of Scotland, we shall give an account of them when we come to give a more particular description of that

that country; and shall conclude this section with the divisions of the whole island, and the representatives they send to parliament.

In England there are forty counties, which send up to parliament eighty knights.

Twenty-five cities, of which London sends four and Ely none, fifty citizens.

A hundred and sixty-seven boroughs, who send two each, three hundred and thirty-four burgesses.

Five boroughs, which are Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Higham Ferrars, and Monmouth, one each, five burgesses.

Two Universities, who send four representatives.

Eight Cinque ports, as Hastings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, and their three dependents, Rye, Winchelsea, and Seaford, two each, sixteen barons.

In Wales are twelve counties, which send twelve knights.

Twelve boroughs, which send twelve burgesses.

In Scotland, thirty shires, which send thirty knights.

And fifteen boroughs, who send fifteen burgesses.

In all five hundred and fifty-eight representatives.

We shall now proceed to give a particular description of the counties of England, beginning at the south-east.

S E C T. VII.

Of E N G L A N D.

Of the County of Kent; its Name, Situation, Extent, Air, Produce, and principal Rivers. The Inhabitants have particular Privileges. A Description of Canterbury, Rochester, Chatham, Maidstone, Dover, Tunbridge, Deal, Isle of Thanet, Gravesend, Woolwich, Greenwich, and Deptford.

AS this part of the island lies nearest the continent, it was first invaded by the Romans from thence, when it was called by Cæsar Cantium, which it is thought they derived from the British word Caine, a green leaf, to express the verdure of the woods, or to shew the situation of the country, which projects into a point eastward. The county of Kent is bounded on the north by the river Thames, which divides it from Essex and Middlesex; on the east by the Downs; on the south-east by the English Channel; on the south by Sussex; and on the west by Surry. Its extent from the utmost point in the east to its western extremity is sixty miles, its breadth from Rye in Sussex to the mouth of the Thames is thirty-six, and it is a hundred and sixty-six miles in circumference.

The air of this county is subject to be unhealthy; however, the higher parts enjoy a very healthful air, but are not so rich as the lower. As the county lies much upon the sea, the air, though generally thick and foggy, is pretty warm, and often purified by south and south-west winds. The whole shore, from Woolwich to Gravesend, is low, and spread with marshes and unhealthy grounds, except some places where the chalk-hills almost join the river.

The county in general abounds with plantations of hops, fields of corn, pastures, fine orchards of cherries, and pippins; woods of oak, beech, and chefnuts; and in several places are woods of birch, from whence the broom-makers in Kent-street, Southwark, are supplied. Here are mines of iron, pits of marl and chalk, and the cattle here are larger than in the neighbouring counties. Here are several parks of fallow deer, and warrens of grey rabbits. The chief commodities are corn, fruit, particularly pippins and cherries, woad and madder for dying, hops, flax, saintfoin, samphire, cattle, fowl, and fish, especially trout, for which the town of Fordwich on the river Medway is famous.

The chief river of Kent is the Medway, which rises in the weald of Sussex, and enters Kent near Penshurst, running chiefly to the north-east by Tunbridge, Maidstone, and Rochester, below which, being of proper breadth and depth, it forms the noble dock of Chatham, where it is navigable for the largest men of war, and then falls into the mouth of the Thames. In this county is also the famous medicinal springs of Tunbridge.

The inhabitants justly value themselves on their courage and resolution in defending their liberties against the several invaders of Britain; they in particular surprised William the Conqueror, and with the utmost bravery offered him battle, unless he consented to confirm their ancient privileges; on which he prudently chose the latter. The principal of these privileges is, that of gavelkind; which consists in the following particulars: 1. The heirs-male share all the lands equally. 2. The heir at fifteen is at full age to sell or alienate. 3. When a man is convicted of treason, his son cannot on that account be deprived of his birth-right. and 4. The lands of a brother, if he has no issue, shall be shared by all the surviving brethren.

This county contains a hundred and sixty-three vicarages, four hundred and eight parishes, and above eleven hundred and seventy villages. It is divided into five lathes, under each of which are several hundreds, in which are said to be about forty thousand houses, and two hundred thousand inhabitants. It sends sixteen members to parliament, two knights for the shire, and two for each of the following cities and boroughs, Canterbury, Rochester, Maidstone, Queenborough, Dover, Romney, and Sandwich. The principal places in this county are the following:

Canterbury, the metropolitan see of all England, situated fifty-six miles to the south-east of London, and fifteen to the north-west-by-west of Dover. It is said, with little appearance of truth, to have been built nine hundred years before the birth of our Saviour: however, it is probable that it was a place of some note at the landing of Julius Cæsar, as it has several marks of antiquity of about that time. After the Romans left Britain, Vortigern, king of the Britons, resided here, till he surrendered it up to the Saxons, who made it the capital of the kingdom of Kent, in the Saxon heptarchy. In this condition it was when St. Augustine, the monk, being sent from Rome, first preached the Christian faith to the English. It was then made an archiepiscopal see, and flourished greatly, from its being the source from whence the doctrines of the church of Rome were spread to the rest of the Saxon kingdoms.

This city is a county of itself, and the corporation consists of a mayor, a recorder, twelve aldermen, a sheriff, twenty-four common-council-men, a mace-bearer, a sword-bearer, and four serjeants at mace. A court is held every Monday in the guild-hall for civil and criminal causes, and every other Tuesday for the government of this city.

The cathedral has been twice burnt down; the present structure, which was begun in the reign of king Stephen, and finished in that of Henry V. is a noble Gothic pile, five hundred and fourteen feet in length, seventy-four in breadth, and eighty in height, from the nave to the roof: its middle tower, which may be seen at a great distance, is two hundred and thirty-five feet in height. In this church are interred the bodies of seven kings and seven archbishops of Canterbury, including Augustine, whom they immediately succeeded, and who lie buried in one vault. The immense wealth offered by votaries and pilgrims from all parts for several ages to Becket's shrine was so great, that, according to Erasmus, his chapel shone with the richest jewels, and gold was one of the meanest things that adorned his shrine. King Henry VIII. seized all this wealth, with the lands and revenues both of the monastery and church, except those he annexed for the maintenance of a dean, an archdeacon, twelve prebendaries, and six preachers, whom he placed in it on his turning out the monks.

Under the cathedral is a large church of foreign Protestants, given by queen Elizabeth to the Walloons who fled hither from the Netherlands on the persecution raised against them by the duke of Alva, and their congregation has been since much increased by the Protestants who fled from France in the reign of Lewis XIV. so that it is computed that here are no less than two or three thousand French Protestants. The houses of the prebendaries, with many other good buildings, stand in a very spacious close, where are several ruins of religious houses.

This city has undergone many changes, both by war and fire: it had strong walls, built chiefly of flint, with many towers, a deep ditch, and a great rampart. The castle, whose decayed bulwarks appear on the south side of the city, is supposed to have been built by the Saxons. The two gates of St. Augustine's monastery that were next the town are remaining, and are both very stately. The site of this monastery, which took up a great compass of ground, is encompassed with a very high wall.

The city has six wards, denominated from its six gates, and, besides the cathedral, has fifteen parish churches, two charity-schools, and seven hospitals, with a jail for criminals. Here is also a sumptuous conduit, that is of great benefit to the inhabitants. Though this city appears round at a distance, it is an exact cross, and consists of four streets, which center at St. Andrew's church in the middle, and is about three miles in circumference, including the gardens and cathedral. Its buildings are not very grand; but there is a good market-house, over which are rooms where the mayor, aldermen, &c. transact the affairs of the corporation. What has added most to the advantage of the city are the hop-grounds round it, which cover several thousand acres; so that till it was equalled by Farnham, it was esteemed the only great plantation of hops in the whole island. This city and Shrewsbury are the two most noted places in England for collars of brawn.

Rochester, an ancient city, stands in a valley on the banks of the river Medway, which washes its west side, twenty-seven miles to the north-west-by-west of Canterbury, and thirty to the south-east-by-east of London. It is the see of the most ancient bishopric of England, next to Canterbury; and to its cathedral belong a dean and six prebendaries. The city is governed by a mayor, recorder, and eleven aldermen, twelve-common councilmen, a town-clerk, three serjeants at mace, and a water-bailiff. The stone bridge of twenty-one arches over the river is a very fine one, and has strong iron-work on the copings; it being built by Sir John Cobham and Sir Robert Knowles, who employed the rich spoils they had acquired by their valour in France in this noble work. It has only three parish-churches, besides the cathedral; the town-house and charity school are two of the best buildings: in the town here is also a mathematical school, founded by Sir Joseph Williamson, and an alms-house founded by Sir Richard Watts, for the relief of six poor travellers, who are supplied with a supper, a bed, and breakfast, with four-pence to carry them forward on their journey. The town, which chiefly consists of one broad, but ill-built street, is encompassed on some of its sides with walls, but they are not very strong. The ancient military-way called the Watling-street, runs directly through it to Dover.

In several of the creeks and branches of the Medway, within the jurisdiction of this city, there is an oyster-fishery, which is free to every one who has served seven years apprenticeship to any fisherman, or dredger, that is free of that fishery. The mayor and citizens hold what is called an admiralty-court once a year, or oftener, for regulating the fishery, at which courts they appoint when oysters shall and shall not be dredged and taken, which they term *opening and shutting the grounds*. Persons who dredge for oysters without being free of the fishery are called cablehangers, and are tried and punished by that court.

Chatham may be considered as a suburb to Rochester, it lying on the other side of the river, and is famous for its being a station of the royal navy. The dock was begun by queen Elizabeth, and improved by her successors, who have added new docks, mast houses, boat-houses, and several store-houses, one of which is six hundred and sixty feet in length, boat-yards, anchor-yards, forges, foundries, canals, and ditches for preserving the masts and yards in the water; so that there is not a more complete arsenal; and the ware-houses and store-houses are formed into streets of great length. Here are two commissioners, with other officers, to take care of the navy, the store-houses, rope-yards, &c. and all the places set apart for the works belonging to the shipping resemble a well ordered city; so that with all the appearance of hur-

ry there is not the least confusion. The private buildings, as the houses of the sea-officers, directors, inspectors, and workmen of the royal navy, are well built, and some of them very stately. This place gives the title of baron to his grace the duke of Argyle and Greenwich. The chest of Chatham is supplied by a portion of each man's pay in the navy, which furnishes a fund, out of which such disabled seamen as receive no benefit from Greenwich hospital have a small annual annuity. An hospital has been also erected here for the relief of ten or more aged and maimed mariners or shipwrights.

It ought not to be omitted that the entrance into the river Medway is defended by Sheerness and other forts, and that in the year 1757, by the late duke of Cumberland's direction, several additional fortifications were begun at Chatham; so that now the ships are in no danger of an insult either by land or water. This town has a church, a chapel of ease, and a ship used as a church for the sailors. The houses, which are mostly low, amount to only about five hundred. The streets are narrow and paved, and it contains about three thousand inhabitants.

Maidstone received its name from the river Medway, which is navigable hither by large barges and hoys of about fifty or sixty tons burthen, and is a large, populous, and neat town, twenty-four miles to the west of Canterbury, and thirty-six south-east-by-east of London. From its situation in the center of Kent, it is very proper for the county business, which is all transacted here. It sends two members to parliament, and is governed by a mayor, twelve assistants called jurats, and twenty-four commoners. Its chief trade is in linen-thread, and in hops, of which there are large plantations about the town, as well as orchards of cherries. It gives the title of viscount to the earl of Winchelsea and Nottingham, who is lord of the manor. It has a fine stone bridge, and four charity-schools. The town and the adjacent country enjoys such plenty of provisions, that London is supplied from hence with more commodities than from any single market-town in England, particularly with large Kentish bullocks, wheat, great quantities of hops, apples, and cherries, timber, a sort of paving-stone about eight or ten inches square, and the fine white sand for glass-houses and stationers.

Dover, which is situated fifteen miles to the south east of Canterbury, and seventy-one from London, has for many ages been a famous passage between this island and France, and still subsists chiefly on that account. It was anciently rendered a place of great importance by a strong castle built on the high cliff, said to be begun by Julius Cæsar, and completed by Arviragus, a British king, in the reign of the emperor Claudius. The additions made to this fortress were so remarkable, and its situation so secure by nature, that before the Conquest it was esteemed the bulwark and key to the whole island. When this place was at the height of its magnificence it had seven churches, which are now reduced to two, and twenty-one wards, each of which furnished a ship of war, and maintained it forty days at its own expence. In consideration of this service each ward had a licence packet-boat, and the fare, according to the Tower records, was settled in the reign of Edward II. for a single person in summer six-pence, in winter one shilling: for a horse in summer eighteen pence, and in winter two shillings. Dover is likewise famous as a cinque-port, in which the business of the other four, and their dependencies, is transacted: their privileges are very extensive, and were granted them in consideration of the ships of war they were obliged to furnish. The other cinque-ports are Hastings, Hythe, Romney, and Sandwich. Among other privileges the burgesses of the cinque-ports are stiled barons; they carry the canopy at the coronation, which they have afterwards for their fee; and at the feast have a table at the king's right hand. This town consists of one street a mile long, very ill paved. One of the other streets is called Snare-gate, from the dreadful rocks of chalk which hang over it. A well in the castle is sixty fathoms deep, and is round, large, and lined to the bottom with free-stone. The remains of the royal palace, the chapel, stables, and offices, shew the whole

whole to have been very magnificent. Here is a brass gun of excellent workmanship, said to be the longest in the world, it being no less than twenty-two feet in length. It was presented by the states of Utrecht to queen Elizabeth, and is called her pocket-pistol; it requires fifteen pounds of powder, and the people here say will carry a ball seven miles.

Tunbridge received its name from the stone bridges over the five branches of the Medway, of which the Tun is one, and is seated twenty-nine miles south-east-by south of London. This place is remarkable for its wells, which are four or five miles south of the town, but in the same parish, and are resorted to by the nobility and gentry in June, July, and August; and which are situated for the most part in the parish of Tunbridge, between two hills, named Mount Sinai and Mount Ephraim, both covered with good houses, and gardens abounding in fruit. The principal well is walled in, and neatly paved like a cistern. From it run two paved walks, one of which forms a long gallery covered over, in which the band of music play, and here the company walk in bad weather. Here is also a row of shops and coffee-rooms, where is card-playing and the like, and also a dancing-room. On the other side is a good market, and behind the wells is a large chapel, where divine service is performed twice a day, during the season of drinking the water. When the company have taken their draught at the wells they go home about nine o'clock to dress, and at ten some of the company resort to the chapel, and others to the coffee-houses; but after prayers they all appear on the walks in the greatest gaiety and splendor, the music playing all the time, while the gentlemen and ladies divert themselves with raffling, hazard, drinking of tea, and walking till dinner-time: in the afternoon the bowlers divert themselves on the green. At night the company return to the shops on the walks, where many play till midnight: there are also balls four times a week, and any gentleman that pleases may dance. In the chapel just mentioned seventy poor children are taught and maintained by the contributions of the company at the wells. The water is a chalybeate, which operates by urine and perspiration, and is of great efficacy in cold, chronical diseases, weak nerves, and bad digestion. The air is here excellent, and provisions of all sorts very reasonable. There is plenty of wild-fowl, as pheasants, partridges, woodcocks, snipes, quails, and particularly the little delicious bird called the wheat-ear; and as for fish they have excellent of almost every kind.

Deal, called Dola by Julius Cæsar, who landed here in his second descent upon Britain, is a handsome large town, seated near the sea, and a member of the cinque-port of Sandwich, from which it is seven miles distant, and seventy-five to the east-by-south of London. Here almost all ships bound from foreign parts to London, or from thence to foreign parts, by way of the Channel, generally stop. The town carries on some foreign trade, and is defended by two castles; that of Sandown on the north is composed of four lunettes of very thick arched work of stone, with many port-holes for great guns. In the middle is a great round tower, with a cistern at the top, and underneath it an arched cavern bomb-proof. It has a church, a chapel, and about a thousand houses, which are mostly low and built with brick; these form three long but narrow streets, and the inhabitants amount to about four thousand five hundred. Here is a charity-school for twenty-seven boys and girls, who are taught and clothed at the expence of the inhabitants.

As no manufacture is carried on here, the trades-people chiefly depend on the sea-faring men who resort thither.

The Isle of Thanet is on the north and east bounded by the sea, and on the south and west by a branch of the Stour. It is eight miles in length, and four in breadth. The soil is chalk, and is very fruitful in corn and grass; it is therefore a fine country, and has the title of an earldom. It contains several villages, with the sea-port towns of Margate and Ramsgate; but though it has fifteen or sixteen hundred families, it has hardly any gentlemen's houses. On the north-east point of this island is the promontory of the North Foreland, which, by a line drawn due north to the Naze in Essex, makes the mouth of the river Thames, and all the towns and har-

bours from hence, whether on the Kentish or Essex shore, are called members of the port of London.

Gravesend, a town twenty-two miles to the east of London, is situated on the Thames opposite to Tilbury fort, about six miles to the east of Dartford, and about the same distance from Rochester. In the reign of Richard II. the French and Spaniards sailed up the Thames to this town, and having plundered and burnt it, carried away most of the inhabitants. To remedy this loss the natives of Gravesend and Milton were allowed the sole privilege of carrying passengers, by water from hence to London at two-pence per head, or four shillings the whole fare; but the fare is now raised to nine-pence per head in the tilt-boat, and one shilling in the wherry. The former must not take in above forty passengers, and the latter no more than ten. The watermen's company of London are obliged to provide officers at Billingsgate and Gravesend, who at every time of high water, by night and day, are, at their respective places, to ring publicly a bell set up for that purpose, during fifteen minutes, to give notice to the tilt-boats and wherries to put off; and coaches ply at Gravesend at the landing of people from London to carry them to Rochester. King Henry VIII. raised a platform here, and at Milton, and these towns were incorporated by queen Elizabeth by the name of the portreeve, the jurors, and inhabitants of Gravesend and Milton; but the name of portreeve has been changed to that of mayor. The whole town being burnt down in 1727, the parliament granted five thousand pounds for rebuilding its church. This parish, with that of Milton, contains about seven hundred houses, which are mostly small and built with brick; the streets are also narrow, but paved with flints, and it has a great number of houses of entertainment. Here is a handsome charitable foundation, Mr. Henry Pinnock having, in 1624, given twenty-one dwelling-houses, and a house for a master weaver to employ the poor, and a good estate is also settled for the repairs.

Great improvements have been made in the lands near this town, by turning them into kitchen-gardens, with the produce of which Gravesend not only supplies the neighbouring places for several miles round, but also sends great quantities to the London markets, particularly of asparagus, that of Gravesend being preferred to that of Battersea. As all outward-bound ships are obliged to anchor in this road till they have been visited by the custom-house officers, and as they generally stay here to take in provisions, the town is full of seamen, and in a constant hurry.

Woolwich, a town situated on the Thames, nine miles to the east of London, is famous for its fine docks and yards, where men of war are built, as also for its vast magazines of great guns, mortars, bombs, cannon-balls, powder, and other warlike stores. The docks are encompassed with a high wall, and there is a long rope-walk, where the largest cables are made for the men of war. On the lower part of the town is the warren, where between seven and eight thousand pieces of ordnance have been laid up at one time for ships and batteries; besides innumerable mortars and bomb-shells. Here is also the house where the fire-men and engineers prepare their fire-works, charge bombs, carcasses, and grenades for the public service. The town has been of late years much beautified and enlarged with fine docks, rope-yards, and spacious magazines. It has an academy where the mathematics are taught, and young officers instructed in the art of navigation. The parish-church has been rebuilt in a handsome manner, as one of the fifty new churches erected in pursuance of the bounty of queen Anne for that purpose.

Greenwich, a very pleasant town, is situated on the Thames, five miles from London, and has been the birth-place of several of our monarchs, particularly queen Mary and queen Elizabeth, and here king Edward VI. died. Their palace was first erected by Humphrey duke of Gloucester, who named it Placentia: this palace was enlarged by Henry VII. and completed by Henry VIII. but was afterwards pulled down by king Charles II. who began another, a most magnificent edifice, and lived to see the first wing of it finished. Of this palace

we shall soon give a particular description in treating of the hospital, of which it is a part. The same prince also enlarged the park, walled it round, planted it, and caused a royal observatory to be erected on the top of a steep hill. This structure was erected for the use of the celebrated Mr. Flamsteed, and it still retains the name of that great astronomer. King Charles also furnished it with mathematical instruments for astronomical observations, and a deep dry well for observing the stars in the day-time. That which is at present called the palace, is an edifice of no great extent, and is now converted into apartments for the governor of the royal hospital, and the ranger of the park. The park is well stocked with deer, and affords a noble and delightful view of the fine hospital, the river Thames, and the city of London.

Greenwich is said to contain one thousand three hundred and fifty houses, and its parish church, which was rebuilt by the commissioners for erecting the fifty new churches, is a very handsome structure dedicated to St. Alphage: at the end of the town is a college fronting the Thames, for the maintenance of twenty decayed house-keepers, twelve out of Greenwich, and eight who are to be alternately chosen from Snottisham and Castle-Rising in Norfolk. It is called the duke of Norfolk's college, though founded and endowed by Henry earl of Northampton, the duke of Norfolk's brother, and by him committed to the care of the Mercers company. The pensioners, besides meat, drink, and lodging, are allowed eighteen-pence a week, with a gown every year, linen every two years, and hats once in four. Here is also an hospital called queen Elizabeth's college, which was built and founded by Mr. Lambard; and in this parish are two charity schools, one founded by Sir William Boreman, knt. for twenty boys, who are clothed, boarded, and taught; they wear green coats and caps; and the other by Mr. John Roan, who left his estate for teaching also twenty boys reading, writing, and arithmetic, and allowed two pounds per annum for each of the boy's cloaths. These wear grey coats.

The first wing of the noble and superb edifice called Greenwich hospital was, as hath been observed, erected by king Charles II. for a palace, and indeed the whole can scarcely be taken for any thing less than the palace of a great monarch. King William III. however, being very desirous of promoting the trade, navigation, and naval strength of this kingdom, by inviting great numbers of his subjects to betake themselves to the sea, gave this noble structure, and several others, with a considerable spot of ground, for the use of those English seamen and their children, who by age, wounds, or other accidents, should be disabled for farther service at sea, and for the widows and children of such as were slain in fighting at sea against the enemies of their country. The same prince also appointed commissioners for carrying on his noble views, and desired the assistance of his good subjects to enable him to carry them on. In conformity to this request, many benefactions were made to this noble charity, which, according to the tables hung up at the entrance of the hall, amount to fifty-eight thousand two hundred and nine pounds, and afterwards the estates of the earl of Derwentwater, who bore a principal part in the rebellion in 1715, amounting to six thousand pound per annum, were given by parliament to this hospital. The first range had cost king Charles II. thirty-six thousand pounds, and another was ordered to be built on the same model opposite to it: this has been completed with equal magnificence.

The front facing the Thames consists of these two ranges of stone buildings, with the governor's house in the back part in the center, behind which the park, well planted with trees, rises with a noble ascent. These buildings, between which is a large area, perfectly correspond with each other, and each range is terminated by a very noble dome. In each front to the Thames two ranges of coupled Corinthian columns finely wrought, support their pediments, and the same order is continued in pilasters along the building. In the center of each part between these ranges of columns is the door, which is of the Doric order, and adorned above with a tablet

and pediment. Within the height of these lofty columns are two series of windows enlightning two floors. The undermost, which are the smallest, have rustic cases, crowned with pediments; while the upper series, which are larger and more lofty, are adorned with the orders, and with upright pointed pediments. Over these is an Attic story; for the entablature of the Corinthian columns and pilasters supports a regular Attic course, in which the windows are regularly disposed, and the top is crowned with a handsome balustrade. The buildings continued from these, and facing the area, correspond with them, though in a finer and more elegant manner. In the center of both is a range of columns supporting a pediment, and at each corner a range of Corinthian pilasters, the front is rusticated, and there are two series of windows. The domes at the end, which are one hundred and twenty feet high, are supported on coupled columns, as are the porticos below, and under one of these is the chapel, which is adorned on the inside with the greatest elegance and beauty. In the center of the area is a statue of his late majesty fixed on a pedestal; and on the sides of the gate which opens to these buildings from the park, are placed a large celestial and terrestrial globe, in which the stars are gilt.

The hall of this hospital is finely painted by Sir James Thornhill, particularly the ceiling and upper end; on the latter are represented in an alcove, the late princess Sophia, king George I. king George II. queen Caroline, the queen dowager of Prussia, Frederic prince of Wales, the duke of Cumberland, and the five daughters of his late majesty. On the ceiling of the alcove are king William and queen Mary, with several fine emblematical figures. All strangers who see this fine hall pay two-pence each, and this income is applied to the support of the mathematical school for the sons of sailors.

For the better support of this hospital, every seaman, both in the royal navy and in the merchants service, pays six-pence per month, which is stopped out of the pay of all sailors, and delivered in at the six-penny receiver's office on Tower-hill; whence any seaman who can produce an authentic certificate of his being disabled by defending any ship belonging to his majesty's British subjects, or in taking any ship from the enemy, has a right of being admitted into this hospital, and receive the same benefit from it, as if he had been in the king's immediate service. There are at present near two thousand old or disabled seamen, and an hundred boys, the sons of seamen, instructed in navigation, and bred up for the service of the royal navy; but there are no out-pensioners as at Chelsea. Each of the mariners has a weekly allowance of seven loaves, weighing sixteen ounces each, three pounds of beef, two of mutton; a pint of pease, twenty ounces of cheese, two ounces of butter, fourteen quarts of beer, and one shilling a week tobacco money; the tobacco money of the boatwains is two shillings and six-pence a week each; that of their mates eighteen-pence, and that of other officers in proportion to their rank. Besides which, each common pensioner receives once in two years a suit of blue clothes, a hat, three pair of stockings, two pair of shoes, five neck-cloths, three shirts, and two night caps. The hospital has about one hundred governors, composed of the nobility and great officers of state.

Deptford, anciently called West-Greenwich, is said to have derived its name from its having a deep ford over the little river Ravensborne, near its influx into the Thames, where it has now a bridge. It is a large and populous town four miles east of London, and is divided into Upper and Lower Deptford, which together contain two churches, several meeting houses, and about one thousand nine hundred dwelling houses. It is mostly remarkable for its noble dock, where most of the royal navy were formerly built and repaired, till it was found more convenient to build the larger ships at Woolwich, Chatham, and Portsmouth; there is a greater depth of water: yet the yard is enlarged to more than double its former dimensions, and a great number of men are constantly employed. It has a wet dock of two acres for ships, and another of an acre and an half; with vast quantities of timber and other stores. There are also extensive buildings, as store-houses and offices, besides dwelling

dwelling houses, for those officers who are obliged to live upon the spot, in order to superintend the works. It had a victualling house built in 1745, which in 1749 was burnt down, with great quantities of provisions and naval stores. The royal yachts are generally kept here, and near the dock is the seat of Sir John Evelyn, called Say's Court, where Peter the Great, Czar of Muscovy, resided for some time, and in this yard completed his knowledge in the practical part of naval architecture.

In this town are two hospitals, one of which was incorporated by king Henry VIII. for the use of seamen, and is called Trinity-House. This contains twenty-one houses, and is seated near the church. The other, called Trinity Hospital, has thirty-eight houses fronting the street. This is a very handsome edifice, and has large gardens belonging to it. Though this last is the finest structure, yet the other has the preference on account of its antiquity; and as the brethren of the Trinity hold their corporation by that house, they are obliged at certain times to meet there for business. Both these houses are for decayed pilots, or masters of ships, or their widows, the men being allowed twenty shillings, and the women sixteen shillings per month.

S E C T. VIII.

Of the County of Sussex; its Situation, Extent, Air, Soil, and face of the Country. Its produce, with a Description of the little Bird called a Wheatear; its Rivers, and principal Towns, as Chichester, Lewes, and Arundel.

SUSSEX received its proper name from the Saxons; for this being the most southern part of the island, they called it and Surry the kingdom of the South Saxons, whence this county has by abbreviation been called Suffex. It is bounded on the north by Surry, on the north-east and east by Kent, on the south by the English channel, and on the west by Hampshire. It is about fifty-three miles in length, sixteen in breadth, and one hundred and seventy-two in circumference.

The air in this county is very various: along the sea-shore it is thought agreeable; but it has a much greater effect on strangers than on the natives, who are generally very healthful. In the Weald, which is a rich deep soil, it is apt to be foggy, yet not unwholesome; but upon the Downs the air is extremely sweet and healthy. The soil is likewise various; that of the Downs, and from them to the sea, is very fertile, both in corn and grass, the latter feeding sheep whose wool is remarkably fine; the middle of the county abounds with meadows and rich arable ground, and the north side is shaded with extensive woods, that supply fuel for the iron works. This plentiful county therefore supplies numerous commodities, the chief of which are corn, malt, cattle, wool, wood, iron, chalk, glass, fish, and fowl. It is particularly famous for its wheatear, a small delicious bird, of the size of a lark, not much inferior to an ortolane, and is taken on the south-east downs in the following manner: a turf is cut up about a foot long and half a foot broad; in the cavity is placed a snare of horse hair, and the turf turned with the grass downwards to cover the greatest part of the hole. These birds are naturally so timorous, that the shadow of a cloud, or any thing that moves on the ground, makes them fly into these little pits for shelter, where they are taken. The season for them is when the wheat ripens; but they are so very fat that they cannot be carried many miles without being tainted, and even in plucking them great care must be taken to handle them as little as possible.

The chief manufactures of this county are great guns, and several sorts of work made in cast or wrought iron; the best gunpowder in the world is said to be made at Battle.

This county has few ports on account of its rocky shore, and its shelves and sand-banks, which the south-west winds, so common upon our coast in the winter, are continually augmenting.

It is divided into six rapes, each of which has its particular castle, river, and forest, and is sub-divided into sixty-five hundreds, in which are computed one city,

eighteen market-towns, one hundred and twenty-three vicarages, three hundred and twelve parishes, one thousand and sixty villages, hamlets, and chapelries, twenty one thousand five hundred and thirty-seven houses, and about one hundred twenty-nine thousand souls.

The principal rivers are the Arun, the Adur, the Ouse, and the Rother. The Arun rises in St. Leonard's forest, not far from Horsham, in the north-edge of the county, and after running a little way to the westward, turns due south, passing by Arundel, about three miles below which it falls into the sea. This river has lately had a new outlet cut for it in order to improve its navigation, which carries barges above Pulborough, and ships of a hundred tons as high as Arundel. Here are caught the mullets so much esteemed; they come from the sea in the summer season in vast shoals, and feeding upon a particular weed in this river, acquire that high luscious taste which renders them so great a dainty. The Adur, also called the Beeding, has likewise its source in St. Leonard's forest, forming its course on the same points of the compass as the Arun; but on its approaching the sea, turns four or five miles to the east, and then forms the harbour of New Shoreham. The Ouse rises from two branches, one of which has its spring in St. Leonard's forest, near the source of the Arun, the other in the forest of Worth, but they soon unite to the southward by Lewes, and run to the sea, forming the harbour called New-Haven. The Rother rises near Rotherfield, and runs mostly eastward; but about six miles to the north of Rye, makes an angle to the southward, and falling into the sea, forms Rye-Haven. From so many rivers one good harbour at least might be expected for the largest ships; but none of them will admit of a vessel of five hundred tons. The principal places in this county are the following:

Chichester, by the ancient Britons called Caerrei, and by the Saxons Cissanceaster, is seated in a plain on a little rivulet called Lavant, sixty-three miles to the south-west of London. It is a compact neat town, encompassed by a stone wall, the four gates answering to the four cardinal points, from whence the streets have their names, and meet in the center of the city, where is the market-place, which affords a view of the four gates. The cathedral is adorned on one side with pictures of all the kings and queens from Cissa, the son of Ella, the first king of the South Saxons, to the present time; and on the other are placed the portraits of all the bishops. The spire is deservedly admired for its workmanship, and some years ago afforded a convincing proof of the skill of the architect; for a flash of lightning striking upon it, about forty-five feet from the top, made a very large breach, by driving out the stones, and carrying several of them, which were even of a ton weight, to a considerable distance; but notwithstanding this shock the spire stood firm, which saved the body of the church, and it is now well repaired. Besides the cathedral there are seven small churches, built with flint stone. What is now called the Friars, was formerly a convent of Franciscans, but was originally a castle and seat belonging to the earls of Arundel. The streets are generally pretty broad, the houses uniform, and tolerably well built. Chichester is a city and county of itself, and the corporation consists of a mayor, recorder, fourteen aldermen, six bailiffs, twenty-seven common-council men, and a portreve; four justices of the peace are chosen out of the aldermen, and the mayor is annually elected by ballot of the aldermen and common-council, who put up two persons, and is attended by four serjeants at mace and a crier. The market-place is adorned with a stately cross, and on Saturdays furnished with plenty of all provisions, especially fish, and great quantities of corn. Every Wednesday fortnight here is also one of the greatest cattle markets in England. This city, as well as Southampton, gives title of earl to the duke of Cleveland, and has two charity schools, one for forty-two boys, and the other for twenty girls, who are taught and clothed. There are several houses of the nobility near this city, which have a delightful prospect of the sea.

Lewes, a town said to receive its name from the Saxon word Lefwa, or Pasture, is a place of great antiquity,

as appears from king Athelstan's having appointed his royal mint to be kept here. It is pleasantly situated, fifty miles to the south of London, on the edge of the south Downs, on one of the most delightful spots that England affords, and contains six parish churches, built with flint stone, and about six thousand two hundred inhabitants. It is adorned with the seats of the Pelhams, the Gages, the Shellys, and other persons of rank and fortune, whose gardens join to each other, though for the most part up and down hill. Near it are the remains of its ancient castle. The streets are handsome, and it has two suburbs, the one called Southover, which is the largest, and the other on the east side of the river called Cliff, from its lying under a chalky hill. A little river runs through the midst of the town, bringing goods in boats and barges from a port at eight miles distance. On this river are several iron works, where cannon are founded for merchant ships. Public horse races are run here almost every summer; but the road from hence to Tunbridge is so deep and dirty, that it is said the ladies are sometimes drawn to church in their coaches by six oxen. Lewes is governed by two constables; it sends two members to parliament, and has a good market on Saturdays.

Here, in 1264, a bloody battle was fought between king Henry III. and his barons, when the latter entered and plundered the town.

From a windmill near the town is a prospect of the sea for thirty miles west, and an uninterrupted view of Bansted Downs, which is full forty miles. Between this town and the sea is good winter game for a gun, and several gentlemen here keep packs of hounds; but the hills are so steep, that it is dangerous following them.

Arundel, a town eight miles to the east of Chichester, and fifty-five south-west-by-south of London, seems to derive its name from the river Arun, on which it is seated, and from whence it is supplied with the excellent mullets already mentioned. It is pleasantly situated on the side of a hill, and has a stately wooden bridge over the river, at a convenient distance from the sea. It gives title of earl to the duke of Norfolk, and is governed by a mayor, twelve burgeses, a steward and other officers, and sends two members to parliament. The ancient castle is seated on the river Tame, and is said to be a mile in compass. The town has two streets paved with stone, in which are about two hundred houses also built of stone, and about 800 inhabitants.

Horsham is a town about three miles out of the main road to Arundel, and has its name from Horfa, brother to Hengist the Saxon, and is one of the largest towns in the county: it has sent members to parliament ever since the thirtieth of king Edward I. and is the place where the county jail is held, and sometimes the assizes. It has a handsome parish-church, and a free-school well endowed. A great number of poultry are brought up to its weekly market on Saturdays, and bought up for London. Here is a quarry of very good stone fit for flooring.

Rye, a pretty populous sea-port town seated on the side of a hill, sixty-four miles to the south-east-by-south of London, and has a delightful prospect of the sea. It was walled in the reign of Edward III. and was well fortified by William d'Ypres, earl of Kent; a tower called by his name is the prison of the town. It has one of the largest parish-churches in England, and enjoys the same privileges as the other cinque-ports; but the port is so choaked up with sand, that it hardly affords entrance for the smallest vessels. The corporation consists of a mayor and jurats, and sends two members to parliament. It has a town-hall, and three streets paved with stone. One side of the town is walled in, and the other guarded by the sea. It has two gates, and is a place of considerable trade, particularly in hops, wool, timber, kettles, cannon, chimney-backs, &c. The houses are pretty well built, though generally old fashioned; but there are some very neat ones of the modern taste. In the reign of king Richard II. the French landed and burnt this town; but the people of Rye soon fitted out some ships, and, in conjunction with those from other ports, took seven of their vessels richly laden.

Winchelsea was once a considerable town, built in the time of king Edward I. after a more ancient town of the same name, that stood at two or three miles distance, and had eighteen parishes, but was swallowed up by the sea in a terrible tempest. New Winchelsea was never equal to the Old; it was encompassed with a rampart, and afterwards with a wall; but no sooner began to flourish, than it was sacked by the French and Spaniards, and being abandoned by the sea, which retired a mile distant, suddenly fell to decay. Though the streets are paved, the grass which grows in them is some years let for four pounds, and little more at present remains than the skeleton of a very handsome town: the streets standing all at right angles, were divided into thirty-two squares, or quarters. Some of the stone-work of three gates is still to be seen, though they are three miles asunder over the fields, and in many places of the town are vaults arched with stone. Near the town are large marshes, which the inhabitants are at great expence in defending from the encroachments of the sea, by great banks of earth and walls. Here were formerly three parish-churches; but only the chancel of one of them is now standing, which is more than large enough for the inhabitants. This borough is incorporated by the name of the mayor, jurats, and commonalty; and though there are only a few houses remaining in the upper part of the town, it sends two members to parliament, and gives the title of earl to the noble family of the Finches.

S E C T. IX.

Of the County of Surry; its Name, Situation, Extent, Air, Soil, Produce, and Rivers; with a Description of its principal Towns and Seats, and particularly of the Palace and Gardens of Richmond.

THIS county obtained its name from its situation on the south side of the Thames, and is bounded on the east by Kent; on the south by Suffex; on the west by Hampshire and Berkshire; and on the north by the river Thames, which divides it from Middlesex. The country, which is almost square, is thirty-four miles in length, twenty-one in breadth, and a hundred and twelve in circumference, containing about thirty-five thousand houses, a hundred and forty parishes, eleven market-towns, including Southwark, thirty-five vicarages, four hundred and fifty villages and hamlets, and a hundred and seventy-one thousand inhabitants.

It is a healthy pleasant country, on which account there are many of the nobility and gentry who have their seats there. The soil is very different in the extreme parts from that in the middle, whence it has been compared to a coarse cloth with a fine list: for the edge of the county on all sides has a rich soil, extremely fruitful in corn and grass, particularly in Holmesdale, and on the north towards the Thames; but it is far otherwise in the heart of the country, where are wide tracts of sandy ground and barren heath, and in some places are long ridges of hills, with warrens of rabbits and parks for deer. However, we meet here and there with some delightful spots interspersed in the middle of Surry, and it is not to be doubted that a great deal of the waste ground might, by proper management, be greatly improved. This country produces corn, box-wood, walnuts, hops, and fullers-earth; and near Dorking grows a wild black cherry, of which a very pleasant wine is made, little inferior to French claret. It has been observed of this part of Surry, that the natives are generally of a pale complexion, resembling the people of Picardy in France; and that even the cattle are of a lighter colour than is usual in other parts of England.

The rivers in this county, besides the Thames, are the Mole, the Wey, and the Wandle. The Mole, or Mole, rises in the southern border of Surry, and forms a course mostly south-east and south, till it reaches the Thames at Molesey. It is remarkable of this river, that at the foot of Box-hill, near a village called Mickleham, it works its way under ground like a mole, rising again at or near the town of Leatherhead, where its streams are united, and form a pretty large river running under Leatherhead bridge; and thus pursues its course to the

Thames,

Thames, which it joins at Molesey, and from this circumstance it obtained the name of the Mole. The Wey rises in Hampshire, and enters this county near Farnham, winding very much till it has passed Godalming, when it begins to run mostly southward. This river has been made navigable to Guilford, by which means all the neighbouring parts are plentifully supplied with commodities from London, particularly coals, which have been much wanted here. The Wandle is a small clear stream famous for its trouts; it rises near Carshalton, and runs southward to the Thames, into which it discharges itself at Wandsworth. The principal places in this county are the following:

Guilford, or Guildford, is a considerable market-town thirty miles to the south-west of London, where the assizes are sometimes held, and always the elections for members of parliament for the county, the town itself returning two. The river Wey being made navigable to this town, as hath already been observed, adds greatly to its trade; and a considerable quantity of timber being brought from the woody parts of Suffex and Hampshire to this town by land-carriage, is conveyed from thence by this river to London. It has three parish-churches: that which is called the Upper Church, by the fall of the steeple, had its roof beat in, on the twenty-third of April, 1740; the steeple had been repaired not long before; but a farther decay being discovered, the workmen had begun to take it down, but luckily for them it was a fair-day, and they had leave to divert themselves that afternoon; the roof was struck in with such impetuosity, that by the sudden pressure of the air all the glass-windows were blown out, as if it had been done by a blast of gun-powder. Here is a school founded by Edward VI. and an alms-house by George Abbot, archbishop of Canterbury, for the maintenance of a master, twelve brethren, and eight sisters, who have each half a crown a week. There are here also two charity-schools for thirty boys, and twenty girls. Here are likewise the ruins of an old castle, and some of the remains of a palace of great extent, which appears by the best authorities to have been the residence of Ethelwald, one of the Saxon kings. Here were formerly two or three convents, one of which was not long ago the seat of Daniel Coswell, Esq; and had a delightful park adjoining to it. Here is a fine circular course for horse-races, which begin when the Newmarket races are ended. Guilford had formerly a considerable manufacture of cloth, of which there are still some remains. The great road from Chichester and Portsmouth lies through the town, which has always been famous for good inns, clean linen, and other excellent accommodations.

The road from hence to Farnham is very remarkable, it running along the ridge of a high chalky hill no wider than the road itself, and the declivity begins on either hand at the edge that bounds the highway, and is very steep and high. From this hill is a surprising prospect to the north and north-west over Bagshot-heath; to the south-east into Suffex; and to the west it is so unbounded, that the view is only terminated by the horizon. On this hill, which is called St. Catharines, stands the gallows in such a position, that the inhabitants of Guilford may, from the High-street, sit at their shop-doors and see the criminals executed.

In the road from Guilford to Epsom, which is fifteen miles, you meet with a town almost at every two miles distance, in or near which is a handsome seat. The road is always good, it being a very hard gravel. On the right hand of the road lie the Downs, which have constantly a great number of sheep feeding on them; and on the left the parks, gardens, and cultivated fields belonging to the several gentlemen who inhabit those seats, all which render the road extremely agreeable.

Cobham is a small town situated on the river Mole, six miles from Epsom, and eight to the south-west of Kingston, in the road from Guilford to London. Near this town are several fine seats, particularly one belonging to the lord Ligonier; and another the seat of Mr. Bridges, which is built in a singular taste, somewhat after the manner of an Italian villa, though very plain on the outside. The principal rooms are richly ornamented; the ceilings are gilt; and the offices below are not only convenient, but contrived with great judgment, so as to

answer the purposes for which they were designed. As the house is situated on an eminence, it commands a view of the adjacent fields, which are kept in good order. The river Mole passes along by the sides of the gardens, and being made here four times broader than it was naturally, has a happy effect, especially as the banks are disposed into a slope, with a broad grass walk planted on each side with sweet shrubs. At one end of this walk is an elegant room, which is a delightful retreat in hot weather, it being shaded with large elms on the south side, and having the water on the north and east sides, is extremely cool and pleasant.

Darking, a town twelve miles to the east of Guilford, and twenty-four to the south-west of London, is famous for its meal-trade and its market for poultry, particularly for the fattest geese and largest capons, which are brought hither from as far as Horsham in Suffex, it being the business of all the country on that side, for many miles, to breed and fatten them; and some are so large as to be little inferior to turkeys. The town stands on a rock of soft sandy stone, in which are dug convenient cellars. The great Roman highway called Stony-street passes through the church-yard, and is plainly traced two miles to the south of Okeley, and appears to be made of flint and pebbles. This is a prodigious work, it being from seven to ten yards broad, and near a yard and a half deep, which is the more remarkable, as in some places there is not a flint stone to be seen within a great distance.

In the neighbourhood is a hill which affords a most enchanting prospect, and is much resorted to by the gentry from Epsom: it is called Box-hill from the abundance of trees, arbours, and labyrinths of box upon it, especially to the south, though on the north side it is almost covered with yew trees; it was first planted with box trees by that famous antiquary Thomas earl of Arundel.

About six miles from Box-hill and five miles to the south of Darking, is Leith-hill, which projects about two miles beyond a range of hills that terminates the North Downs to the South. "When I saw, says a late writer, "from one of those hills, at about two miles distance, that "side of Leith-hill which faces the Northern Downs, "it appeared the beautifullest prospect I had ever seen; "but after we conquered the hill itself, I saw a sight "that would transport a stoic: a sight that looked like "inchantment and vision. Beneath us lay open to our "view all the wilds of Surrey and Suffex, and a great "part of that of Kent, admirably diversified with woods "and fields of corn and pasture, being every where adorned with stately rows of trees. This beautiful vale "is about thirty miles in breadth, and about sixty in "length, and is terminated to the south by the majestic "range of the southern hills: and it is no easy matter to "decide, whether these hills, which appear at thirty, "forty, and fifty miles distance, appear more awful and "venerable, or the delicious vale between you and them "more inviting. About noon in a serene day you may, "at thirty miles distance, see the very water of the sea "through a chasm of the mountains. And that which "above all makes it a noble prospect, is, that at the same "time you behold to the south the most delightful rural "landscape in the world; and by a little turn of your "head towards the north you look full over Box-hill, "and see the country beyond it; and between that "and London, and over the very stomacher of it, see "St. Paul's at twenty five miles distance, and London "beneath it, with Highgate and Hampstead beyond it."

The vale beneath Box-hill is for many miles to the east and west called Holmefdale, which is now chiefly overgrown with furze; but was famous for producing such quantities of strawberries, that they were carried by horse-loads to market.

Kingston, also called Kingston upon Thames, to distinguish it from several other towns of the same name, is thus called from its having been the residence of several of our Saxon kings, some of whom were crowned on a stage in the market-place. It is a populous and well-built town, and in the reigns of Edward II. and III. sent members to parliament. It has a spacious church with eight bells, and in it are the pictures of the Saxon kings

who

who were crowned here, and also that of king John, who gave the inhabitants of this town their first charter. Here is also a wooden bridge of twenty-two arches over the Thames; a free school erected and endowed by queen Elizabeth; an alms-house built in 1670 by alderman Clive for six men and as many women, and endowed with land to the value of eighty pounds a year; and a charity-school for thirty boys, who are all clothed. The summer assizes for this county are generally held here. Besides the above bridge, is another of brick over a stream that flows from a spring, which rises four miles above the town, and within the distance of a bow-shot from its source forms a brook, that turns two mills. On the top of a hill is a gallery that overlooks the town. A house in this town, called Kircomb's Place, was the seat of the famous earl of Warwick, stiled The Setter up and Puller down of Kings. Here is a good market for corn, and the town carries on a considerable trade.

Essex, a village situated near Walton upon Thames, and affording a fine prospect of Hampton-court and other parts of Middlesex, is famous for the noble seats in and near it, particularly Essex-Place, which was the seat of the late Henry Pelham, Esq; The house is a Gothic structure of a brownish red brick, with stone facings to the doors and windows. This house was originally one of those built by cardinal Wolsey, but the late Mr Pelham rebuilt the whole, except the two towers in the body of the house, which are the same that belonged to the old building; and the whole is rebuilt in the same stile of architecture. There is a fine summer-house erected upon a hill on the left hand as you enter, which commands a view of the house, park, and country round, on both sides the Thames, for many miles. The park, in which the house is situated, appears plain and unadorned; but in one part of it is a little wilderness laid out in walks, and planted with a variety of evergreen trees and plants, with a grotto in it, and seats in different places. The wood in the park is well disposed, and consists of fine oaks, elms, and other trees; and the whole country round appears finely shaded with woods.

Richmond, which stands twelve miles from London, is esteemed the finest village in the British dominions, and hence has been termed the Fescati of England. It was anciently the seat of our monarchs, and the palace, for its splendor, was called Shene, which in the Saxon tongue signifies resplendent. Here king Edward III. died of grief for the loss of his brave son Edward the Black Prince; and here died Anne the wife of Richard II. who first taught the English ladies the use of the side-saddle; for before her time they rode astride. Her dying here gave Richard such a dislike to the place, that he defaced it; but it was repaired and beautified by king Henry V. In 1497 this palace was destroyed by fire, when king Henry VII. was there; but in 1501 that prince caused it to be rebuilt, and commanded that the village should from thence forward be called Richmond, from his having borne the title of earl of Richmond, before he obtained the crown. That prince died there, as did also his grand-daughter, queen Elizabeth.

The present palace, which is finely situated, is a plain edifice, erected by the duke of Ormond, who obtained a grant of a considerable space of land about Richmond from king William III. as a reward for his military services; but it devolved to the crown on that duke's attainder, in the beginning of the reign of king George I. His late majesty took great delight here, and made several improvements in the palace; while queen Caroline amused herself at her royal dairy, Merlin's cave, the hermitage, and other improvements which she made in the park and gardens of this delightful retreat. Though the palace is unsuitable to the dignity of a king of England, the gardens are extremely fine, without offering a violence to nature, and almost every thing here has an agreeable wildness, and a pleasing irregularity, which affords a much higher and more lasting satisfaction than the stiff decorations of art, where the artist loses sight of nature, which alone ought to direct his hand.

On entering these rural walks you are conducted to the dairy, a neat but low brick building, to which there is an ascent by a flight of steps, and in the front is a handsome pediment. The walls on the inside are covered with

stucco: the house is furnished suitably to a royal dairy, and the utensils for the milk are of the most beautiful china. On passing by the side of a canal, and through a grove, the temple presents itself to view, situated on a mount. It is a circular dome, crowned with a ball, and supported by Tuscan columns, with a circular altar in the middle, and to it is an ascent by very steep slopes.

Returning by the dairy, and crossing the gravel walk which leads from the palace towards the river Thames, you come to a wood which you enter by a walk terminated by the queen's pavilion, a neat elegant structure. In another part of the wood is the duke's summer-house, which has a lofty arched entrance. On leaving the wood you come to the summer-house on the terrace, a light small building, with very large and lofty windows, to give a better view of the country, and particularly of the noble seat called Sion-house. In this edifice are two good pictures representing the taking of Vigo by the duke of Ormond.

On passing through a labyrinth you see near a pond Merlin's cave, a thatched Gothic structure, within which are the following figures in wax; Merlin, an ancient British enchanter; the learned queen Elizabeth, and a queen of the Amazons. Here is also a library, consisting of a choice collection of the works of modern authors, neatly bound in vellum. On leaving this structure, which has an antique and venerable appearance, you come to a large oval five hundred feet in diameter, and turning from hence have a view of the hermitage, a grotesque building, which appears to have stood many hundred years, though it was built by order of her late majesty. It has three arched doors, and the middle part, which projects forward, is adorned with a kind of ruinous angular pediment; the stones of the whole edifice appear as if rudely laid together, and the venerable look of the whole is improved by the thickness of the solemn grove behind, and the little turret on the top, with a bell, to which you may ascend by a winding walk. The inside is in the form of an octagon, in which are the busts of the following great men, who by their writings were an honour not only to their country, but to human nature. The first on the right hand is the incomparable Sir Isaac Newton, and next to him the justly celebrated Mr. Locke. The first on the left hand is Mr. Woolaston, the author of *The Religion of Nature displayed*; next to him is the Rev. Dr. Samuel Clarke, and in a kind of alcove the honourable Mr. Robert Boyle.

Upon leaving this seat of contemplation, you pass through fields clothed with grass, corn fields, and a wild ground interspersed with broom and furze, which afford excellent shelter for hares and pheasants, and here there are great numbers of the latter very tame. From this pleasing variety, in which nature appears in all her forms of cultivation and barren wildness, you come to an amphitheatre composed of young elms, through which you pass to the forest walk, which extends about half a mile, and then passing through a small wilderness you leave the gardens.

At the extremity of the garden on the north-east, is another house that belonged to her late majesty, and near it the house of his late royal highness Frederic prince of Wales, which is on the inside adorned with stucco. Opposite the prince's house is the princess Amelia's, built by a Dutch architect, the outside of which is painted. To the west of the gardens is seen the fine houses of several of the nobility and gentry, particularly the lady Buckworth's, and Mr. Geoffrey's, and on the other side of the Thames appears Isleworth.

To return to the village of Richmond. The green is extremely pleasant, it being surrounded with lofty elms, and adorned on each side with the houses of persons of distinction. Among these is a handsome edifice that formerly belonged to Sir Charles Hedges, and since to Sir Matthew Decker, in the gardens of which is said to be the longest and highest hedge of holly ever seen, with other hedges of evergreens, vistas cut through woods, grottos, fountains, a fine canal, a decoy, summer-house, and stove-houses, in which the anana or pine-apple, so often mentioned in our treating of Asia, was first brought to maturity in this kingdom. On the north-east side of the green is a fine house, which belonged to the late Mr.

Heydigger,

Heydigger, and a little beyond it that of the late duke of Cumberland, on passing which you come to a small park belonging to his majesty, well stocked with deer, and opposite to it is the entrance into the gardens. On the side of this green has also been erected a theatre, in which plays are acted during the summer season.

The village runs up the hill to the New-Park, and with the royal gardens slopes towards the Thames. There is here an alms-house, built by Dr. Duppa, bishop of Winchester, in the reign of king Charles II. in pursuance of a vow made by that prelate, during that prince's exile, for ten poor widows. There is another alms-house endowed with above 100*l.* a year, which, since its foundation, has been considerably encreased by John Mitchell, esq. Here are also two charity schools, one for fifty boys, and the other for fifty girls.

On the ascent of the hill are wells of a purging mineral water, frequented during the summer by a great deal of good company. On the top is a most extensive and beautiful prospect of the country, interspersed with villages and inclosures; the Thames is seen running beneath, and the landscape is improved by the many fine seats scattered along its banks.

New-Park is situated between Kingston and Richmond, and was made in the reign of king Charles I. It is the largest of any within the environs of London, except that of Windsor, for it is said to be eleven miles in compass, and enclosed with a brick wall. In this park is a small hill cast up, called king Henry's Mount, from which is a prospect of six counties, with a distant view of the city of London and of Windsor castle. The new lodge, built by the late earl of Orford, is an elegant structure built of stone, in a square form, with wings on each side of brick. It stands on a rising ground, and affords a good prospect of the park, especially of a fine piece of water that is in it. Though this park has little more than a wild variety of natural beauties, yet these are such as cannot fail of pleasing those who are as much delighted with views in their rudest appearance, as in all the elegance of art and design.

Walton, a village situated on the Thames, eight miles to the west of Kingston, and opposite to Shepperton in Middlesex. It is said that the last mentioned county was joined to this town, till about three hundred years ago, when the old current of the Thames was changed by an inundation, and a church destroyed by the waves. There is here a curious bridge over the Thames, erected by that public-spirited gentleman Samuel Decker, esq. and completed in the year one thousand seven hundred and fifty. It consists of only four stone piers, between which are three large arches of beams and joists of wood, strongly bound together with mortises, iron pins, and cramps; under these three arches the water constantly runs; besides which are five other arches of brick-work on each side, to render the ascent and descent the more easy; but there is seldom water under any of them, except in great floods; and four on the Middlesex side are stopped up, they being on high ground, above the reach of the floods. The middle arch, when viewed from the river, affords an agreeable prospect of the country, beautifully diversified with wood and water, which is seen through it to a considerable distance. The prodigious compass of this great arch fills a person below with an uncommon sensation of awe and surprise; and his astonishment and attention are increased on his observing, that all the timbers are in a falling position, for there is not one upright piece to be discovered; and at the same time considers the very small dimensions of the piers by which the whole is supported. In passing over the bridge, when you have proceeded past the brick-work, the vacant interstices between the timbers, yield at every step a variety of prospects, which at the center are seen to a still greater advantage. But though each side is well secured with braces, and rails eight feet high, yet as it affords only a parapet of wide lattice-work, and the apertures seem large enough to admit the passage of any person to go through, provided he climbs or is lifted up, and as the water is seen through every opening at a great depth below, those unused to such views can hardly approach the side without some apprehensions. These openings are purposely left to admit a free passage for the air, in

order to keep the timbers the more sound, and that the least decay may be the more easily perceived, and repaired.

Epsom, a handsome well built town, sixteen miles from London, abounds with genteel houses, which are principally the retreats of the merchants and citizens of London, and is a delightful place, open to Banstead Downs. The town extends about a mile and a half in a semicircle, from the church to lord Guilford's fine seat at Durdan's; and as Mr. Whatley observes, there are so many fine fields, meadows, orchards, and gardens, that a stranger would be at a loss to know, whether this was a town in a wood, or a wood in a town. Its mineral waters, which issue from a rising ground nearer Ashsted than Epsom, were discovered in 1618, and soon became very famous; but though they have not lost their virtue, they are far from being in the same repute as formerly; however, the salt made of them is valued all over Europe. The hall, galleries, and other public apartments, are now run to decay, and there remains only one house on the spot, which is inhabited by a countryman and his wife, who carry the water in bottles to the adjacent places. Horse-races are annually held on the neighbouring downs, and there are many fine seats in this neighbourhood, besides Durdan's already mentioned, as the earl of Berkshire's, lord Baltimore's, the lady Fielding's, &c.

Croydon, a pleasant town on the edge of Banstead Downs, ten miles to the south of London, is pretty large, and inhabited by many citizens from London. Among the other buildings is the ancient palace of the archbishops of Canterbury, several of whom have been interred in the church, particularly archbishop Whitgift, who built and endowed an hospital for a warden and twenty-eight men and women, and a school for ten boys, and as many girls, who are clothed and taught. This town has a great corn-market on Saturdays, chiefly for oats and oatmeal, for the service of London.

Southwark, a borough of considerable extent, contains nine parishes, and sends two members to parliament; but as it may rather be considered as a suburb to London, we shall therefore defer any farther description of it till we come to that city.

Dulwich, a very pleasant village in Surry, five miles from London, where is a spring of medicinal water. The fine walk opposite to the Green Man, through the woods, affords from the top of that house a very noble prospect; but it is much exceeded by that from a hill behind the house, where under a tree, distinguished by the name of The Oak of Honour, you have a view of the houses, churches, and other edifices, from Chelsea to Putney, with all the adjacent villages, together with Westminster, London, Deptford, Greenwich, and over the metropolis as far as Highgate and Hamstead.

Dulwich is most famous for its college, founded and endowed in 1619, by Mr. William Alleyn, who named it The College of God's Gift. This gentleman being a comedian and principal actor in many of Shakespeare's plays, it is said, he once personating the devil, was so frightened at his imagining that he saw a real devil on the stage, that he from that moment quitted the theatre, devoted the remainder of his life to religious exercises, and founded this college for a master and warden, who were always to be of the name of Alleyn, or Allen; with four fellows, three of whom were to be divines, and the fourth an organist; and for six poor men, as many poor women, and twelve poor boys, to be educated in the college by one of the fellows as schoolmaster, and by another as usher. To this college belongs a chapel, in which the founder himself, who was several years master, lies interred. The master of this college is lord of the manor for a considerable extent of ground, and enjoys all the luxurious affluence and ease of the prior of a monastery. Both he and the warden must be unmarried, and are for ever debarred the privilege of entering that state, on pain of being excluded the college; but as the warden always succeeds upon the death of the master, great interest is constantly made by the unmarried men of the name of Allen, to obtain the post of warden.

The original edifice is in the old style of building; but

but part of it has been lately rebuilt with greater elegance, out of what has been saved from the produce of the estate. The master's apartments are very richly adorned with noble old furniture, which he is obliged to purchase on his entering into that station; and for his use there is a library, to which every master generally adds a number of books. The college is also accommodated with a very pleasant garden, adorned with walks, and a great profusion of fruit trees and flowers.

Lambeth, a village seated on the Thames, near the south-end of Westminster-bridge, is particularly famous for its containing for several ages, the palace of the archbishop of Canterbury. This structure was first erected by Baldwin, archbishop of that see in 1188, and was rebuilt by archbishop Boniface in 1250; but several of the succeeding prelates have added additional buildings. Hence, as the present structure has been erected at different periods, it is not at all surprising, that it has but little appearance of uniformity. However, the edifice, though old, is in most parts strong; the corners are faced with rustic, and the top surrounded with battlements: the principal apartments are well proportioned, and well enlightened. As it is situated on the bank of the Thames, it affords a fine view up and down the river, and from the higher apartments, a prospect of the country each way. This palace has a fine library, and a spacious garden abounding in fruit trees.

Vauxhall, a hamlet in the parish of Lambeth, is particularly famous for the beauty of the gardens, that have for many years been converted, during the spring and summer seasons, into a place of genteel entertainment. In the midst of the garden is a superb orchestra, containing a fine organ and band of music, with some of the best voices, and the seats or boxes are disposed to the best advantage with respect to hearing the music. In most of the boxes are paintings from the designs of Mr. Hayman; and in a large and superb pavilion, are several paintings by the hand of that ingenious artist. The trees are scattered here with a pleasing confusion. At some distance are several noble vistas, where the spaces between each are filled up with neat hedges, and on the inside are planted flowers and sweet smelling shrubs. Some of these vistas terminate in a view of ruins; others in a prospect of the adjacent country, and others are adorned with a painted representation of triumphal arches. There are here several statues, particularly a good one in marble by Mr. Roubiliac, of the late Mr. Handel, in the character of Orpheus, playing on a lyre. When it grows dark, the garden is instantly illuminated with about fifteen hundred glass lamps, which glitter among the trees, and render it extremely light and brilliant. Soon after a very extraordinary piece of machinery is exhibited on the inside of one of the hedges, near the entrance into a vista; by removing a curtain is shewn a fine landscape, illuminated by concealed lights, in which the principal objects that strike the eye are a cascade and a miller's house. The exact appearance of water is seen flowing down a declivity, and turning the wheel of a mill; it rises up in foam at the bottom, and then glides away. This moving picture attended with the noise of the water, has at once a surprising and pleasing effect; but the author of *London and its Environs*, a very useful and entertaining work, justly observes, that "here people being obliged to wait till the curtain is drawn, and after beholding it for a few minutes, having it again suddenly concealed from the view, when the exhibition is ended for that night, has too much the air of a raree-show. He adds, that if it could be contrived to make its appearance gradually with the rising of the moon in the same picture, which might seem to enlighten the prospect, and at length by degrees become obscured by the passing of a cloud before that luminary, the effect would perhaps be much more agreeable."

Farnham, a large populous market town, seated on the river Wye, on the eastern extremity of Surry, and forty-one miles to the west-south-west of London, was once the greatest corn-market in England, except Hempstead and London, particularly for wheat, of which vast quantities used to be brought here every market-day; but though its corn-market is dwindled, its plantation of hops are so much improved, that its trade in that ar-

ticle is superior to that of Canterbury, Maidstone, and many of the places in Kent; and the hops here being of superior goodness, yield a better price than any other in England: indeed all the country about Farnham may be considered as one general hop-ground. At this town is a castle built by a bishop of Winchester, which is said to have been possessed in a constant succession by the bishops of that diocese, ever since the reign of king Stephen. This palace is a magnificent structure in the Gothic taste, deeply moated, and strongly walled in, with towers at proper distances. It stands upon the edge of a hill, and has a fine park stocked with about seven hundred head of deer, the property of the bishop, who has them sent, together with fruit from the gardens, to supply his table at Chelsea. One large and broad street of the town at the bottom of the hill, fronts the castle, in which is an elegant music room. The rest of the town principally consists of a long strait street, which crosses it at right angles.

About two miles from Farnham, is More-Park, formerly the seat of Sir William Temple, who in his last will ordered his heart to be put into a china basin, and buried under a sun-dial in the garden, which was accordingly performed. This house is situated in a valley, surrounded on every side with hills, and having a running stream through the gardens. Going from this seat on the left-hand under a high cliff, is a famous natural grotto, which they call Mother Ludloe's Hole, through which runs a strong rill of water. The grotto is large; but diminishes and winds away as the spring seems to have directed. The owner has paved the bottom with a kind of Mosaic tile, and has separated the wider part from the narrower behind, by a little parapet, through which issues the stream of water, which glides through marble troughs one below another, till it is conveyed out of the grotto, and there murmuring down a considerable declivity over many artificial steps, falls into the river on the right-hand. From this grotto you command a fine prospect of the meadows and woods, which lie below and over against it, and these are again bounded by hills, which render the whole one of the most romantic situations imaginable.

S E C T. X.

Of Hampshire or Hants; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Climate, Produce, Rivers, and principal Places.

THIS county, though called Hampshire, or Hants, is properly the county of Southampton, and is bounded on the east by Surry and Suffex, on the south by the British channel, on the west by Wiltshire and Dorsetshire, and on the north by Berkshire. It extends sixty-four miles in length from north to south, thirty-six from east to west, and is about one hundred and fifty miles in circumference. It is divided into thirty-nine hundreds, and contains nine forests, twenty-nine parks, one city, eighteen market-towns, 253 parishes, above thirty-six thousand houses, and by the most modest computation a hundred and eighty thousand inhabitants, who elect twenty-six members of parliament, two for the county, two for the city of Winchester, and two for each of the following towns, Southampton, Portsmouth, Petersfield, Yarmouth, Newport, Stockbridge, Andover, Whitchurch, Lymington, Christchurch, and Newtown.

The air is mild and wholesome; but a small part, which consists of the low grounds next the sea, is subject to the sea vapours; but without the bad effects usually experienced in other countries. The soil is generally rich, and the county affords plenty of corn, cattle, wool, bacon, wood, iron, and honey. The sheep are remarkably good, but small, and valued both for their flesh and wool. The bacon of this county is esteemed the best in England, and its honey, except that gathered on the heaths, bears a high price; and of this the inhabitants make most excellent mead and metheglin. The excellency of the Hampshire bacon is attributed to the swine being supplied with plenty of acorns from the New Forest and other woods, in which they are suffered to run at large. The sea-coast here furnishes oysters, lobsters, and other

other sea-fish, and its rivers abound in fresh fish, especially trouts. There is no county in England so well wooded as this; and though the vast consumption of timber at Portsmouth, Southampton, Redbridge, and other places, since the Revolution, in building men of war and smaller vessels, has consumed great quantities, yet there is no want of timber, a great deal being still left growing; and in New Forest there are oaks of several hundred years growth.

The rivers of this county are the Avon, which enters it at Charford, and running southward discharges itself into the sea below Christchurch: the Tese, which rises in the northern part of Hampshire, and running also southward forms several islands at Stokebridge, and falls into an arm of the sea called Southampton-water: the other rivers are the Stowre, and the Itching.

The gentry here delight much in fox-hunting, the woods and downs being proper for breeding and hunting these animals; and the best fox-hounds are said to be bred in this county. Kerseys and cloth are made here, though not in such plenty as in the neighbouring counties of Wiltshire, Somersetshire, and Gloucestershire; yet enough is made not only for home consumption, but to spare some for exportation. The convenient ports and harbours in this county have brought a good foreign trade to it. The principal places in it are the following:

Winchester, or Winton, a very ancient city, called by the Britons *Cae Gwent*, which signifies the White Town, from the chalky hills near it; and by the Saxons *Wintancester*. It is pleasantly situated in a valley between hills on the river Itching, sixty-seven miles to the west-by-north of London. This city at a distance has a venerable appearance, and yet has many modern buildings, some of them very handsome structures, as the college-schools, with the episcopal palace, built by bishop Morley. It has one spacious street; but the rest are mostly narrow, and the walls greatly decayed. The town-hall is built like an old chapel, supported by pillars, and in it are two aisles. Over the court of Nisi Prius, above the judge's seat, is fixed against the wall the pretended round table of king Arthur, with the names of the knights upon it, in such Saxon characters as no man can read. This is said to be a piece of antiquity of twelve hundred years standing; but Camden, and other authors, imagine it to be of a much later date. In former times there were in this city no less than thirty-two parish-churches, which are at present reduced to five, exclusive of the cathedral; and even these are more than are wanted. This last church is very plain on the outside, there not being, except one at the west end, either a statue, or a niche for a statue, to be seen on the outside. The tower is carried up but a very little height above the roof, and has no proper finishing, but is covered in, as if the building had been left off, which was probably the case, it being strong enough to support a very high spire. On entering at the west door, the church makes a venerable and majestic appearance; the vaulting of the roof is beautiful; but the pillars on each side are much too thick for the spaces of the arches. The entrance into the choir is by a noble flight of steps the whole breadth of the middle aisle; and the screen, which was designed by Inigo Jones, is a fine piece of architecture of the Composite order. But his thus joining the Roman to the Gothic stile is certainly a solecism in architecture. The stalls in the choir are of fine Gothic workmanship, to which the bishop's throne, erected at the expence of bishop Mew, would have been a great additional ornament, had it been Gothic and of a piece with the rest. The stone screen, where the high altar is placed, is a fine piece of Gothic work; but the angles of the niches, where formerly were images, being chipped away in order to make room for a number of urns, disgrace this fine piece.

Within this cathedral are many things worthy of observation. It was for some ages the burying-place of the Saxon, Norman, and English kings: the relics of some of these were collected by bishop Fox, and being put together into six large wooden chests, lined with lead, were placed on the great wall in the choir, three on one side, and three on the other, with an account whose bones are in each chest, namely, those of Egbert, Adulphus, Edredus, Edmundus, Canutus, and queen Emma. The

tomb-stone of William Rufus is in the midst of the choir, and his bones in a wooden chest that stands on the top of the septum, which parts the choir and the side aisles. The tomb of William of Wickham, who built this cathedral, is very spacious, lofty, and magnificent; as is also the tomb of cardinal Beaufort, brother to king Henry IV. with several others.

In the south suburb stands the college, erected by William of Wickham, which is a noble foundation. The building consists of two large courts, in which are lodgings for the masters and seventy scholars, and in the center is a very elegant chapel. In the second court are the schools, with a large cloister beyond them, and some inclosures laid open for the diversion of the scholars. There is also a great hall, where the scholars dine, and in the middle of the cloisters is a library, which is a strong stone building, well contrived to prevent fire. The scholars, after staying here a certain time, may remove to New College, Oxford, which was built by the same prelate. Not far from hence is St. Crosses, an hospital for thirteen brothers, with a daily allowance of bread and beer for poor travellers. There is here an infirmary for the reception of sick and lame, which is a very handsome modern structure, built of red brick, and supported by voluntary subscription.

In the place where the ancient castle stood, which was at the south side of the west gate, upon an eminence commanding the town, king Charles II. began a stately palace, upon which he had expended twenty-five thousand pounds, when his death put a stop to the design. The south side extends two hundred and sixteen feet, and the west three hundred and twenty-six; and this structure was so far prosecuted, that it was carried up to the roof, and covered. The principal floor of this edifice is a noble range of apartments twenty feet high, and the whole building contains no less than a hundred and sixty rooms. His late majesty king George I. made a present to the duke of Bolton of the fine columns of Italian marble, which were to have supported the grand stair-case, and were said to have been a present from the great duke of Tuscany. This structure was fitted up for the French prisoners taken during the late war.

Winchester is about a mile and a half within the walls; but it has no trade, except what is naturally occasioned by the inhabitants of the city and the neighbouring villages one with another. Here is a great deal of good company, and the many gentry in the neighbourhood add to the sociableness of the place: the clergy are also generally very rich and numerous.

The city is governed by a mayor, a recorder, several aldermen, six of whom are always justices, with a sheriff, two bailiffs, and four constables. On St. Giles's-hill, near this city, is held, on the 12th of September, one of the greatest fairs in England for horses, cheese, and leather; and another on Magdalen-hill, August the second, for the same.

Southampton, the county town, is situated seventy-eight miles to the west-south-west of London, between two rivers, the Itching on the east, and the Tese, or Anton, on the west, which falls into an arm of the sea called the Southampton-water, that is very deep, so that ships of five hundred tons have been built in it. The town has quays for the loading and unloading of merchandize, which renders it a place of good trade, and it is well inhabited by merchants and shop-keepers. It is surrounded with strong walls and a double ditch, with seven gates, and several watch-towers: it had also a strong castle to defend the harbour, placed on a high mount; but it is now in ruins. The walls of this old castle consisted of little white stones like the honey-comb on the back of oyster-shells, extremely hard, and gathered from the beach of the sea, which encompassed near half the town. At the south-east corner near the quay is a fort called the Tower, defended by some guns. Here is said to be one of the broadest streets in England, three quarters of a mile long, well paved and flagged on each side, terminating in the fine quay. It contains five parish-churches, with one for the French refugees; and an hospital called God's-house; also a free-school founded by king Edward VI. and a charity-school supported by subscription for thirty boys, who are clothed and

taught reading, writing, arithmetic, &c. In the town are four public conduits, to which water is conveyed from the neighbourhood by leaden pipes. Formerly all the Canary brought into the kingdom was obliged to be first landed here, till the London merchants, finding this an inconvenience, purchased that privilege of the corporation, and had their wines afterwards brought directly to London. Some merchants trade in Port and French wines; but their greatest dealings are with Jersey and Guernsey, and to Newfoundland for fish. The town is governed by a mayor, and the assizes are usually kept in the town-hall. This place is memorable for the expedient taken by king Canute to silence the flattery of his courtiers: for this purpose he seated himself on the bank of the river, dressed in all his regal ornaments, and commanded the tide not to approach his footstool; but it soon wetting his feet, he censured their impiety and servility in ridiculously pretending that his power was boundless.

About a mile from the town, on the bank of the Itching, is a vast pile of earth rising in the form of a cone from a wide foundation, and called Bevis Mount. This is supposed to have been an ancient fortification thrown up by the Saxons under the command of Bevis, a Saxon lord, to oppose the passage of the Danes over the river, who lay encamped on the other side. The river is not very large, but the tide forms a kind of bay just under the mount, which being contiguous to an estate belonging to the late earl of Peterborough, his lordship purchased it, and converted it into a kind of wilderness; and, as it was full of trees and brambles, cut through them several circular intricate walks and labyrinths. The mount terminates above like Parnassus in a kind of fork, and between the two peaks is a bowling-green, or pasture, adorned with fine Italian marble statues. On one side of this parterre, declining from the top of one of the peaks to the green, is planted a little vineyard exposed to the south; and on the very summit of the other stands a summer-house elegantly built, with a good cellar under it. There are as many things here fabled of Bevis, as there are in Wales and Cornwall of king Arthur; but both of them have suffered much from legendary writers.

Portsmouth, a strong sea-port town, seventy-two miles to the south-west of London, in the fiftieth degree forty-eight minutes north latitude, and in the first degree six minutes west longitude. It is the key of England on that side, and a regular fortification, at the entrance of a creek of Portsey island, which is about fourteen miles in circuit, and surrounded at high tides by the sea-water, of which salt is here made: it is also joined to the continent by a draw-bridge, where was anciently a small castle and town called Port Perus, or Port Chester, at which Vespasian landed: this town and castle stood at the upper end of the creek; but upon the retiring of the sea, the inhabitants followed it, and this gave rise to the building of the present town. Portsmouth is one of the principal places for building and laying up the royal navy, it being furnished with wet and dry docks, and vast magazines of naval and military stores: the rope-house in particular is one continued room eight hundred and seventy feet, or almost a quarter of a mile in length. The yard is defended by a good counterscarp, double moat, with ravelins in the ditch, double palisadoes, and works for covering the place where most accessible.

In Portsmouth haven a thousand sail of the largest ships may ride at anchor. The mouth, which is not much broader than the Thames at Westminster-bridge, is secured on the Gosport side by Charles's fort, James's fort, Borough fort, and Block-house fort, which has a platform of twenty great guns level with the water; on the other side by Portsmouth stands South Sea castle, and a number of additional works have been lately raised, so as to render the place impregnable. The harbour is so secured from winds, that they cannot blow from any point of the compass to the detriment of the ships at anchor in it; and is so deep, that a first rate man of war can ride at the lowest ebb without touching the ground; on the other hand, there is a boom, or chain, at its entrance, that in case of danger can be raised and fastened immediately on both sides, so as to stop any naval force; and

if attacked by sea the enemies ships must come directly under South Sea castle, and afterwards be exposed to a long train of cannon from the town and the block-house, which must rake them fore and aft, for a mile together, before they reach the haven's mouth.

A capital convenience to the harbour of Portsmouth is the safe and spacious road of Spithead, which lies between the continent of Hampshire and the Isle of Wight, and is about twenty miles in length, and in some places no less than three in breadth. It is defended from all winds blowing from the west to the south-east by the high lands of the Isle of Wight, and from the winds of the opposite quarter by the main land of Hampshire, the town of Portsmouth fronting the middle of the road. The very sands in its neighbourhood contribute to its safety; as for instance, the Spit lying to the north breaks the sea on that side, as the Horse's Bank does on the east, and No Man's Land and the Mother Bank on the south. As to the bottom, it is perfectly sound and good, and the flux and reflux of the sea repairs all the injuries done by the anchors. The limits of this road are also exactly distinguished by buoys properly placed.

The town is strong on the land-side, it being encompassed by a wall, and the many additional works that have been lately made. The men continually employed in the yard amount to at least a thousand, and their number is greatly increased in time of war. The docks and yards are, in short, a kind of marine corporation within themselves.

The situation of Portsmouth is low, and so full of water and ditches, as to be esteemed aguish. The streets are dirty, and have consequently a disagreeable smell; but the continual resort of seamen and soldiers render it always full of people, especially in time of war, when the inns and taverns are perpetually crowded; but the landlords bills are generally not the most moderate. The place is in want of fresh-water; and, though seated in a plentiful country, the great consumption makes all sorts of provisions dear; as are also lodgings and fuel. Here is a garrison and deputy-governor; the church is a large and handsome structure, and from the watch-house on the top of the steeple is a fine prospect of the harbour, as well as of Spithead, where ships ride before they come in, lying between Portsmouth and the Isle of Wight. Here is a fine new quay for laying up cannon; and also a school, founded by the government, for the instruction of youth in mathematics and navigation, to qualify them for the sea-service.

On the adjoining heath a suburb has been built, which, for number of inhabitants, and beauty of the houses, is like to exceed the town itself. It has a church, a chapel, and several meeting-houses.

The government of Portsmouth is by a mayor and aldermen, and the civil government is no more interrupted by the military than if there were no garrison; so that there are seldom any complaints, either for want of discipline among the soldiers, or want of prudence in the magistrates.

It ought not to be omitted, that on the third of July, 1760, a dreadful fire broke out at twelve in the morning in the dock-yard, in a fine pile of building; in the lower part of which were pitch, tar, oil, and turpentine; in the upper, cables, sails, and canvas: the next store-house was the spinning-house, and above it hemp: the next, where the bell hung, was a long lane piled up with decayed stores: the next to that were the rope-makers laying walk and tarring-walk, over which were sails, canvas, and ropes. The flames raged with such fury, that all these buildings were destroyed. It rained very hard all that night, and it is thought the stores caught fire by the lightning, which was very terrible, the element appearing all on a blaze. In the ware-houses that were consumed were deposited a thousand and fifty tons of hemp, five hundred tons of cordage, and about seven hundred sails, besides many hundred barrels of tar and oil; yet with all this devastation, such was the diligence exerted, and such the quantity of stores at Chatham, and in other magazines, that the loss was soon supplied without much affecting our public concerns, though in the midst of a heavy, glorious, and expensive war.

Gosport

Gosport is parted from Portsmouth by a narrow arm of the sea, and is a pretty large town that has a good trade in time of war; and has lately been improved by an hospital and some strong fortifications added to those already mentioned.

Andover, a large borough, sixty-two miles to the west-by-south of London, is a great thorough-fare on the direct western road, as well from Newbury to Salisbury, as from London to Taunton, and all the manufacturing towns in Somersetshire, by which means it is greatly enriched. It is very healthy, and pleasantly situated on the borders of the downs commonly called Salisbury-plain, and is a thriving, handsome, well-built, and populous town. Here is an hospital for six men, and a free-school.

Near this town is the village called Wey-hill, where the open down-country begins, and where is held the greatest fair for sheep in this nation, principally of ewes, for store-sheep; for the farmers of many of the neighbouring counties come here to buy: at the same time are sold great quantities of leather, hops, and cheese. This fair is held on the tenth of October.

We shall now describe the Isle of Wight, which is generally included under Hampshire. This island extends from east to west, in somewhat of an oval form: it is twenty-one miles in length, twelve in the middle where broadest, and sixty in circumference; but the sea breaks in so far on the north side, as almost to divide it into two parts. The most easterly point of the island lies opposite to Portsmouth, and the most westerly opposite the little borough of Christchurch. It is encompassed with rocks, especially towards France, of which the most noted are the Shingles and the Needles in the western point. These rocks render it in most places inaccessible; and where the shore is almost level and lies exposed, as it does towards the south-east, it is fortified by castles, forts, and block-houses.

The air is very healthy, and the soil fruitful, it producing corn enough in one year to serve the inhabitants seven; and this enables them to export great quantities to England and elsewhere. There is every where plenty of hares, rabbits, partridges, pheasants, lapwings, and variety of wild-fowl; it has two parks stocked with deer; but only one small forest, so that the inhabitants are obliged to fetch their wood from the neighbouring coasts. Through the middle of the island runs a long ridge of hills, which afford pasture for sheep, whose wool being very fine, is in great repute among the clothiers. In the north part is very good pasturage and meadow ground. The southern is in a manner all a corn country, inclosed with hedges and ditches. Here is found the best tobacco-pipe clay, and fine white sand, of which drinking-glasses are made. The inhabitants have also abundance of fish from the sea.

The natives are generally long lived, vigorous, and able to undergo much labour. The island contains four market-towns, of which three send members to parliament; four castles, fifty-two parishes, above three thousand houses, and near twenty-seven thousand souls, of which it is said five thousand are fit to bear arms. The militia are so well disciplined by their officers, that they are reckoned as good soldiers as any in the kingdom. They are divided into eleven bands, over each of which is a centurion, and the inferior officers are called vintons. There are several beacons in the island, at which continual watch is kept to give notice of the approach of an enemy.

The government of the island, which is a post of great trust, is always lodged in a general of the army, an admiral of the fleet, or some other person of high rank; and under him are all the governors of the forts and castles in the island, where a regiment, and sometimes more, are commonly kept in garrison. In ecclesiastical affairs it is subject to the bishop of Winchester, and in civil affairs to the county of Southampton. The parliamentary boroughs, which all lie on the north side of the island, are the following:

Newport, which is the principal town, and is seated in the middle of the island, eighty-five miles to the south-west of London. It was formerly called Medena, and Meden, from whence the whole adjacent country, to the

east and west of the bay, is called East and West Meden. It is a very ancient borough by prescription, but did not send members to parliament till the reign of queen Elizabeth; and its charter, by which it is now governed, was granted by king James I. It has a mayor, twelve aldermen, a recorder, and twelve burgesses. The town is large and populous, yet its church is only a chapel of ease to Carisbrooke. It is seated on the river Cowes, which falls into the sea near the town and castle of Cowes. Vessels of small burthen come up to the quays, but the larger ships are unloaded, and the merchandize brought up hither in barges. The houses are built of stone, the streets are clean, and it has a charity-school well endowed.

Yarmouth is seated upon a creek about a mile from its entrance, eight miles to the west of Newport, and is governed by a mayor, recorder, aldermen, bailiffs, and common-council. It is defended by a castle which has a garrison, and the houses, which are handsome, are generally built of stone.

Newtown, or Newton, is a little borough at the end of another small creek on the same side of the island, and is governed by a mayor and burgesses; but though it has a convenient haven, it is the most inconsiderable of all the three boroughs.

The other places of most importance are two pretty towns, both named Cowes, one on the east and the other on the west side of the river of the same name. West Cowes is the most flourishing town in the island; it is situated in fifty degrees forty-two minutes latitude, and in one degree twenty-six minutes west longitude, and has a castle built by Henry VIII. Here masters of ships, and merchants homeward or outward bound, are furnished with money for bills, and the ships supplied with stores of fresh provisions. Several merchants live here, and have handsome houses; but the town lying low is not esteemed very healthy. The castle of East Cowes has been neglected; but in that of West Cowes is constantly kept a garrison, under the command of the deputy-governor of the island. This is a place of general rendezvous for merchant ships that wait for convoys.

In the English Channel are four other islands opposite this county and subject to England; these are Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark; which, though they lie much nearer to the coast of Normandy than to that of England, are within the diocese of Winchester. They lie in a cluster in Mount St. Michael's bay, between Cape La Hogue in Normandy and Cape Frebelle in Brittany. The computed distance between Jersey and Sark is four leagues, between that and Guernsey seven leagues, and between the same and Alderney nine leagues.

Jersey, the largest of these islands, lies farthest within the bay, in forty-nine degrees seven minutes north latitude, and in the second degree twenty-six minutes west longitude, eighteen miles to the west of Normandy, and eighty-four to the south of Portland in Dorsetshire, and in the time of the Romans was called Cæsarea. It is not above twelve miles in length, nor much above six where broadest, which is at the two extremities. It is defended by rocks and dangerous quicksands. On the north side the cliffs rise forty or fifty fathoms high, which render it inaccessible on that side; but on the south the shore is almost level with the water. In the west part of the island is a large tract of land once cultivated and very fertile, but now a barren desert, caused by the west winds throwing up sand from the bottom to the top of the highest cliffs. The higher lands are diversified by gritty, gravelly, stoney, and fine mold; the lower by a deep, rich, and heavy soil. The middle part of the island is somewhat mountainous, and so thick planted with trees, that at a distance it resembles one entire forest, though in walking through it there is hardly a thicket or any thing to be seen but hedge-rows and orchards of apple-trees. The valleys under the hills are finely watered with brooks, and have plenty of cattle and small sheep, with very fine wool, and very sweet meat, which is ascribed to the shortness of the grass. The horses are good for draught; but few fit for the saddle. The island produces variety of trees, roots, and herbs; but not corn enough for the inhabitants, who therefore send for it to England and France, and sometimes to Dantzic. The fields are in-

inclosed by great mounds of earth, raised from six to eight or ten feet high, proportionably thick and solid, planted with quicksets and trees.

There is no place in the world of the same extent that produces so much cyder, it being computed that in some years they have made twenty-four thousand hogsheads, on which account, and from the cheapness of French wine and brandy, it is not worth their while to set up malting and brewing. Though the whole island is in a manner one entire rock, there is scarce a house, even on the highest hill, but has some spring near it.

Here are abundance of hares and rabbits; the country also abounds with sea-fowl, and the common sorts of land-fowl, both tame and wild, especially barnacles, or Soland geese, which come only in very cold weather. The partridges of this island have red feet and eyes, like a pheasant, and feathers of various colours. This is indeed a beautiful bird; but the flesh is not more delicate than that of the grey partridges in England. They have also a great variety of sea fish, some of which are seldom seen on our coasts.

As the air of this island is very healthy, those of the inhabitants who are temperate live to a great age; but the coast is very subject to storms by westerly winds, from which they have no land to shelter them nearer than North America; and there is a vast chain of rocks about the island, among which the tides and currents are so strong and rapid, that the navigation is extremely dangerous to those who are not perfectly acquainted with the coast.

The inhabitants, who are computed to amount to above twenty thousand, have a mixture of English and French; but French is most generally the language both of the pulpit and the bar.

The buildings of this island are generally of rag-stone; but some of the wealthy inhabitants have their houses fronted with a reddish white stone, capable of being polished like marble, and of which there is a rich quarry on a hill called Montmado. Their churches and some of their edifices are covered with blue slate; but the ordinary dwellings are thatched.

The staple manufacture is knit stockings and caps, many thousand pair of which are weekly sold at St. Helier to the merchants. Their principal foreign trade is to Newfoundland, whither, particularly in 1732, they sent twenty-four ships; these proceed from thence to the Mediterranean to dispose of their fish.

The chief officer is the governor, who has the custody of his majesty's castles, with the command of the garrisons and the militia of the country, which consists of two troops of horse-guards, and five regiments of foot, in which are included all the men in the island. The civil government is administered by a bailey, assisted by twelve jurats. They have here also what they call an assembly of the states, which resembles in miniature the parliament of Great Britain.

The island is divided into twelve parishes, which are so laid out that each has a communication with the sea; these are subdivided into fifty-two vintaines, so called from the number of twenty houses, which each is supposed to have formerly contained, just as in England ten houses anciently made a tything. The principal places in the island are,

St. Helier, the capital, is seated in the bay of St. Aubin, where it has an harbour and a stone pier. Its situation is both commodious and pleasant, having the sea on the south-west, with a full prospect of the road for ships, and hills on the north that shelter it from the cold; on the bottom of these hills are meadows refreshed by a rivulet, that enters the streets and the very houses, so that the water is easily brought up by buckets let down through a trap-door, or by pumps. Another large hill projects in a manner over the town, and has an agreeable walk and an extensive prospect. The town consists of above four hundred houses, and the streets are wide and well paved. The seat of justice stands in a large square, with handsome structures on each side. Its market, which is on Saturday, resembles a fair, it being resorted to by people from all parts of the island. The town is chiefly inhabited by shop-keepers, artificers, and retailers of liquor, it wanting scarce any thing that is either necessary or con-

venient. The corn-market is within a piazza, and the shambles in a spacious room. The number of the inhabitants is computed to amount to at least two thousand. In the church, prayers are read alternately in English and French.

St. Aubin is chiefly inhabited by merchants and masters of ships, who settled here for the sake of its port, which is the best and most frequented in the island; but is too much straitened between hills and the sea, on which account it is not half so large as St. Helier; but the houses are as neat. Its market is rather an exchange for the merchants. Its parish-church, dedicated to St. Brelande, is at such a distance, and there is such a bleak hill to pass over to it, that the better sort of inhabitants have by contribution erected a handsome chapel in the town. There is a fort here with cannon planted on its bastions, and a strong pier has been run out into the sea, which joining that fort, renders the harbour very safe, for no ships can pass within the pier without permission. Into this port a vessel of a hundred and thirty tons may enter at half flood; but larger ships and men of war must keep without in the road, where is good anchorage.

Guernsey extends from east to west in the form of a harp, and is thirteen miles and a half from the south-west to north-east, and twelve and a half, where broadest, from east to west. The air is very healthful, and the soil naturally more rich and fertile than that of Jersey; but the inhabitants neglect the cultivation of the land, for the sake of commerce: they are, however, sufficiently supplied with corn and cattle, both for their own use, and that of their ships.

The island is well fortified by nature with a ridge of rocks, one of which abounds with emery, used by lapidaries in the polishing of stones, and by various other artificers. Here is a better harbour than any in Jersey, which occasions its being more resorted to by merchants; and on the south side the shore bends in the form of a crescent, enclosing a bay capable of receiving very large ships. The island is famous for a beautiful flower called *lilium jarniense*, the leaves of which are covered with spangles resembling gold dust. It is full of gardens and orchards, whence cyder is so plentiful, that the common people use it instead of small-beer, and the more wealthy drink French wine.

The only harbour is at St. Peter le Port, a little market-town on the south-east side of the island, which has only one long and narrow street. The mouth of the harbour is well set with rocks, and on each side defended with a castle, one called the Old Castle, and the other Castle Cornet. This is generally the residence of the governor of the island, who has the command of the garrison in this and all the other castles. The harbour has a good road, from whence ships may sail with any wind, and from the road pass under the guns of the castle to the pier, close up to the town. This pier is a noble work formed of vast stones, joined together with great art and regularity: it is not only a security to the ships, but being contiguous to the town is handsomely paved at the top with large smooth flag-stones, guarded with parapets, and being of a great length and breadth, forms a pleasant walk, it affording a free prospect of the sea and the neighbouring islands. Cornet castle, which commands both the town and the harbour, stands on a rock, is separated from the land by an arm of the sea, no less than six hundred yards wide, and not fordable but at low-water in great spring tides.

Alderney is about eight miles in compass, and is by much the nearest of all these islands to Normandy, from which it is separated by a narrow freight called the Race of Alderney, which is a dangerous passage in stormy weather, when the two currents meet, otherwise it is safe, and has depth of water for the largest ships.

The island is healthy, and fruitful both in corn and pasture; but has only one church and one town, in which are about two hundred houses, and a thousand inhabitants. The island is a dependence of Guernsey, and has but one harbour to the south, called Crabbie, which is at a considerable distance from the town, and capable of receiving only small vessels. From hence to the west is a range of rocks extending three leagues, which having several eddies are dreadful to mariners, who call them all

by the name of the Casquets, from the principal rock at the head of the reef.

Sarke, or Serke, is another small island dependant on Guernsey, and in the middle of all the rest. The air is serene, and generally free from fogs and clouds; and though they have no physicians in the island, it is common to meet men of upwards of four-score years of age. It contains six fine springs, and the soil, though for the most part hot and sandy, is so fruitful as to afford all necessaries for its inhabitants, and particularly bears all kinds of roots, as turneps, carrots, &c. and is well stocked with apple-trees, of which is made excellent cyder: it also produces most kinds of grain; but not in any extraordinary quantity. Their pasture is short, though exceeding sweet, and therefore they have fine mutton; but no more cows than are sufficient to supply them with milk and butter; for they have generally their cheese from England. The island also abounds in ducks, mallard, woodcocks, teal, and other wild fowl; and the cliff-pigeons, at some seasons, almost cover the whole island. Of rabbits they have great plenty, and also of a variety of sea-fish.

The trade here extends no farther than to Bristol and some of the western ports, and the chief if not the only manufacture in the island is knitting of stockings, gloves, and waistcoats, in which the men, women, and children are employed. These they trade with to the ports of England, and return with necessaries; for which purpose they have several small vessels.

S E C T. XI.

Of Berkshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns; with a particular Description of Windsor Castle.

BERKSHIRE is bounded on the north by the Thames, which divides it from Buckinghamshire and Oxfordshire; on the east by Middlesex and Surry; on the south by Hampshire; and on the west by Wiltshire and Gloucestershire. It is thirty-nine miles in length, twenty-nine in breadth, and a hundred and twenty in circumference, containing about seventeen thousand houses, eighty-five thousand inhabitants, sixty-two vicarages, a hundred and forty parishes, six hundred and seventy-one villages, and twelve market-towns.

The whole county is divided into twenty hundreds, and sends nine members to parliament, namely, two for the county, two for New Windsor, two for Reading, two for Wallingford, and one for Abingdon.

The air is generally exceeding healthy, the soil fertile enough, where cultivated, and the whole county, which is one of the most pleasant in England, is well stocked with cattle and timber, particularly with oak and beech in the western parts, and in Windsor forest, which also abounds with wild-fowl and other game. The western part is the most fruitful, especially what is called the Vale of White-horse, so named from the bare side of a chalky hill, made to represent that animal, which, lest it should lose its shape, the neighbouring inhabitants once a year take some pains in trimming, and then conclude the day with merriment.

The chief produce of the country is corn of all kinds, particularly barley, they having great crops in the above vale, of which they make considerable quantities of malt. The rivers Thames and Kennet, the one on the north and the other on the south sides of the county, supply it with fish, especially fine large trouts and cray-fish. It is said that land in this county bears a better price than in any other at the same distance from London. Its principal manufactures consist of woollen cloth and sail cloth.

The rivers of Berkshire are the Isis, which here falls into the Thames, and is of great service in conveying its produce to London. The Kennet, which at Reading receives barges of a hundred and ten tons burthen, and is navigable as high as Newbury; and the Lamburn, which indeed is very small, but, contrary to the other rivers of this island, is always highest in summer, and gradually decreases as the winter approaches, till at last

it is entirely dry. The principal places in this county are the following:

Windsor, whose delightful situation on the winding shore of the Thames occasions its name, is a well inhabited borough twenty-four miles to the west of London, seated on the south bank of that river, in the midst of delightful valleys. Its church is a spacious ancient building, which stands in the high street of the town, in which is also the town-house, a neat regular edifice supported with columns and arches of Portland stone, having at the north end a niche in which is the statue of queen Anne, and on the south the statue of prince George of Denmark, her majesty's consort. In the area underneath the town-hall the market is kept every Saturday, and is plentifully supplied with corn, meat, fish, and all other provisions.

Many gentlemen of fortune and family constantly reside in the town and its neighbourhood. The duke of St. Alban's has a handsome large house on the east part of the town, with pleasant gardens that extend to the park; and at the south side of the town is the house of Sir Edward Walpole, a neat regular structure, with large gardens beautifully laid out and designed, where marshal Belleisle resided while prisoner in England.

This town is most celebrated for its castle, the delightful palace of the English monarchs. It was first built for a hunting-seat by William the Conqueror, soon after his being established on the throne. It was greatly improved by Henry I. who added many additional buildings. Our succeeding sovereigns resided in this structure till king Edward III. employed William of Wickham, afterwards bishop of Winchester, to rebuild the whole, which he accomplished, and enclosed it with a strong wall. Great additions were, however, made to the castle by several of our monarchs, particularly by Edward IV. Henry VII. and VIII. Elizabeth, and Charles II. This last prince entirely repaired the castle, and as he kept his court there during the summer season, he spared no expence in rendering it worthy the royal residence.

This venerable castle is divided into two courts, or wards, with a large round tower between them. The whole contains above twelve acres of ground, and has many towers and batteries for its defence. It is situated upon a high hill, which rises by a gentle ascent, and enjoys a most delightful prospect: in the front is a wide and extensive vale, adorned with meadows and corn-fields, with groves on each side, and the Thames winding through it; and behind are every where hills covered with woods, as if designed by nature for game and hunting. On the declivity of the hill is a fine terras faced with a rampart of free-stone eighteen hundred and seventy feet in length, which is one of the noblest walks in Europe, both with respect to its strength, its grandeur, and the fine and extensive prospect over the Thames of the adjacent country on every side, where, from the variety of fine villas scattered about, nature and art seem to vie with each other in beauty. From this terras you enter a fine park, which surrounds the palace, and is called the little park, to distinguish it from another much larger. This little park is four miles in circumference, and surrounded by a brick wall. The turf is of the most beautiful green, and it is adorned with many shady walks, especially that called Queen Elizabeth's, which on summer evenings is frequented by the best company. This park is well stocked with deer and other game, and the lodge at the farther end is a delightful habitation.

To return to the castle. In the upper court is a spacious and regular square, containing on the north side the royal apartments and St. George's hall; on the south and east sides are the royal apartments, those of the prince of Wales, and the great officers of state; and in the center of the area is an equestrian statue in copper of king Charles II. in the habit of one of the Cæsars, standing on a marble pedestal. The round tower, which forms the west side of this upper court, contains the governor's apartments: it is built on the highest part of the mount, and there is an ascent to it by a large flight of stone steps: these apartments are spacious and noble, and among the rest is a guard-room or magazine of arms.

The lower court is larger than the other, and is in a manner divided into two parts by St. George's chapel, which

which stands in the center. On the north or inner side are the houses and apartments of the dean and canons of that chapel, with those of the minor canons, clerks, and other officers; and on the south and west sides of the outer part are the houses of the poor knights of Windsor.

The royal apartments in the upper court are usually termed the star building, from a star and garter in gold in the middle of the structure, on the outside next the terras. The entrance is through a handsome vestibule supported by columns of the Ionic order, with some antique busts in several niches. This leads to the great staircase, which is finely painted with several fabulous stories from Ovid's *Metamorphoses*: in the dome Phaeton is represented entreating Apollo to let him drive the chariot of the sun: in large compartments in the staircase are the transformation of Phaeton's sisters into poplar-trees, and Cycnus into a swan. In several parts of the ceiling are represented the signs of the zodiac supported by the winds, with baskets of flowers beautifully disposed: at the corners are the four elements, each expressed by a variety of figures. Aurora is also represented with her nymphs giving water to her horses. The whole is beautifully disposed, and from this staircase you have a view of the back stairs painted with the story of Meleager and Atalanta.

On the top of the staircase you first enter the queen's guard-chamber, which is completely furnished with arms, beautifully ranged and disposed into various forms. On the ceiling is Britannia in the person of queen Catharine of Portugal, consort to king Charles II. seated on a globe, bearing the arms of England and Portugal, with the four grand divisions of the earth making their several offerings; and on different parts of the ceiling are heathen deities, with zephyrs, cupids, and other embellishments.

You next enter the queen's presence-chamber, on the ceiling of which is represented queen Catharine, attended by the Virtues, while Fame sounds the happiness of Britain, and below Justice is driving away Envy, Sedition, &c. The room is hung with tapestry representing the persecution of the primitive Christians.

The ceiling of the queen's audience-chamber is painted with Britannia in the person of queen Catharine in a car drawn by swans to the temple of Virtue, attended by Flora, Ceres, Pomona, &c. The room is hung with tapestry, and the canopy is of fine English velvet set up by queen Anne.

On the ceiling of the ball-room king Charles II. is represented giving freedom to Europe by the figures of Perseus and Andromeda. The tapestry, which was made at Brussels, and set up by king Charles II. represents the seasons of the year; and both this room and all the former are adorned with several pictures by the greatest masters.

The next is the queen's drawing-room, where on the ceiling is painted the assembly of the gods and goddesses: it is hung with tapestry representing the twelve months of the year, and adorned with pictures of Lot and his daughters after Angelo, and several other pieces by the great masters.

In the queen's bed-chamber the bed of state is of rich flowered velvet, made in Spitalfields by order of queen Anne, and the tapestry, which represents the harvest season, was also made at London. The ceiling is painted with the story of Diana and Endymion, and the room adorned with the pictures of the Holy family, by Raphael; Herod's cruelty, by Giulio Romano; and Judith and Holofernes, by Guido.

The next is the room of beauties, so named from the portraits of the most celebrated beauties in the reign of king Charles II. They are fourteen in number, and all original paintings, by Sir Peter Lely.

Queen Elizabeth's, or the picture-gallery, is adorned with a great number of fine paintings, among which are Rome in flames, by Giulio Romano; the pool of Bethesda, by Tintoret; a Roman family, by Titian; and two usurers, an admired piece, by the famous blacksmith of Antwerp. There is here likewise queen Caroline's china-closet, filled with a great variety of curious china, elegantly disposed. This closet is finely

gilt and ornamented, and likewise adorned with several pictures done by Holbein.

On the ceiling of the king's closet is painted the story of Jupiter and Leda; and among other curiosities this room contains a large frame of needle-work said to be wrought by Mary queen of Scots, and it is also adorned with several fine paintings, particularly Titian's daughter, by herself; a German lady, by Raphael, &c.

It would carry us to too great a length were we to describe the numerous paintings and ornaments of the king's dressing-room, bed-chamber, drawing-room, audience-chamber, presence-chamber, and guard-chamber; the ceilings being painted and the rooms adorned with admirable pictures.

St. George's chamber, which is set apart for the honour of the most illustrious order of the Garter, ought not, however, to be omitted, it being one of the noblest rooms in Europe. In a large oval in the center of the ceiling king Charles II. is represented in the habit of the order, attended by England, Scotland, and Ireland; Religion and Plenty hold a crown over his head; Regal Government is supported by Religion and Eternity, while Justice, attended by Fortitude, Temperance, and Prudence, beat down Rebellion and Faction. To the throne is an ascent by five steps of fine marble, to which the painter has added five more, with such perfection, as to deceive the sight, and induce the spectator to think them equally real. This noble room is a hundred and eight feet in length, and the whole north side is taken up with the triumphant entry of Edward the Black Prince, while Edward III. the founder of the order of the Garter, is seated on a throne receiving the captive kings of France and Scotland.

The king's chapel is no less richly adorned: on the ceiling is finely represented our Lord's Ascension; the altar-piece is adorned with a noble painting of the Last Supper, and the north side with the representation of our Saviour's raising Lazarus from the dead, his curing the sick of the palsy, and other miracles, by Verro. The canopy, curtains, and furniture are of crimson velvet; and the beautiful carved work is done by Gibbons.

St. George's chapel has always been esteemed for its neatness and beauty, and in particular the stone roof is accounted an excellent piece of workmanship; but what appears most worthy of notice is the choir: on each side are the stalls of the sovereign and knights companions of the most noble order of the Garter, with the helmet, mantling, crest, and sword of each knight set up over his stall, on a canopy of ancient carving curiously wrought; and over the canopy is affixed the banner or arms of each knight properly blazoned on silk, and on the back of the stalls are the titles of the knights, with their arms neatly engraved and blazoned on copper.

The sovereign's stall is on the right hand of the entrance into the choir, and is covered with purple velvet and cloth of gold, and has a canopy and complete furniture of the same rich materials; his banner is likewise of velvet, and his mantling of cloth of gold. The prince's stall is on the left, but has no distinction from those of the rest of the knights, they being all companions and colleagues equal in honour.

This chapel has also the monuments of several princes and of the nobility, some of which are very magnificent.

Having now finished our description of Windsor castle, we ought to take some notice of the great park, and the forest: the former lies on the south side of the town, and opens by a noble road in a direct line to the top of a delightful hill at near three miles distance. This road leads through a double plantation of trees on each side to the ranger's lodge, the residence of the late duke of Cumberland, who greatly improved the natural beauties of the park, and by large plantations, extensive lawns, new canals, and rivers, rendered this villa an habitation worthy of a prince. This park is fourteen miles in circumference, well stocked with deer and other game, with foreign beasts and birds. The new erected building on Shrub's hill is adorned beneath with a beautiful rural landscape; a noble piece of water, produced at a great expence from a small stream, capable of carrying barges and pleasure-boats, terminates in a grotto and large cascade,

cascade, and over it his royal highness erected a noble bridge consisting of one arch, a hundred and sixty-five feet wide.

The duke also greatly improved Windsor forest, which joins to the park, and has been rendered famous wherever the English tongue is understood, by the pen of the celebrated Pope. It is indeed generally barren and uncultivated, yet is finely diversified with hills and vales, woods and lawns, interspersed with pleasant villas, towns, and villages.

We shall now proceed to the principal towns, and shall begin with

Reading, which is so called from the British word Rhedim, that is Fern; which formerly grew in great quantities there. This is a very large and wealthy town, seated on the river Kennet, forty miles to the west of London, and seventy-five to the east of Bristol; but is so near the Thames, that the largest barges which they use may come up to the town bridge, where they have wharfs to load and unload them. The inhabitants carry on a very great trade, which chiefly consists in this water-navigation to and from London; and they have necessarily a great trade into the country for the consumption of the goods brought by their barges from London, particularly coals, salt, grocery-wares, oils, and all heavy goods. By these barges they send from hence to London great quantities of malt, meal, and timber. There are here three churches, which are St. Mary's, St. Laurence's, and St. Giles's, built of flint and square stones in the quincunx fashion, with tall towers of the same materials. Here are also two large meeting-houses, besides that of the Quakers. Reading contains about eight thousand people, including a little hamlet at the bridge over the Thames.

This town had formerly a famous abbey, in which the parliament of England has been sometimes held; it stood in a fine situation, and large ruins of it are still visible, built of flint: the walls which remain are about eight feet thick, though the stone that faced them is gone. There are many remnants of arched vaults, and the abbey gate is yet pretty entire. This structure was built by king Henry I. on an old abbey formerly erected by a Saxon lady: that prince was buried in it, with his queen, but their monuments are not now to be found. The town is governed by a mayor, twelve aldermen, twelve burgesses, and other officers.

Newbury is situated fifty-six miles from London, in a most fruitful plain, watered by the river Kennet, which is made navigable up to the town. The streets are spacious, and the market-place large, in which is sold a great deal of corn, and it contains a hall in which the business of the corporation is transacted. It is governed by a mayor, high-steward, aldermen, and burgesses. It has a charity-school for forty boys, and the place is noted for good trout and cray-fish: all sorts of provisions are here likewise very reasonable. Part of Newbury is known by the name of Speenham-land, it rising out of the ruins of an old town called Spine, the remains of which join to Newbury, in respect to which it was called New Borough, and for shortness Newbury. This town was anciently very famous for making woollen cloth, and the people now are generally employed in making shalloons.

Here lived the famous Jack of Newbury, the greatest clothier in England, he having a hundred looms at work in his own house. He flourished in the reign of Henry VIII. and marched at the head of a hundred of his own men, all clothed in one uniform, and maintained at his own expence, to the battle of Flodden-field, where he behaved with great bravery.

Near this town were fought two bloody battles between the army of king Charles I. and the parliament's forces, the king himself being present at both.

Maidenhead is an ancient town, twelve miles from Reading, and twenty-eight from London, under the government of a high-steward, a mayor, and ten aldermen, out of whom they annually elect two bridge-masters, to look after the large timber bridge which here crosses the Thames, for the repair of which the town has three trees annually allowed them out of Windsor forest. Maidenhead is said to be so called from one of the eleven thou-

sand virgins which the legend tells us were martyred with St. Ursula. The town is a great thorough-fare, and has many good inns, with a weekly market on Wednesday.

Wallingford is an ancient, large, and well-built town, forty-six miles to the west of London: in the town-hall the assizes are sometimes held, and there the quarter-sessions are always held for the borough. It is seated on the Thames, over which is a stone bridge of nineteen arches, and four draw-bridges. It has been surrounded with a wall a mile and a half in circumference, and had a strong castle, but it is now demolished. It had likewise four parish-churches, but two of them were destroyed during the civil wars. It has a free-school, and a handsome market-house, in which the magistrates keep the sessions, it being governed by a mayor, burgesses, &c.

Abingdon, a handsome well-built town, where the assizes, sessions, and other public meetings of the county are generally held. It has a stately market-house built on high pillars, over which is a large hall for the assizes. Here are also two churches, and the town consists of several well-built streets, which center in an open and spacious place, where the corn-market is kept. The inhabitants make great quantities of malt, which they send in barges to London. Here is a good free-school, and a charity-school founded in 1563. The corporation consists of a mayor, two bailiffs, and nine aldermen. This place was famed for religious houses in the time of the ancient Britons.

S E C T. XII.

Of Wiltshire, or Wilts; its Name, Situation, Extent, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, Divisions, &c. and principal Towns; with a particular Description of Stonehenge, and whatever is most curious in this County.

WILTSHIRE receives its name from Wilton, once its capital, which was so called from its situation on the river Willy, it being from Willy-town contracted to Wilton. It is bounded on the north-east and east by Berkshire, last described; on the south-east by Hampshire; on the south-west by Somersetshire; and on the north-west and north by Gloucestershire. Its length from north to south is near fifty-four miles, its breadth from east to west thirty-eight, and it is about a hundred and forty-two in circumference.

The air is sweet and healthy, though something sharp on the hills in winter; but it is mild during that season in the vales. The land in the northern parts is generally hilly and woody; in the southern it is rich and fertile; in the middle it chiefly consists of downs, that afford the best pasture for sheep; and in the valleys, which divide the downs, are abundance of corn-fields and rich meadows. In some places is found knot-grass near twenty feet in length, with which hogs are fed, especially about Market Lavington. Its chief commodities are sheep, wool, wood, and stone; of this last there are excellent quarries at Chilmark, on the banks of the river Nadder, where some of the stones are twenty yards in length, and four in thickness, without a flaw. The chief manufactures are those relating to the cloathing trade.

The principal rivers in Wiltshire are the Upper and Lower Avon, the Nadder, the Willy, the Bourne, and the Kennet. The Upper Avon rises near the center of the county, and running southward enters Hampshire. The Lower Avon rises in the northern edge of Wiltshire, passes by Malmesbury, and at length enters Somersetshire. The Nadder rises in the south-west point of the country, and flowing eastward to Salisbury, there joins the Avon. The Willy has its source on the western side of Wiltshire, and running towards the south-east falls into the Nadder, near Salisbury. The Bourne has its spring in the eastern limits of Wiltshire, and running to the southward joins the Avon a little below Salisbury; and the Kennet has its source near the middle of the county, and running eastward enters Berkshire. Thus is all Wiltshire supplied with rivers, which not only afford great

plenty of fish, but add to the beauty and fertility of the country in their several courses between the hills and the downs.

This county, which lies in the diocese of Salisbury, contains twenty-one market-towns, a hundred and seven vicarages, three hundred and four parishes, and nine hundred and fifty villages. It is divided into twenty-nine hundreds, which contain near twenty-eight thousand houses, and a hundred and sixty-eight thousand inhabitants. It sends thirty-four members to parliament, namely, two knights for the shire, and two burgesses for each of the following boroughs: New Sarum, Wilton, Marlborough, Old Sarum, Wootton-Basset, Luggershall, Great Bedwin, Cricklade, Malmesbury, Chippenham, Devizes, Calne, Westbury, Heytesbury, Hinton, and Downton. The principal places in this county are the following:

Salisbury, or New Sarum, is pleasantly seated at the confluence of the rivers Avon and Willy, eighty-four miles from London; it rose out of the ruins of Old Sarum, which stands on a hill a little to the north of this city, which is large, well built, and very pleasant; but its founders seem to have run from one extreme to another, for as the old city was in great want of water, this has rather too much, the water running through the middle of every street, which keeps them always wet and dirty, even in the midst of summer. The cathedral is famous for the height of its spire, which is said to be the most lofty in England, it being four hundred and ten feet from the ground, and yet the walls are so exceeding thin at the upper part of the spire, that, upon a view made by the late Sir Christopher Wren, they were found to be less than five inches thick; on which that great architect ordered it to be strengthened with bands of iron plates, which have so effectually secured it, that it is said by the best architects to be stronger now than when it was first built. This venerable structure is in the form of a cross, and cost an immense sum of money; but the work on the inside is not answerable to the numerous decorations without. The painting in the choir is mean, it being probably performed when that art was but in its infancy in this kingdom; but the carving is well executed. However, the author of the Tour through Great Britain observes, that it is rather a fine church, than finely adorned. The following lines shew the number of its windows, pillars, and gates:

As many days as in one year there be,
So many windows in one church we see;
As many marble pillars there appear,
As there are hours throughout the fleeting year;
As many gates as moons one year do view:
Strange tale to tell, yet not more strange than true!

There are some very fine monuments in this church; particularly in what is called the Virgin Mary's chapel, is a noble one of the late duke and duchess of Somerset. The cloyster is a hundred and sixty feet square, and the inner cloyster thirty feet wide. Over the east part of the cloyster is a spacious library. The cathedral, with the close adjoining, where the prebendaries live, make a noble appearance. The chapter-house is an octagon no less than a hundred and fifty feet in circumference, yet the roof has no other support in the center than a small marble pillar. The corporation consists of a mayor, recorder, aldermen, &c. and the town-house, which makes a noble appearance, is adorned with a very fine original picture of queen Anne, done by Dahl.

Wilton, an ancient borough town, once so considerable that it gave name to the county, stands near the junction of the Nadder with the Willy, seven miles from Salisbury, and eighty-six from London, but is now a mean town, though it sends two members to parliament, and is the place where the knights of the shire are chosen. It has, however, a manufacture of carpets, which is carried to great perfection, and many of the carpets made there, being very beautiful, are sold in London at a good price.

Wilton house is situated in a pleasant vale, with the town of Wilton on one side, and a spacious park on the

other. The canal before the house lies parallel with the river, and on entering the court-yard you see a noble column of porphyry, on the top of which is a fine marble statue of Venus, of excellent workmanship. The house is a noble pile of building, designed by the celebrated Inigo Jones, and the rooms are adorned with the most beautiful statues and paintings. The great geometrical stair-case has been deservedly admired, it being the first of the kind in England; and the grand apartment is a superb piece of architecture, particularly the saloon, which is sixty feet long, thirty high, and thirty broad. "When you have entered these grand apartments, says a late writer, such varieties strike upon you every way, that you scarce know to which hand to turn: on one side you see several rooms adorned with paintings, so curious and various, that you leave them with reluctance; and looking another way, you are called off by a vast collection of busts and pieces of the greatest antiquity of the kind, both Greek and Roman. At one end of the grand room is the celebrated family picture, by Vandyke, twenty feet long, and twelve feet high, containing thirteen figures as big as the life." This room is also adorned with a great number of family pictures.

In most of the apartments the marble chimney-pieces are of the most exquisite workmanship, all carved in Italy, with many curious statues, basso relievos, and pictures, by the greatest masters. The loggia in the bowling-green is supported by beautiful pillars, and adorned with niches and statues. The grotto has its front curiously carved, and all the inside is cased with marble; it has black columns of the Ionic order, with capitals of white marble, and four fine basso relievos from Florence.

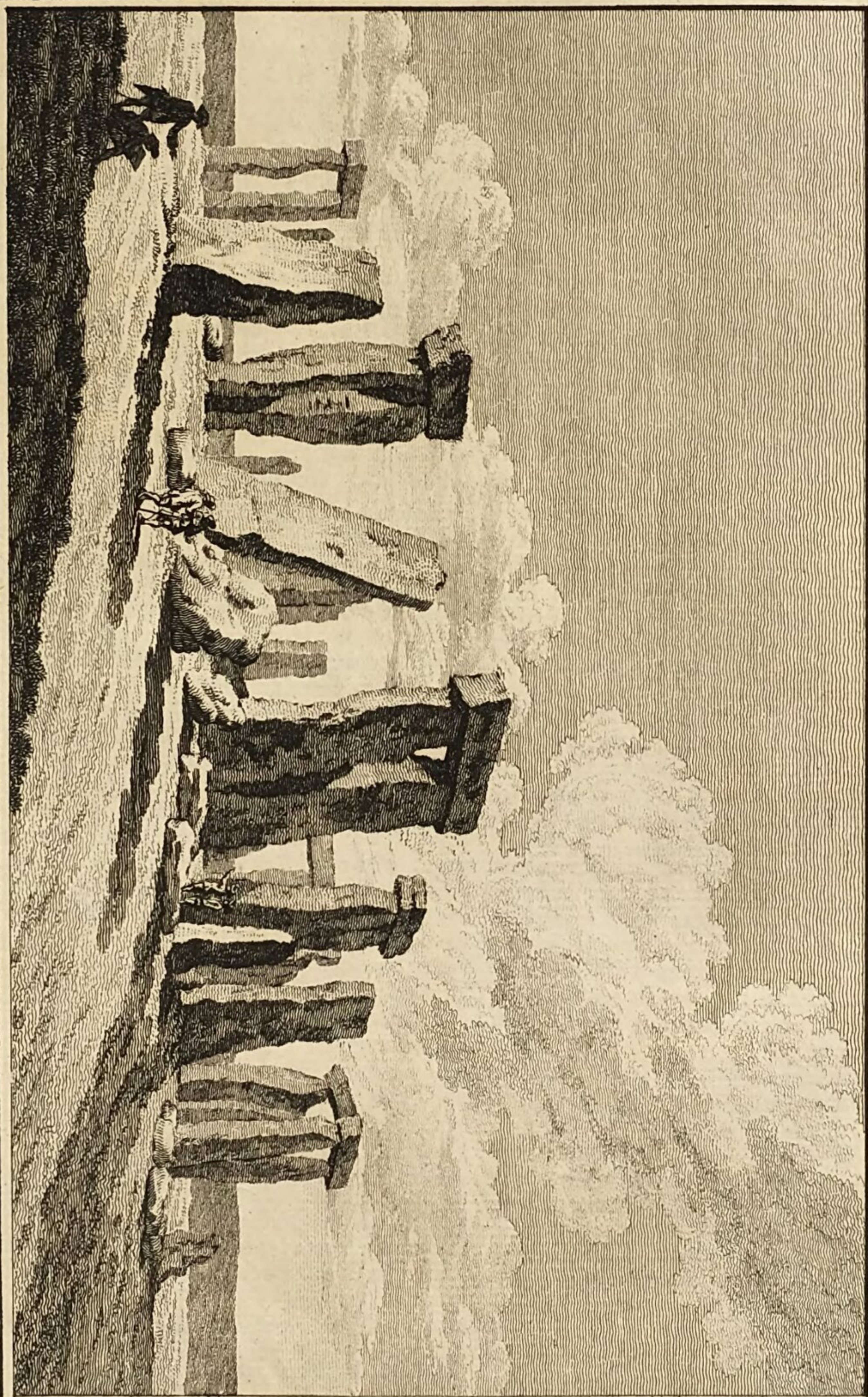
The front of the house next the gardens is esteemed one of the best pieces of the celebrated Inigo Jones, and is a hundred and ninety-four feet in length. The gardens are on the south side of the house, and extend beyond the river, a branch of which runs through a part of them. To the south of the gardens is the great park, which reaches beyond the vale, and the view opens into Salisbury-plain. Here is also a hare warren, as it is called, which has been for many years a sanctuary for the hares; but the neighbouring gentlemen complain that it spoils their sport, for if they put up a hare within two or three miles of it, she always runs to the warren, and an end is put to their pursuit: besides, these animals are of great prejudice to the corn.

Salisbury-plain is very delightful, as well as extensive, the numerous flocks of sheep all round are a pleasing sight, and it is not uncommon for these flocks to contain from three to five thousand, all belonging to one man.

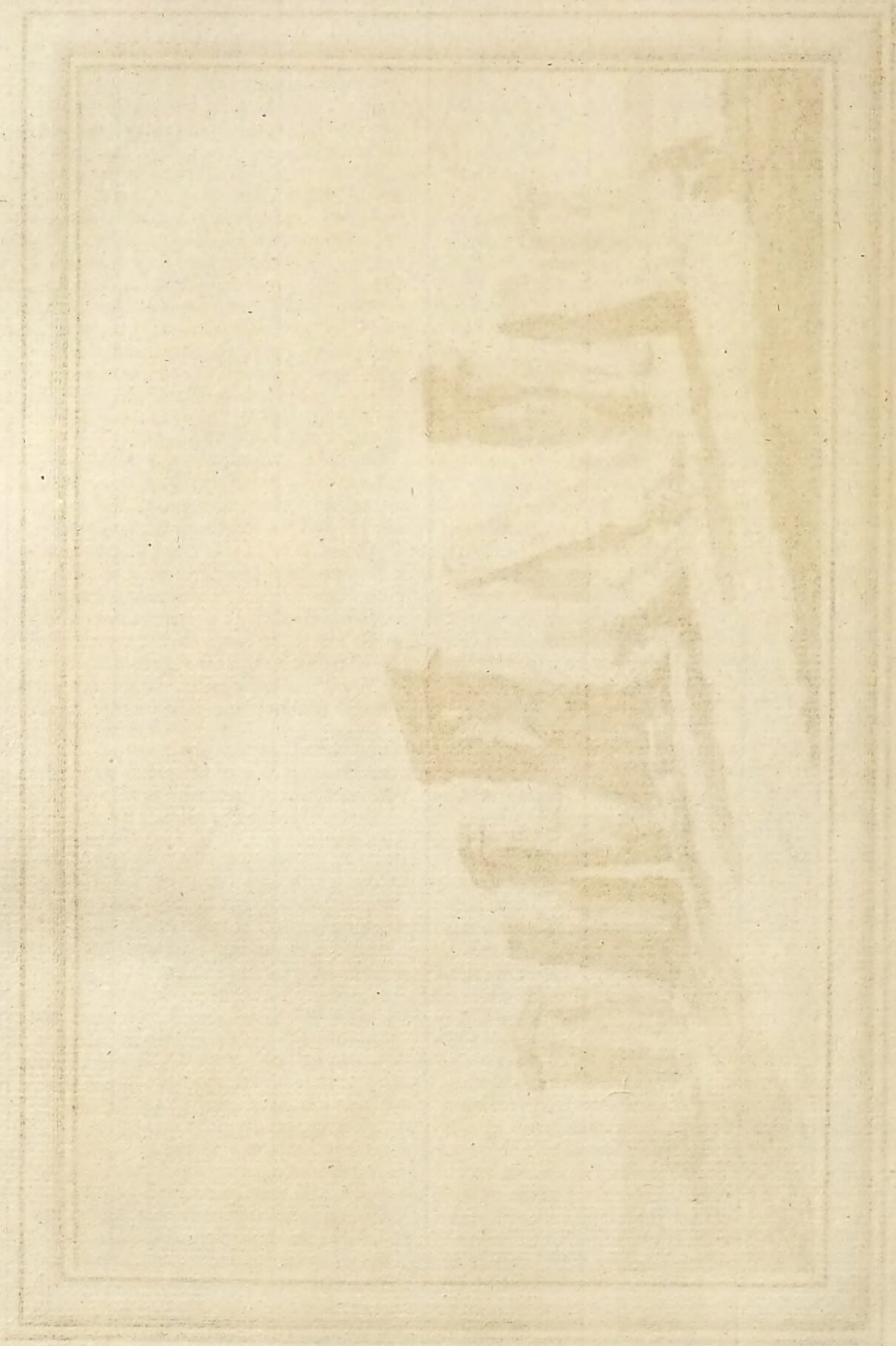
On this plain are a great number of barrows, or little hills, thrown up over graves; also the remains of temples, and the traces of many old British, Roman, Saxon, and Danish camps and fortifications. But the greatest curiosity in this county is that noble monument of antiquity called Stone-henge, which Inigo Jones endeavoured to prove to be the remains of a temple of the Tuscan order, built by the Romans to the god Cœlum, or Terminus; but the learned doctor Stukeley has endeavoured to prove it to be a temple built by the ancient Britons. It received its name from the Saxon Rode-hengenne, or hanging-rocks; and in Yorkshire hanging rocks are still called henges.

Stone-henge is situated in Salisbury-plain, six miles to the north of Salisbury. It has the river Avon to the east, and a brook that runs into the Willy on the west, which streams encompass it half round, at the distance of two miles, forming as it were a circular area of four or five miles diameter, compassed by gentle acclivities. This antiquity stands on the summit of a hill, which rises with a very gentle ascent.

At the distance of about half a mile it has a stately and august appearance, and as you advance nearer, especially up the avenue on the north-east side, where the remains of this wonderful structure are most perfect, it fills the eye in an astonishing measure. It is encompassed with a circular ditch, and after this is passed you proceed a hundred and eight feet to the work itself, which is a hundred and eight feet in diameter. "When we enter the building,



Stone-henge



“ing, says Dr. Stukeley, whether on foot or on horse-back, and cast our eyes on the yawning ruins, we are struck with an extatic reverie, which none can describe, and they only can be sensible of that feel it. When we advance farther, the dark part of the ponderous imposts over our heads, the chasm of sky between the jambs of the cell, the odd construction of the whole, and the greatness of every part, surprises. If you look upon the perfect part, you fancy entire quarries mounted up into the air: if upon the rude havock below, you see, as it were, the bowels of a mountain turned inside outwards.”

The stones are supposed to have been brought from the Grey Wethers, upon Marlborough downs, which is sixteen miles distant from the place; but the difficulty in bringing them hither must appear inconceivable. The stone at the upper end of the cell, which is fallen down and broke in half, is, according to Dr. Hales, twenty-five feet in length, seven in breadth, and at a medium three and an half in thickness, and amounts to six hundred and twelve cubic feet. Rude as the work seems, there is not a stone that has not felt more or less the chisel. The upright stones are made to diminish a little every way, by which means the imposts project two feet seven inches, which is very considerable in a height of eighteen feet. On the top of each of the upright stones is a tenon ten inches and a half in diameter, and made exactly to fit the mortises made in the imposts. On the outside the imposts are rounded a little, to humour the circle, but within they are straight and make a polygon of thirty sides, which, without injuring the beauty of the work, adds to its strength. The height of the uprights and imposts is ten cubits and an half, the uprights being nine cubits, and the imposts one and a half.

Of this outer circle, which in its perfection consisted of sixty stones, thirty uprights, and thirty imposts; there are seventeen uprights left standing, eleven of which remain contiguous by the grand entrance, which is somewhat wider than the rest, with five imposts upon them. One upright at the back of the temple leans upon a stone of the inner circle, and six others lie upon the ground whole or in pieces. Somewhat more than eight feet from the inside of this exterior circle is another of forty smaller stones, without any imposts, which, with the outer circle, form as it were a circular portico. These are a cubit thick, and four cubits and a half in height, being every way half of the outer uprights. Of these nineteen are only left; of which eleven are only standing. But besides this outer portico, which is three hundred feet in circumference, there is an inner one, which originally composed about two-thirds of an oval; the outer part of this is formed of certain compages of stones, which Dr. Stukeley calls *trilithons*, because each of these compages is formed of two upright stones, with an impost on the top. The stones of which these *trilithons* are composed are really stupendous, and cannot fail of filling the beholder with surprise. These stones diminish very much towards the top, probably to take off from their weight, and they rise in height and beauty of the stones from the lower end on each side next the principal entrance to the upper end, and are, upon a medium, twenty feet high; but the imposts on the top are all of the same size.

On the inside of the oval is a lesser oval of nineteen stones, somewhat of a pyramidal form; these are two feet six inches in breadth, one foot and an half thick, and upon a medium eight feet high; they rising in height as they approach the upper end of this inclosure. The space within it has been called the *adytum*, or the Holy of holies, it being supposed that none entered it but the druids, or British priests, who offered their sacrifices on the altar at the upper end. This altar is composed of a kind of blue coarse marble, twenty inches thick, four feet broad, and, according to Mr. Webb, sixteen feet in length. All the stones added together, with which this whole temple was built, make just a hundred and forty. This is the solution of the mighty problem that has so much perplexed the vulgar.

As the most early method of building temples, says our author, was to make them open at the top, this is a proof of the prodigious antiquity of this fabric. It must be owned, that they who had a notion that it was degrad-

ing the Deity to pretend to confine him within a limited space, could not easily invent a grander design for sacred purposes. Here space indeed is not marked out and defined, but with the utmost freedom. Here the presence of the Deity is intimated, but not bounded.

On the downs, about two or three miles from Marlborough, are abundance of loose stones, lying scattered about the plain, of the same kind with those of Stonehenge, and some larger, they are called by the country people the Grey Wethers, they appearing at a distance not unlike sheep straggling upon the downs. They are found to be a sort of white marble, and lie upon the surface of the earth in infinite numbers, and of all dimensions. They are loose and detached from any rock, and Dr. Stukeley imagines that they have lain there ever since the creation.

Marlborough, so called from its hills of chalk, which was anciently called Marl, is seated on the river Kennet, in a chalky soil, seventy-five miles to the west of London, and contains two parish-churches and about five hundred houses. The streets are broad and paved, and it is governed by a mayor, aldermen, and burgesses. It had formerly a castle at Marlborough Mount; this Mount was the key of the castle, and is now converted into a pretty spiral walk, on the top of which is an octagonal summer-house, from whence you have a pleasant view over the town and country. Near Marlborough are the remains of several religious houses, particularly of a priory, the gate-house of which is still standing.

Between Marlborough and Newbury is Savernack forest, which is about twelve miles in circumference, well stocked with deer, and rendered delightful by the many vistas cut through the woods and coppices with which it abounds. Eight of these vistas meet like so many rays of a star in a point near the middle of the forest, where the late earl of Ailesbury, to whom it belonged, prepared the ground for erecting an octagon tower, whose sides were to correspond with the vistas; through one of which you have a view of the seat at about two miles distance, called Tottenham, from a park of that name, in which it is situated, contiguous to this forest. This is a stately edifice, erected after the model and under the direction of our modern Vitruvius, the earl of Burlington, who, to the strength and convenience of the English architecture, has added the elegance of the Italian. The house has four towers and four fronts, each differently beautified; to which are now added four wings, in which are rooms of state, a noble and capacious library, containing a collection of several thousand volumes in all languages, especially the modern. The beauty and delightfulness of the buildings are much augmented by the large canals, the spacious and well-planted walks, with which it is surrounded.

The Devizes is seated on high ground about two miles from the bottom of hills that keep off the eastern winds, in a rich soil eighty-nine miles to the west of London. It is a large town, consisting chiefly of two long parallel streets, the houses mostly of timber, but of a very good model. It has two churches, besides a chapel and a dissenting meeting house. The corporation consists of a mayor, a recorder, eleven masters, and thirty-six common council. On the utmost part of the Rundway hill, which overlooks the town, is a square single-trenched camp; and there have been discovered in its neighbourhood several hundred pieces of ancient Roman coin of different emperors, and in 1714 was dug up a large urn with Roman coins, and a number of little brass statues of several of the heathen gods and goddesses. The inhabitants make a great deal of malt; their principal manufacture is woollen cloth, especially druggets, and the market is much frequented for all sorts of cattle, wool and horses; but it has great scarcity of water.

S E C T. XIII.

Of Dorsetshire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns, with a Description of the Peninsulas of Portland and Purbeck.

THIS county was anciently called Durotriges by the Romans, and by the Britons Dwn Gwyr, both of which signifies Dwellers by the Water-side. This county

county is bounded on the north by Somersetshire and Wiltshire; on the east by Hampshire; on the south by the British channel; and on the west by Devonshire and part of Somersetshire, extending about fifty miles in length from east to west, where broadest about thirty, and near one hundred and fifty in circumference.

The air is for the most part very good and wholesome. on the hills it is however somewhat bleak and sharp, but it is very mild and pleasant near the coast.

The soil is generally rich and fertile, though in some parts exceeding sandy; the northern part, which was formerly divided by a range of hills from the southern, was anciently overspread with forests, but now affords good pasture for cattle, while the southern part chiefly consists of fine downs, and feeds incredible numbers of sheep. The inhabitants have not forgot what king Charles said of Dorsetshire, that he never saw a finer country either in England or out of it. Indeed the downs and hills are covered with great flocks of sheep, whose flesh is sweet and delicate, and wool so fine, that it is much coveted by the clothiers, and the valleys abound with other cattle. The husbandman reaps an ample return for his toil and labour, his grounds generally producing a profusion of corn, or of flax and hemp, which last is allowed to be the best that grows in all his majesty's dominions. Here are also plenty of fowl, as poultry of all sorts, swans, woodcocks, pheasants, partridges, field-fares, &c. The chief commodities are corn, cattle, wool, fish, fowl, hemp, fine Portland stone, and some marble. The isle or rather peninsula of Purbec also furnishes a particular kind of stone, called by its name, and tobacco-pipe clay. This county is also famous for its linen and woollen manufactures, and fine ale and beer.

The principal rivers of this county are the Stour, which rises in Somersetshire, but soon enters into this county, running south to Sturminster, where making an angle, it forms a course nearly west-south-west, and leaves Dorsetshire about five miles below Winborn in Hampshire, and soon after falls into the sea. The From rises in the east end of the county, and running chiefly westward, falls into the bay called Pool-harbour. Both these rivers afford plenty of fish; but the tench and eels of the Stour are particularly famous.

The coast of Dorsetshire is very dissimilar, it being in some places bounded with high lands and cliffs, and in others with only a beach of pebbles; the cliffs are in some parts composed of sand, earth, and loamy clay, in others they consist of chalk, but very few of stone, except in the islands.

This county lies in the diocese of Bristol and contains sixty-eight vicarages, two hundred and forty eight parishes, upwards of twenty-one thousand nine hundred houses, and about one hundred and nine thousand seven hundred inhabitants. It is divided into twenty-eight hundreds, and sends twenty members to parliament, of which two are knights of the shire, and two for each of the following towns, Dorchester, Pool, Lime, Bridport, Shaftsbury, Wareham, Corfe-Castle, Weymouth, and Melcomb-Regis; for though these two last are united each sends two. The principal places in this county are the following:

Dorchester, the county town, is clean and regularly built, and is situated one hundred and twenty-eight miles to the south-west of London, is encompassed by the foundations of an ancient Roman wall; but to the eastward a street is built upon it, and the ditch filled up; for on that side the town is swelled out into a considerable suburb or village, named Fordington or Farington, which has a church. There are three other churches in the town, and the streets are wide and handsome. On the south and west sides, without the walls, is planted an agreeable walk of sycamores. The banks of the river are here steep, the town stands on high ground. Beyond the river are meadows and warm sandy lands. At a small distance is the noble Roman amphitheatre called by the vulgar Maumbury, and the terras on the top is a common place of rendezvous, it affording an agreeable circular walk, which has a prospect of the town and of wide plains of corn fields all round.

Weymouth is a clean and agreeable town, considering its low situation, it standing close to the sea. It is situated

eight miles to the south of Dorchester, and one hundred and thirty-two to the west-south-west of London. It is well built, and has an excellent harbour, defended by two forts. Many substantial merchants reside here, who have a considerable number of ships, and carry on an extensive trade, not only to France, but to Portugal, Spain, Newfoundland, and Virginia, and they have a custom-house, and a good quay. Without the harbour stands Sand-foot castle, and opposite to them is Portland-castle, seated in the isle of that name. It is joined to Melcomb Regis by a wooden bridge over the little river Wey. The united towns have a church, and about four hundred houses. In Weymouth is a chapel upon a steep rock, and there are sixty steps to go up to it. They are governed by a mayor, several aldermen, and a recorder, and each sends two members to parliament.

Portland, which was formerly an island, is now joined to the continent by a shelf of sand, thrown up by the sea. It is situated in the fiftieth deg. thirty min. latitude, and in the second deg. forty-eight min. west longitude. It is about ten miles in circumference, and thinly inhabited, yet affords plenty of corn, and pasture for sheep; but wood and coals are so scarce that the inhabitants, are generally obliged to make use of cow dung dried in the sun for fuel. The natives are for the most part stone-cutters, for from this peninsula come our best and whitest free-stone, with which the cathedral of St. Paul, and all the most magnificent edifices in the city of London, are principally built.

The whole island is little more than one continued rock of free-stone, and the height of the land is such that when the weather is clear and serene one may see from thence above half over the Channel to France, though it is here very broad.

Those who are delighted with natural curiosities are greatly amused here with seeing in the midst of the stone a great number of shells of oysters, mussels, cockles, &c. and above all spirals, or screws as they are vulgarly called, which every where abound in the stone; they are perfectly solid, and nicely coiled about as it were an imaginary axis. These being of the same substance as the stone, are very brittle, and generally break in taking out.

In some quarries on the south-west part of the island is found a sort of stone which they call sugar-candy stone, of which there are two sorts, one pale like white sugar-candy; and the other of an amber-colour like brown sugar-candy; and indeed they so resemble sugar-candy in the lump, that any person might be imposed upon by them till his tongue and teeth convinced him that they were only an insipid exudation of juices petrefied and crystallized by nature in this form.

To prevent any ships being embayed to the west of Portland, and driven a-shore on Portland Race, which extends to the main land, two light houses are erected on the two points of the peninsula. Not far from these light houses, on the south side of the island, is a very remarkable hole through the earth, wide on the top and narrowing about seven or eight feet downwards where it opens into a large subterranean cavern, where you see the waters of the sea, the sight and noise of which in boisterous weather fill the mind with terror: so large is this cave, that some small craft with their sails up have been driven from the sea into it.

Not far from Portland lies the peninsula of Purbec, which was formerly full of heaths, woods and forests, well stocked with fallow deer; but there is at present good lands towards the southern part of it, and under ground there are veins of marble and different kinds of stone. This peninsula is ten miles in length; but not more than five or six in breadth, and there is a good passage to it by land. At the first entrance into this peninsula is a plain of barren heathy ground, replenished with red deer, disjoined from the rest by an almost continued ridge of high hills, which when once passed there are grounds that afford excellent pasture for sheep and other cattle, with plenty of good corn as also quarries of a lasting kind of flat stone, used in London for paving the foot-ways or sides of London and Westminster bridges, and of the sides of the streets; also spotted and blue marble.

Pool, the most considerable sea-port in all this part of England, is seated one hundred and ten miles to the west-by-fourth of London, and twenty-four to the east of Dorchester, at the bottom of a great bay or inlet of the sea, which entering at a narrow mouth, opens to a great breadth, and comes up to the very shore of the town. It also runs almost west to Wareham, a little below which it receives the Frome and Peddler. At the entrance of this large bay is an island called Branksey, which lying in the very mouth of the passage divides it into two, and has an old castle, built to defend the entrance. The town consists of a church, and about six hundred houses, disposed into broad paved streets, and has a manufactory of knit hose. It was formerly only a place inhabited by a few fishermen; but was greatly enlarged in the reign of Henry VI. when the inhabitants had the privilege of walling it round. It was also made a county of itself, and allowed to send two members to parliament; but since that time it has much decayed, though it has still some trade, and a number of merchants, who every year send ships to the Newfoundland fishery. This place is famous for the best and largest oysters in all this part of England, which the people of Pool pickle, and, barrelling them up, send them not only to London, but to Spain, Italy, and even the West-Indies. The town is governed by a mayor, a senior bailiff, four other justices, and an indeterminate number of burgesses.

Wareham, a town seated between the rivers Frome and Peddler, where they fall into the Luckford lake, one hundred and nine miles from London, and twenty miles from Dorchester. It was once a very large place and had several churches, which are now reduced to three. It was also walled round, and had a castle, but it has suffered so much by the various turns of fortune, and particularly by having its harbour choaked up, that it is at present only the shadow of what it was.

Lyme, a sea-port town, one hundred and forty-four miles from London, and twenty-three miles from Dorchester, is situated on the sea-shore, and though it has neither creek nor bay, road nor navigable river, has a good harbour; but it is such a one as is not to be found perhaps in any other part of the world. It is formed by a massy pile of building consisting of high and thick walls of stone raised at first with great art, and maintained still with very little difficulty. These walls are raised in the main sea at a good distance from the shore. There is one solid wall of stone large enough for carts and carriages to pass on the top, and to admit houses and warehouses to be built on it, it being as broad as a street: opposite to this, but farther in the sea, is another wall of the same workmanship which crosses the end of the first, and after winding runs parallel to it. The entrance into the port is between the point of the first wall and the second, or opposite wall, which breaks the violence of the sea from the entrance, and ships there go into the basin, where they ride as secure as in a wet dock. This work is called the Cobb, and the custom-house officers have a lodge and warehouse upon it. As the shore is convenient for batteries, some guns are planted in proper places for the defence of the Cobb and town, which is large and well built. It is a place of good trade, and is under the government of a mayor and aldermen.

In 1685 the duke of Monmouth landed here with a handful of men, which was soon increased to six thousand, and he was proclaimed king; but being defeated by king James's army, was taken prisoner and beheaded.

S E C T. XIV.

Of Somersetshire; its Situation, Extent, Air, Soil, Produce, Mountains, Caverns, Minerals, and particularly several beautiful kinds of Ochres. Of its Rivers, and principal Towns.

THIS county probably takes its name from Somerton, once the capital, but now obscured by Bath, Wells, &c. Some indeed have derived the name Somersetshire from Summer, alleging that the largest share

of that season is enjoyed in this county above any other in England. It is bounded on the north by Gloucestershire and Bristol Channel; on the east by Wiltshire; on the west by Devonshire; and on the south by Dorsetshire. It is computed to be sixty-two miles in length, thirty-two in breadth, and two hundred and four in circumference.

Somersetshire, which is situated in the diocese of Bristol, and in that of Bath and Wells, is divided into thirty-seven hundreds, and contains about one hundred and thirty-two vicarages, three hundred and eighty-five parishes, thirty-five market towns, fifty-six thousand houses, three hundred thousand inhabitants, and sends eighteen members to parliament, namely, two knights of the shire, and two burgesses for the following towns, Bristol, Bath, Wells, Taunton, Bridgewater, Minehead, Ilchester, and Milborne Port.

The air of Somersetshire is, in the lower grounds, universally mild, and generally wholesome. The soil is various; the lower grounds, except where it is boggy, yield great quantities of corn and grass; the hilly parts are less fertile, yet in many places, by the help of art and industry, good crops of corn are raised, and where they are most barren they afford pasture for sheep, though where there are mines the grass is discoloured, and the sheep that feed upon it are small and big-bellied. The country about Taunton is exceeding rich, and affords the greatest plenty of corn, grass, and rich fruit for cyder. Within the mountains are mines of lead and lapis calaminaris. The commodities produced by this county are therefore corn, cattle, lead, woad for dying, Cheddar cheese, lapis calaminaris, and Bristol stones. It is also one of the greatest clothing counties in England: the manufactures are chiefly on fine Spanish medley cloths, druggets, serges, cantaloons, knit stockings, &c. in which vast numbers are employed.

In describing this county it will be proper to take notice of its mountains, mines and caverns.

The ridges of Mendip hills run confusedly, but mostly extend east and west, and are of a very unequal height. The soil is barren, and the air cold, moist, thick, and foggy. The surface is in a great measure covered with heath, fern, and furze, and consequently affords but little food for the cattle, which are for the most part sheep. The ore in these mountains runs in veins, sometimes it is also dispersed in banks, and sometimes lies between the rocks. About the ore is spar and chalk, with another substance called croots, which is a mealy white and soft kind of stone. The spar is white, transparent, and as brittle as glass; the chalk is also white, and heavier than any stone. The vein lies between these coats, and is of different breadths; it sometimes also rises near the surface, and at others lies very deep in the earth.

About two miles from Wells, on the south side of this ridge of mountains is a famous grotto called Wokey, or Okey hole, which is much resorted to by strangers. You ascend the hill about thirty yards to the mouth of a cave, which is about fifteen or twenty-feet high, and opens into a spacious cavern that resembles the body of a cathedral; the upper part is very craggy, abounding with pendant rocks that strike terror into a timorous spectator, especially as they appear by candle light, by which they may be plainly seen. From all parts of the roof, a clear water is constantly dropping, forming a number of stony cones resembling icicles. The bottom of this vault is extremely rough, slippery, and rocky.

From this grotto you proceed by a gradual descent, through a very narrow and even passage, into another spacious vaulted cavern; but not quite so high, though nearly as wide, and in other respects much like the first. From this you pass through a long low rocky passage into a third vault, with a cylindric roof; on one side it has a fine sandy bottom, about fifteen or twenty-one feet wide, and on the other a rivulet about eight or ten feet wide, and two or three deep; the water of which is extremely clear and cold. This rivulet, after its course thro' the rock, descends forty or fifty feet to the level ground, where it turns a paper-mill at a small distance from the foot of the hill. The loudest noise made by a number of people in these caverns cannot in the least be heard by those on the outside

outside of the hill over them. The air within them is very cold and damp.

About five miles to the north-west of Okey hole lies Cheddar, a village famous for its cheese, which excels, in high relish and delicate flavour, all other cheese in England. This village is famous for the stupendous chasm, or cleft, through the body of Mendip hills near this place. It seems as if the hills had been split asunder by the shock of an earthquake: the impending tremendous rocks on either side are very astonishing; some standing on the bottom, reach near the height of the cliff, and yet are entirely severed from the body of the rock. The passage between is but narrow, yet is the road from this part of the country to Bristol. At the entrance of the cleft is a most remarkable spring of water, rising as it were upright out of the rocky basis of the hill, with so large and rapid a stream, that it drives a mill within a few yards. This stream, and that of the cavern just mentioned, are the sources of a river named Ax.

At a small distance from Cheddar is another cavern, but smaller than that we have mentioned: Mr. Beaumont, however, mentions a still more extraordinary cavern than any of those yet described, and of which he has given an account in the Philosophical Transactions. This is on a hill called Lamb. "Much ore, says that gentleman, has been formerly raised on this hill; and being informed that a great vault was discovered there, I took six miners with me and went to see it. First we descended a perpendicular shaft about seventy fathoms, when we came into a leading vault, which extends about forty fathoms in length, and as it does not run upon a level, but descends, when you come to the end of it you are twenty-three fathoms deep by a perpendicular line. The floor is full of loose rocks, and its roof vaulted with rocks of lime-stone, among which are flowers of all colours hanging from them, which appear extremely beautiful, and are always kept moist by the distilling waters. In some parts the roof is about five fathoms high, in others, so low that it was difficult to pass through by creeping. The width for the most part is about three fathoms. This cavern crosses many veins of ore. About the middle of it, on the east side, is a passage into another, between forty and fifty fathoms in length. At the end of the first another vast cavern opens. I fastened a cord about me, and ordering the miners to let me down; after descending twelve or fourteen fathoms, I came to the bottom. This cavern is about twenty fathoms in height, fifteen in length, and sixty in circumference. I afterwards caused the miners to drive forwards the breast of this cavern, which terminates to the west, and after they had driven about ten fathoms, they happened into another about one hundred fathom in length, and eight or ten in height. The frequency of caverns on these hills, he adds, may easily be guessed at, by the frequency of swallow pits, which are made by the falling in of the roofs of caverns. Some of these pits are of a large extent, and very deep. Sometimes our miners sinking in the bottom of these swallows, have found oaks, fifteen fathoms deep in the earth."

There are several other hills in this county besides those of Mendip. On each side the river Avon the hills form a most beautiful prospect; but are of little advantage to their possessors; for they are neither fertile in herbage, nor timber; but are in general filled with rocks, and are in a manner covered with fern and furze; nor do the few trees scattered upon them flourish like those in a better soil. From the redness of the earth and stones they seem to abound with iron, and in the cracks of the rocks is found ochre, which is greatly superior to that in the shops, and considerable advantage might doubtless be made of it, by collecting the purest parts, and sending it to this metropolis, where it might be sold to great advantage to the colourmen.

The late Mr. Owen, who made very curious observations on the natural productions about the city of Bristol, observes, that there are two principal kinds of earth of the nature of ochre, the one red and the other yellow, which here often crumbled to dust in the places where they lie. The red is of a deep colour, between crimson

and purple, and of a strong body: the yellow, of a fine gold colour, light, dusty, and of so strong a body, that a dram of it is equal to an ounce of common ochre, and is besides of a better colour. They both tinge the fingers very much on being touched; and being ground with oil, prove excellent colours for painting. In some of the creeks and crevices of the yellow iron ores is a fine sort of ochre like meal, as fine to the touch as powder for the hair: this is of a lemon colour, and nearly resembles French ochre; but is finer, and can be had but in small quantities. These several kinds of ochre are found not only in crevices of the rocks, but adhering to lumps of various kinds of ore, which being broken shew a variety of colours. Here are also lumps of emery and manganese, and in the same rocks are also veins of lead ore; but they are small. Some of these veins are pure, others are intermixed with a brown stone of the nature of calamine, and some have small clusters of yellowish or white spars, accompanying them in beautiful forms.

The chief rivers belonging to this county, besides the mouth of the Severn, commonly called the Bristol Channel, are the Avon, the Brent, and the Parret. The Avon enters this county about five miles to the south-east of Bath, and soon becomes the northern boundary between Somersetshire and Gloucestershire, and passing by Bristol, discharges itself into the mouth of the Severn. It ought not to be omitted, that about two miles from the Hot Wells, near Bristol, this river is bounded on each side with high, rough, and craggy rocks, the cliffs of which are in some places above two hundred feet high, hanging over in an astonishing manner; and many of these being covered with tufts of grass, small shrubs, tall plants, and and chumps of short trees, seem to form little hanging woods, and afford a most agreeable and romantic prospect.

The Brent rises in the eastern edge of the county, and runs to the westward by Glastonbury, below which it forms a large lake, and then falls into the river Parret near Bristol Channel.

The Parret rises in the south edge of Somersetshire, and running to the northward, receives in its course the Yeovil and the Tome, then passing by Bridgwater, falls into the Bristol Channel. This county is also watered by abundance of smaller streams, which furnish it with plenty of all sorts of fish; but one particular species in the river Avon deserves our notice: they are called elvers, and resemble a diminutive eel: in the spring the river is in some places covered with them, and even looks black with the prodigious multitudes of them on the surface of the water, they being in size about the thickness of a goose-quill. When taken they are made, by a particular management, to cast their skins, and then appear very white; after which they are kneaded into a kind of cake, and then fried.

The principal towns in this county are the following:

Bath, a celebrated city, seated in a plain of moderate extent, surrounded with hills, which form a kind of amphitheatre, and supply the springs that render this city so famous. It is situated a hundred and eight miles to the west of London, nineteen to the north-east of Wells, and twelve to the south-east of Bristol. This city arose from its salutary springs, which in the time of the Romans were greatly celebrated, and is now become a city of pleasure, it being justly esteemed the most polite, gay, and agreeable place in the world. It is encompassed with verdant meadows, hills, and pleasant walks; and perhaps there is no other place where such a number of delightful and variegated landscapes rise to the view. The buildings are magnificent, and many of them in a grand taste; the streets are large, well paved, and clean; the market-place spacious, open, and supplied with the best meat, fish, vegetables, fruit, &c. The grove, the squares, the parades, are worthy of notice; but the most extraordinary buildings are that circular range of magnificent structures built of stone, called the Circus. Nothing can be more singular, and at the same time more beautiful, than a number of noblemen's houses magnificently built, formed into a fine circle, with a noble and spacious area in the middle. But more than all this the wretched and miserable are here frequently delivered from their painful

painful disorders, by the healing qualities of the waters of the different baths, or relieved, and have the advantage of being directed by the advice of gentlemen the most eminent in the profession of physic.

With respect to the baths, it is proper to observe, that in some places the hot and cold springs rise very near each other, and in one place within two yards. In this city the hot springs exhale a thin kind of mist, and something of an ill smell proceeding from the sulphureous particles mixed with the water. These hot springs are always the same, for the longest and heaviest rains do not make them discharge more water, nor the driest seasons make them discharge less.

Of these springs that called the Cross-bath, from a cross formerly erected in the middle of it, is of a moderate warmth, and a person may stay much longer in it than in any of the others. It is enclosed with a wall, on the sides of which are seats, and at the ends galleries for the music and spectators, under which are ranges of small dressing-rooms; one of which ranges is for the gentlemen, and the other for the ladies, who being dressed in linen habits go both together into the water, the men keeping on one side and the women on the other.

The Hot-bath, so called from its being much hotter than the Cross-bath, is fifty-eight feet and a half distant from it. This bath has a well, the water of which not only supplies its own pump, but is conveyed by pipes to the pump in the Cross-bath.

The King's-bath, which is much the largest, is accommodated with many dressing-places, some of which are appropriated to the men, and others to the women, both of whom bathe in linen-drawers and shifts. There is here a spring so hot, that they are obliged to turn most of it away, for fear of heating the bath too much. However, the heat of the hottest spring is not sufficient to harden an egg.

The Queen's-bath has no spring of its own, but is supplied by water conveyed from the King's.

There is likewise a bath for lepers, into which none go but such as the physicians suppose to have the leprosy, or some other disease of the same kind: this is made by the overflowing of the Cross-bath. The poor who bathe in it have an allowance for their support from the town; but are chiefly relieved by the generous contributions of the gentlemen and ladies who come to enjoy the benefit of the other baths.

That nothing may be wanting to complete the circle of pleasures in this city, there are spacious and lofty rooms for balls and assemblies; the studious have here an easy supply of all kinds of books; two large and elegant theatres have been erected, and a large stone bridge built over the river. The stone with which the fine buildings in this city are erected is dug out of the quarries upon Charlton down, and brought from thence down a steep hill, by a four-wheeled carriage of a particular form and structure; the wheels are of cast iron, broad and low, with a groove in the perimeter to keep them on the pieces of wood on which it moves down hill, with four or five ton weight of stone, very easily, without the help of horses, the motion being moderated by means of a friction lever bearing more or less on the hinder wheel, as occasion requires.

The walls of Bath are almost entire; the small circuit of ground encompassed by these walls is in the form of a pentagon, with four gates, besides a postern. Without the walls is a handsome square, in the center of which is an obelisk seventy feet high. The market-house is a large stone building, supported by thirty-one stone pillars, and over it is the town-hall. Here is a general hospital for the reception of the sick and lame poor from all parts of the kingdom, erected in 1738, by the contributions of the nobility and gentry, and is capable of containing a hundred and fifty patients. Another new square has been laid out in the gardens adjacent to the public walks on the south side of the city by the Avon, where is a noble room for balls and public assemblies. Bath is the see of a bishop, who is also prelate of Wells. St. Peter's cathedral is a lofty venerable pile, with a handsome tower in the middle, and a good ring of eight bells; besides there are likewise three other churches, with two schools, one for fifty boys, and the other for as many girls. Near

the Cross-bath is St. John's hospital for poor sick people, which has a chapel of white free-stone. Here are also two other hospitals and an alms-house. In this city is a manufactory of cloth; and it is under the government of a mayor, aldermen, and common-council.

Wells is situated at the foot of Mendip-hills, a hundred and twenty miles west of London, and nineteen south-west of Bristol, and has its name from the wells and springs about the city, which is but of small extent, tho' well inhabited. The public and private buildings are very neat, and the cathedral one of the handsomest in England, it being a stately pile, whose frontispiece at the west end is adorned with images and carved work. The close, which contains the bishop's palace, is walled in like a little fortification, and encompassed by a moat. The dignified clergy live in the inside of it, and the prebendaries and canons have very agreeable dwellings. The market-house is a handsome structure supported by columns, and the city is governed by a mayor, a recorder, seven aldermen, and sixteen common-councilmen. The chief manufactures of this city are making of bone-lace, and knitting of hose.

Bristol, called by the Saxons Brightstow, is situated in fifty-one degrees twenty minutes north latitude, and in two degrees forty-nine minutes west longitude, partly in this county, and partly in Gloucestershire; but being a county of itself, is independent of them both. It is divided by the river Avon which runs through it, and separates the two counties; but that part which is on the Gloucestershire side is the largest and most populous; for, according to a survey made in the year 1736, the circumference on the Gloucestershire side was four miles and a half, and on the Somersetshire side two miles and a half. This city has a stone bridge of four broad arches over the Avon; and here is one of the most commodious quays in England for shipping and landing merchants goods, which lies along the river From, and is half a mile in length, from the bridge on the Gloucester side of the city, to the place where that river falls into the Avon. This is the second city in Great Britain for trade, wealth, and number of inhabitants. The trade of many nations is drawn hither by the convenience of commerce, and the harbour, which receives vessels under sail into the heart of the city. The Avon swells so high by the coming in of the tide, that ships upon the shallows are borne up eleven or twelve fathoms. The merchants here, as well as those of London, have an Exchange; but it was formerly a custom with them to meet, walk, and transact mercantile affairs in the open street, and pay their money on large brass basons on the tops of posts, in that part of the street called the Tolzey. They were the first adventurers to the West Indies, and about forty years ago it was computed that they employed two thousand sail of ships, in trade, to the several parts of the world. By the Severn and the Wye the inhabitants of this city have almost the whole trade of South Wales to themselves, and the greatest part of that of North Wales; and by land-carriage they send goods to Exeter, Bath, Wells, From, and all the principal towns from Southampton to the banks of the Trent. Here are considerable manufactures of woollen stuffs, particularly cantaloons, carried on chiefly by French refugees; and here are no less than fifteen glass-houses, which are supplied with coals from Kingwood and Mendip-hills; some are for glasses, others for crown-glass, and others for bottles, for which there is a great demand at the hot well in its neighbourhood, which lies about a mile and half from the city down the Avon, and also at Bath, for exporting their mineral waters.

The city with its suburbs is very compact, being almost as broad as long, and no way above a mile; yet the houses are computed at about thirteen thousand, and the souls at ninety-five thousand. Besides the cathedral there are eighteen churches, and seven or eight meeting-houses of Protestant Dissenters: and, according to Mr. Whatley, there are eighteen hospitals, besides charity-schools, a guildhall, and a very large council-house; and its custom-house stands on the side of Queen's-square, which is adorned with rows of trees that lead to a curious equestrian statue of king William III. On the north-west side of the city is Brandon-hill, under which is Jacob's-well,

where plays are acted almost every night in the summer season by comedians from London. The College-green is justly admired for its situation, as it commands a most delightful prospect over the whole city and harbour; and here stands the cathedral, with a stately cross, which is a fine Gothic structure surrounded with the effigies of several kings of England. It is remarkable, that though the city carries on such a prodigious trade, no carts are admitted into it, for fear of damaging the arches of the vaults and those of the gutters made under ground for carrying off the soil into the river; so that the goods being constantly drawn through the streets upon sledges, the pavement is necessarily rendered exceeding slippery.

Bridgwater is seated about twelve miles from the Start-point, where the Parret runs into the Bristol Channel, a hundred and forty-three miles from London. The spring-tide here flows twenty-two feet at least at the quay, and comes in with such an impetuous torrent, and such a noise, that it is called The Raging Bear. Ships of two hundred tons come up to its quay, and from its convenient situation for commerce the inhabitants have a pretty good coasting trade to Bristol, and carry coals to Wales, and slate, &c. to Cornwall, twenty ships at least being constantly employed. Its foreign trade is principally to Newfoundland. It is a large well frequented place; has several good inns, and the market is well supplied with corn, cattle, hogs, and sheep, and particularly excellent cheese.

Somerton, once the most celebrated town in the county, and that from whence it took its name, is now but a poor place, a hundred and twenty-nine miles to the west of London, but has a considerable market for corn, provisions, and cattle.

Glastonbury is seated one hundred and twenty miles from London, and is famous for its abbey, some magnificent ruins of which are still remaining, but are daily diminished for the sake of the stones: however, the curious structure called the Abbot's Kitchen, is still pretty entire, and of a very unusual contrivance. It is pretended that the bodies of Joseph of Arimathea, of king Arthur, and of king Edward the Confessor, were buried here. The town is pretty large and well built; near it, on a high steep hill, named the Tor, is placed a tower that commands an extensive prospect, and serves as a land-mark to seamen. The last abbot of this place was hanged on the top of the Tor, by order of king Henry VIII. for not acknowledging his supremacy. The holy thorn, or haw thorn, in the church yard upon the hill, said to have taken root from a staff stuck in the ground by Joseph of Arimathea, and to blossom only on Christmas-day, has brought a vast number of people to visit this town, though it is very dubious whether Joseph was ever in Britain. Dr. Gibson says it has been cut down for many years, yet there are still some growing in the county from branches of it, particularly in the garden of Mr. Stroud, the possessor of the ground where the other stood; and another in the garden now belonging to an inn there. These branches, however, do not always blossom on Christmas-day; for they sometimes blossom three or four days after, and seldom so soon as Christmas-day, except the weather be extremely mild. Glastonbury, about fifteen years ago, was for some time famous for its mineral waters, but for want of proper caution they proved fatal to several who drank them, but have been found serviceable in the asthma and dropsy, in the cure of scorbutic disorders, ulcers, and even cancers.

Taunton, a handsome, neat, well-built town, a hundred and forty-eight miles to the south-west of London, received its name from its being seated on the river Thone. The streets are spacious, and it has two parish-churches, besides several meeting-houses of Protestant Dissenters, and it is surrounded by delightful meadows, orchards, and gardens. This town is very populous, and some thousands are employed in the manufacture of serges, du-roys, sagathies, shalloons, &c. for weaving of which eleven hundred looms have been employed at a time. The river is navigable for barges within three miles of the town, where there is a handsome bridge, and it once had a castle.

SECT. XV.

Of Devonshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives in Parliament, &c. Its Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and Curiosities; with a Description of the principal Towns.

DEVONSHIRE is bounded on the north by Bristol Channel; on the east by Somersetshire; on the south by the English Channel; and on the west by Cornwall, and has the title of a duchy. It extends sixty-one miles in length, fifty-four in breadth, and contains fifty-six thousand three hundred and ten houses, three hundred and thirty-seven thousand eight hundred and sixty inhabitants, three hundred and ninety-four parishes, thirty-eight market-towns, and about seventeen hundred and thirty villages. This county, which is subdivided into thirty hundreds, sends twenty-six members to parliament: these are two knights for the shire, and two members for each of the following places; Exeter, Plymouth, Totness, Plympton, Okehampton, Honiton, Barnstaple, Tavistock, Ashburton, Tiverton, Beralstone, and Clifton-Dartmouth-Hardness.

The air of this county is very mild and healthful in the valleys; but excessively cold and bleak upon the mountains. The soil is various, for the lower grounds are naturally fruitful, and yet are made much more so by the art and industry of those who possess the lands; but the hills are very barren. In the eastern parts there is plenty, not only of good corn, but of fine pasturage for sheep, where the grounds are dry and chalky. The southern part of the county is remarkably fertile, and is as justly called The Garden of Devonshire, as Italy The Garden of the World. The trees are in as great variety here, as in any other part of the kingdom; and fruit-trees are particularly plentiful, especially apples, with which they make a great quantity of cyder. The merchants who go long voyages to sea find this a very serviceable drink in their ships, and therefore lay in great stores of it; for it is said one ton of cyder will go as far as three of beer, and it is found by experience to be much more wholesome in hot climates.

On the coast in this county is found plenty of a peculiar rich sand, which proves of singular service to the husbandmen, as those who live at a distance from the sea purchase it in order to improve their poor lands, for it renders the most barren soil fruitful, and, as it were, impregnates the glebe. However, those husbandmen who live at too great a distance from the sea-shore, and whose circumstances are too narrow to purchase a sufficient quantity of this valuable manure, are reduced to the necessity of using marl, lime, and the turf of the ground pared off and burnt to ashes.

Though the inhabitants are in no want of horses, kine, hogs, goats, sheep, or rabbits, yet their principal commodity is fowl, which they enjoy in the greatest profusion. In the western parts of Devonshire are great quantities of game, especially hares, woodcocks, and pheasants, in such abundance as to render them very cheap. And in that part of the country is a bird so very small that it is reputed a humming-bird, and like that hangs its nest on the extreme branches of the trees. The inhabitants insist that no venomous creature, of what nature or species soever, will live among them.

In the south-west parts of Devonshire are great quantities of marble, and in many places marble rocks are found to be the basis of the road on which people travel; this marble, when polished, is little inferior to some we have from abroad, and accordingly is much used by the gentry in those parts.

This county abounds with a greater variety of rivers than any other can boast of, yet there are only two, namely the Tamar and the Ex, that are peculiarly worthy of the reader's attention. The former, which separates this county from Cornwall, has its source in the hills near Welcomb, and runs nearly from north to south till it reaches the English Channel at Plymouth. This river is particularly remarkable for the goodness of the salmon caught in it. The Ex forms a course upon the same points, and, passing by Exeter, also falls into the Channel.

Channel. Great plenty of salmon is also found in this river, where they come in great quantities in the spawning season. From these two rivers the country is stocked with a great variety of common fish; but the most beneficial are herrings and pilchards, for by trading with them they obtain all sorts of commodities from the adjacent counties and foreign nations.

In several places in Devonshire are mineral waters that have been of singular service in dangerous epidemic diseases.

Among the curiosities of this county is Lay-well, which ebbs and flows near eleven times every hour.

The river Tamar, just mentioned, receives into it a small river called the Lid, which is peculiarly remarkable for being pent up with rocks at the bridge, and running so far below it, that the water is scarcely to be seen, or the murmurs of it to be heard, to the astonishment of all strangers who have the curiosity to attend to these uncommon circumstances; for the bridge is level with the road, and the water runs near seventy feet below it.

Within a mile of this place is a cataract, where the water falls above an hundred feet; it comes from a mill at some distance, and after a course upon a descent of near an hundred feet from the level of the mill, it arrives at the brink of the precipice, from whence it falls in a beautiful manner, and striking upon a part of the cliff, rushes from thence in a wider cataract to the bottom, where falling with great violence, it makes a deep and foaming basin in the ground. This wonderful fall of water fills the air all round at the bottom with such an atmosphere of aqueous particles, that a person approaching it finds himself in a mist. The principal places in this county are the following:

Exeter, thus called by contraction from Excester, a castle on the river Ex, was the Augusta of the Romans; it is situated a hundred and seventy-three miles from London, on the top of an easy ascent on the eastern bank of that river. The walls are in pretty good repair, and form an agreeable walk round the city, with the view of a fine country, hills covered with trees, fields, orchards, villages, and gentlemen's seats. The principal part of the city consists of four streets centering at a handsome conduit. The High-street particularly makes a noble appearance, it being broad and straight; and the houses are of a very old but good model, spacious, commodious, and not inelegant. This street is full of shops well furnished, and all trades are briskly carried on. In the northern angle of the city, and the highest ground, stands Rugemont castle, once the residence of the West Saxon monarchs, and afterwards of the earls of Cornwall. It is of a square figure, not very large, but environed with a high wall and a deep ditch. It has a rampart of earth parallel to the top of the wall, and forming a terrace that over-looks the city and country. In this castle the assizes are held, and it also contains a chapel. The bridge over the Ex is of great length, and has houses on both sides, with a considerable vacancy in the middle.

The cathedral was about four hundred years in building, and is yet very remarkable for the uniformity with which it was carried on; for the whole seems the workmanship of one and the same architect. The altar-piece, which was done a hundred years ago, is the representation of the church in perspective, a very fine piece of painting. The fine painted glass, of which there is a great deal, was much damaged during the time of the civil wars, in the reign of king Charles I. and the carved figures of the patriarchs and prophets were greatly defaced. On the south side of the high altar are three seats adorned with Gothic carvings to the height of about twenty-five feet, supported by brass pillars. In one of the towers of this church is a very large bell of about three ton weight, and in the other a fine ring of ten large ones.

The other buildings of a public nature are the chapter-house and cloisters, the bishop's palace, the houses belonging to the dean, the chancellor, treasurer, and other dignitaries of the church, the guild-hall, with the hospital of St. John the Baptist. There are within the city and liberties twenty parish-churches; to which may be added some chapels and alms-houses, with the ruins of several others. There are likewise three or four meeting-houses, a quay for landing goods, and a custom-house.

The city is governed by a mayor, twenty-four aldermen and common-council, a recorder, a sheriff, four stewards, a chamberlain, and town-clerk, who are attended by a sword-bearer, who wears the cap and carries the sword given by king Henry VII. before them in all public processions. There are also in this city twelve incorporated trades, who on public occasions walk in the mayor's train, dressed in gowns, each company having a beadle in a laced coat bearing the ensigns of their several professions.

Plymouth is situated in the fiftieth degree twenty-six minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree twenty-seven minutes west longitude, two hundred and fifteen miles from London, between two very large inlets of the sea, in the bottom of a spacious sound, or bay, encompassed on every side with hills; the shore is generally steep and rocky, though the anchorage is good, and it is pretty safe riding. In the entrance of the bay is a large and dangerous rock, which at high water is covered, but at low tide lies bare. Upon this rock, which is called the Eddy-stone, the ingenious Mr. Winstanley first built a light-house for the direction of sailors; this work, considering its height and the magnitude of the building, stood to admiration several dreadful storms. Mr. Winstanley, who often visited it, strengthened the building by new works, and was so confident of its stability, that he usually said to those who doubted its standing in hard weather, that he only desired to be in it when a storm should happen; but in the dreadful tempest of November 27, 1703, when he happened to be so unhappy as to have his wish, he in vain made signals for help; but no boats dared to go off to him; and in the morning after the storm nothing was to be seen but the bare rock, the light-house being gone, in which Mr. Winstanley and all that were with him perished; but a very stately light-house has since been built in its room. The town is defended by a castle seated on an island named St. Nicholas, and by a citadel in the town opposite to the island. This is a small but regular fortification, inaccessible by sea, but not exceeding strong by land. It is surrounded with a deep trench, out of which was dug the stone of which the citadel was built. It is about three quarters of a mile in circumference, and has three hundred guns on its walls, which stand thickest towards the sea. The town stands above the citadel upon the same rock, sloping on the side of it towards the east. The inlet of the sea, called Catwater, forms a harbour capable of receiving any number of ships, and of any size; it washes the eastern shore of the town, where they have a kind of natural mole, with a quay and all other conveniences for loading and unloading of vessels. On the other side of the town is another inlet of the sea, called Hamouze; this is the mouth of the river Tamar, where is a wet dock, with yards, dry docks, launches, and conveniences of all kinds for building and repairing of ships. These wet and dry docks exceed every thing of the kind, being hewn out of a mine of slate, and lined with Portland stone. The dry dock is large enough for a first-rate man of war, and the wet dock will contain five of the same size. Here are also store-houses for rigging, and for the naval and military stores of such ships as may be appointed to be laid up there; with very handsome houses for the commissioner, clerks, and officers of all kinds usual in the king's yards. In short, it is now become as complete a yard as any belonging to the government, though not so large. Here are two fine churches, and two or three meeting-houses for Protestant Dissenters and French refugees; also a free-school, and an hospital for blue coat boys. It gives title of earl to the noble family of Hickman.

Dartmouth, a sea-port town seated on the declivity of a hill at the mouth of the river Dart, where it empties itself into the sea, a hundred and ninety-eight miles from London, and thirty-one from Exeter. The opening into the harbour is not broad; but the channel deep enough for the largest ships in the royal navy. The sides of the entrance are mounded with rocks, and at the first narrowing of the passage is a good strong fort, and a platform of guns which command the port. The narrow entrance extends about half a mile, and then opening forms a harbour, in which five hundred sail of ships may ride with

the greatest safety, and the entrance may, upon occasion, be chained up.

Dartmouth is situated on the west side of this basin, or harbour, in a kind of semicircle, on the ascent of a steep hill; but though large and populous it is but meanly built, yet the quay is spacious, as is also the street before it. Here live some very flourishing merchants, who carry on a prosperous trade to the most considerable ports of Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the plantations; but especially to Newfoundland, and from thence to Spain and Italy with fish; and they also drive a good trade in their own fishery of pilchards, which is carried on with the greatest number of vessels of any port in the west, except Falmouth. It has three churches, and a very large meeting-house; but the streets are narrow and bad, though they are all paved, and is governed by a mayor, a recorder, twelve masters, or magistrates, a town-clerk, and a high-steward.

This town was burnt by the French in the reign of Richard I. They some time after besieged it again; but were bravely repulsed, particularly by the women, when the enemy being routed, general Castel, with three lords, and twenty-three knights, were made prisoners. This town has the title of an earldom.

About fifty miles from the north-west coast of this county is Lundy Island, which is five miles long, and two broad; but it is remarkable that it is so encompassed with inaccessible rocks, that it has but one entrance into it, and that so narrow that two men can scarce go abreast. The south part of the island enjoys a pretty good soil; but the north part is in a great measure barren, and has a remarkable high pyramidal rock called the Constable.

S E C T. XVI.

Of Cornwall; its Name, Situation, Extent, Division, &c. and the Members it sends to Parliament. The Air, Soil, and Vegetables; the Mines, Minerals, and natural Curiosities; with the Cattle, Fowls, Fish, and Rivers of this County. The Manners of the Inhabitant, a Description of the principal Towns, and a concise Account of the Scilly Islands.

THE present name of this county is differently accounted for; but the most probable derivation seems to be that which brings it from the promontories projecting into the sea like horns, called in the British language Kernaw, with the Saxon addition of Waules, to denote the people who fled thither. It is surrounded by the sea on all sides, except the east, where it is parted from Devonshire by the river Tamar: the northern coast being washed by the Bristol Channel, the western by St. George's, and the southern by the British sea. Its length from east to west is near seventy miles, its breadth next to Devonshire, where it is broadest, is computed about forty; but in the narrowest, at St. Ives, it does not exceed five, yet its circumference from its unequal shore measures upwards of two hundred and thirty-three miles.

Cornwall is situated in the diocese of Exeter, and contains about twenty-seven thousand six hundred and twenty houses, a hundred and sixty-five thousand inhabitants, a hundred and sixty-one parishes, twenty-seven market-towns, and twelve hundred and thirty villages: it is subdivided into nine hundreds, and sends no less than forty-four members to parliament; these are two knights of the shire, and as many members for each of the following towns: Camelford, Bodmin, Boffiney, Dunevet, Launceston, East Loe, Foy, Helston, Grampound, St. Maws, Lefkard, Kellington, St. Ives, St. Germans, Truro, St. Michael, Tregony, Newport, Portpigham, and Saltash.

The air is sharp and healthful to the natives, yet the vicinity of the sea, on three of its sides, prevents its being subject to hard frosts, and the snow lying long on the ground. The same reason may be assigned for the frequent gusts of wind which are here very boisterous, and consequently sometimes pernicious; but the inhabitants are seldom troubled with infectious diseases. The seasons are somewhat different from those in other parts,

the summer being more temperate; and as the autumnal fruits are later, their harvest is seldom ripe enough for the barn till near Michaelmas.

The soil as it is very shallow cannot be extraordinary fruitful, especially on the hilly parts. The vallies yield plenty of grass, and the lands near the sea, by being manured with orewood, a kind of sea-weed, and fat sea-land, produce considerable quantities of corn. The fruits and herbs of this county are much the same with those of others, though not so plentiful among the common people. It has besides some plants which are either uncommon, or have never been found in other counties: among these is a sort of grain sown plentifully towards the farther end of the county, which is naked oats, called pillcorn, from its being naturally stripped of the husk, with which the common oat is covered, for which reason it is much esteemed. They have also plenty of sea-herbs, as camphire, eringo, ros solis, and what is peculiar to this county the sweet-briar grows naturally here.

From the surface we shall pass to the bowels of the earth, where are found many sorts of stones and metals. As to the former, the moor-stone is the chief: this is used both in buildings and for large mill-stones. Its natural composition is very beautiful, it consisting for the greatest part of a whitish granulated marble, variegated with a sort of black and yellow matter resembling tinsel and tin-glass, shining and glittering very agreeably in the sun beams. This stone, therefore, while new, gives a glorious aspect to buildings; but though prodigiously hard at first, it soon changes its colour and consistence. When polished it appears much more splendid and beautiful than any of the marble kind, and makes the richest furniture, as tables, chimney-pieces, &c. but being exceeding hard, the polishing is very expensive.

With respect to the mines of Cornwall, they consist of two sorts, one of tin, the other of copper; those of tin are very numerous, and are in general very large and rich in ore, these have rendered this county famous in all ages. There have also been sometimes found a small quantity of gold and silver, but not worthy of notice. With the metalline ores are intermixed large quantities of mundic and arsenic.

The tin works are of different sorts, on account of the different forms in which the tin appears, for in many places the tin ore so nearly resembles common stones, that they can only be distinguished from them by their superior weight. The second form in which tin appears consists of tin and earth, compounded and concreted into a substance almost as hard as stone, of a bluish or greyish colour, and often the mundic gives it a yellowish cast. This ore is always found in a continued stratum or bed, which the tinnerns call the load, and thus, for the most part, is found running through the solid substance of the hardest rocks, beginning in small veins near the surface, perhaps not above half an inch or an inch wide, and increasing as they go into larger dimensions branching out into several strata, and proceeding downwards in a direction that is in general nearly east and west. These loads are sometimes white very wide and thick; so that great lumps of this ore are often drawn up of more than twenty pounds value. The loads of tin ore are not always contiguous; but sometimes break off so entirely, that you would think you had got to the end of it, but the sagacious tinner knows by experience, that by digging a small distance on one side he shall meet with a separated part of the load appearing to tally with the other end as nicely as if it had been broken off by some sudden shock of the rock.

The mines of this country follow the load in all its rich and meandering windings in the bowels of the rocky earth. Sometimes the waters are drained from these mines by subterranean passages, formed from the body of the mountain to the level country; these, which are called adits, sometimes prove the labour of many years, but when effected they save the constant expence of large water-works and fire engines. From the surface of the earth they sink a passage to the mine, which they call a shaft, and over it place a large winch; but in greater works a wheel and axle, by which means they draw up large quantities of ore at a time, in vessels called kibbuls.

This

This ore is thrown into heaps, where great numbers of poor people are employed in breaking it to pieces and fitting it for the stamping mills.

The third form in which tin appears is that of crystals; for tin being a salt, will, under some circumstances, readily crystalize; and therefore in many parts of the mineral rocks are found the most perfect transparent and beautiful crystals of pure tin.

The copper mines of this county next deserve our notice, they being very numerous, and some of them large and rich in ore. It is remarkable, that in some parts of Cornwall the earth has produced such an exuberance of this metal, as to afford it in large massy lumps of malleable copper, several pieces of which they shew in very curious vegetable forms. The mundic, which we have observed, is found in the loads of tin, was for many ages considered as of no other use but to nourish tin while in the mine. However, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, a laudable curiosity prompted some private persons to examine into its nature; but the design miscarried, and the mundic was thrown as useless into the old pits with other rubbish; but about eighty years ago, Sir Gilbert Clark began to work upon the mundic, and others following his example have by degrees brought the work to bear, and the copper extracted from this ore, once esteemed useless, now brings in above one hundred and fifty thousand pounds a year, and equals in goodness the best Swedish copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis caliminaris for making brass. In Mount's bay, near Penzance, the shore is as it were paved with a rocky stone, of so fine a grain that it equals any hone in giving an edge to a razor.

In many of the cavernous parts of the rocks are found those transparent crystals called Cornish diamonds, they being extremely brilliant when well polished. Their form is that of a six sided prism pointed on the top, and they are sometimes four or five inches in length.

All the parts of Cornwall on this side St. Austle's, St. Michael's, and St. Agnes, have little or no mineral ores, but mostly abound with rocks of blue slate, especially towards the south, where are many large quarries of that useful fossil.

Among the curiosities observable in this county, it is worthy of notice that the Lands-end consists of very steep rocks projecting beyond the rest into the sea, in which the water of the sea runs with great rapidity, violence, and noise.

Among the rude relics of nature in this county, we ought not to pass by the logan or rocking-stone, of which there are two sorts, some artificial, others natural; we shall here only take notice of the latter. In the parish of St. Levin is a promontory called Castle Treryn. This cape consists of three distinct groups of rocks, and on the top of the middle group is the most wonderful of these stones perhaps in the world. It is computed that its solid contents amount to about ninety-five tons; the two inclined sides somewhat resemble the roof of a house meeting in a sort of obtuse ridge upon the top. The lower part is a large plain base, near the middle of which projects a small part on which it rests, not more than eighteen or twenty inches in diameter. This prodigious stone is easily moveable upon the large stone below, the power of one man being sufficient to make it vibrate up and down.

With respect to the cattle of this country, it has all the several kinds found in the others; but it is remarkable that the sheep, which when it lay open and uncultivated were small, and their wool so coarse that it was usually called Cornish hair, have since the land has been well manured, equalled the sheep of other counties in size, and in the fineness of the wool. The cows and oxen are small, but their flesh sweet and juicy. They use oxen chiefly in ploughing. Their horses are bred hard, and fed as coarsely; but though they are small, they travel well, and are very serviceable in this mountainous country: mules are also much used. The parks are well stocked with fallow deer; but they have no red deer except what stray thither out of Devonshire. Many foxes, otters, badgers, and martins harbour in the cliffs near the sea side.

The fowl of this county are generally such as are found in others. Wild fowl are very plenty in the parts

adjoining to Devonshire. The birds called the choughs, which are in a manner peculiar to this county, are found in great plenty, and somewhat resemble the pied or grey crow; they are nearly of the size of the jack-daw, have red legs and beak, and have the character of being a very thievish bird. The most remarkable among the water-fowl is one about the size of a sea-gull, which has a singular method in taking of its prey; for it rises high in the air, and from thence falls as if dead, and by the velocity of the fall, is enabled to penetrate through the water, and suddenly seize the fish it strikes at. These are seen in very great numbers in Mount's bay, and other parts of the sea-coast.

The rivers and seas afford great plenty of fish, but mostly such as are common to other counties; but the prodigious shoals of pilchards enable them to carry on a very great trade in that fish. On the south coast are found large quantities of those small shell-fish which affords that beautiful tint called the Tyrian dye; this matter is contained in small cisterns or bags, and when taken out appears of a greenish yellow. If this be spread upon a piece of fine linen, it will in a day or two appear of a pale reddish colour, the linen being washed the first time it is heightened into a paleish purple, and every washing after renders the colour still more strong and vivid, and it is not in the least subject to fade.

The chief rivers are the Tamar, the Camel, and the Fale. The Tamar runs a long course from north to south, and is the boundary between the two counties of Cornwall and Devonshire, emptying itself into Plymouth Sound. The Camel runs from south to north, and forms Padstowe haven in the Bristol Channel. The Fale runs from north to south, and discharges itself into St. George's Channel, forming the haven of Falmouth.

The language of the Cornish gentry is English, which is said to be as pure as that in London, except in two or three parishes, where a corrupt dialect of the ancient Cornish tongue is much used. The natives of this country are distinguished by their plainness and simplicity of manners; they seem absolutely unacquainted with fraud, dissimulation, and flattery, and are of a free, facetious, and generous temper; they are curious and inquisitive, and are also distinguished for their humanity and hospitality to strangers; they are great encouragers of the arts and sciences, and excel in mechanics.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Leskard is a considerable town, two hundred and twenty-one miles to the south-west of London, and had anciently a good castle and a palace, in which the dukes of Cornwall kept their court, particularly Edward the Black prince, who resided here as prince of Wales and duke of Cornwall. Its town hall has a turret with a fine clock. There is here an ancient large church, dedicated to St. Martin, a spacious meeting house for the dissenters, a good free-school, and a fine conduit in the market place. It has a very great trade in all manufactures of leather, as boots, shoes, gloves, purses, breeches, &c.

Launceston is seated on the top of a small hill near the river Tamar, twenty-eight miles to the north of Plymouth, and two hundred and nine to the westward of London. Here the business of the county, as the assizes, and the election of the knights for the shire, are usually transacted. It is a neat town, and was formerly defended by a castle which is now in ruins.

Falmouth, a sea-port town, and by much the richest and best trading town in the county, is situated in fifty degrees, twelve minutes north latitude, and in five degrees twelve minutes west longitude, two hundred and eighty-two miles from London. The harbour is so large, that one hundred sail may safely ride at anchor at a time, and those of the greatest burthen may come up to the quay. The entrance into the harbour is defended by St. Mawes and Pendennis castles, both of which are very strong, and have governors and garrisons.

St. Mawes, also called St. Mary's, has a little town annexed to the castle; but it has neither church nor market. Falmouth is well built, and has abundance of ships belonging to it. It is full of merchants, and its trade has greatly increased since the establishment of the English packets between this town, Portugal, and the West

Indies, as also between it and the Groyne in Spain: those from Portugal bringing over not only vast quantities of gold for the London merchants, but for those of Falmouth, who trade with the Portuguese in their own ships, and have a great share in the profitable pilchard fishery. Here is the custom-house for most of the towns in the county, and a head collector lives at Falmouth. This town gives title of viscount to the noble family of Boscawen.

Truro is one of the chief towns in the county, and is seated two hundred and seventy-four miles from London, on a branch of Falmouth haven, which is here divided into two streams, and almost surrounds the town. It is a large, handsome, and well inhabited place, which takes its name from its three streets, which in the Cornish tongue are expressed by the word Truru. It has three churches, about six hundred houses, and is governed by a mayor and aldermen.

Penryn is up the same branch of the haven as Falmouth, but stands four miles to the west: It is a pleasant agreeable town, full of orchards, and looks like a town in a wood. The streets are broad and paved: it has a church, and about three hundred houses, and is governed by a mayor, four aldermen, and a town clerk, and there has been lately set up here a manufactory of ferges.

Penzance, a town seated on Mount's bay, within about twelve miles of the promontory called the Lands-end, and two hundred and ninety to the south-west of London, is a market-town well built and populous, and has many ships belonging to it, and also a considerable number of families of rank. It consists of about six hundred houses; the streets, though bad, are paved. The church stands about half a mile from the town; but the inhabitants have a chapel. It is governed by a mayor, a recorder, fourteen aldermen, and twenty-four common-council men. It is remarkable that veins of lead, tin, and copper ore are said to be seen even to the utmost extent of land at low-water mark, and in the very sea.

The rocks of Scilly, called by the Greeks Cassiterides, and by the Dutch seamen, Sorlings, are about one hundred and forty small islands and rocks thirty miles from the Lands-end, of which St. Mary's is the largest, and most fruitful, though but nine miles in circumference. It has a good harbour defended by a castle. The isle of Scilly was once esteemed the most considerable; that and some others stand very high; but several of them are overflowed at high tides. Some of them bear good corn, and most of them pasture. They abound with rabbits, cranes, herons, swans, and other water-fowl. These islands being situated near the mouth of the English Channel, have proved the destruction of many ships; for, in spite of light houses and the best skill of the mariners, they are very dangerous in the night, and in stormy weather: here Sir Cloudsley Shovel, in the admiral-ship, with three other men of war, unhappily ran upon these rocks, on the twenty-second of October, 1707, and not a man was saved out of all the ships.

We have now described all the counties of England to the south of the Thames and Bristol channel, and shall therefore proceed further north, and begin with Monmouthshire.

S E C T. XVII.

Of Monmouthshire; its Situation, Extent, Air, Soil, Produce, and Rivers.

Monmouthshire was formerly a part of Wales, and as such is described by Camden, and other authors; but as all the later writers have placed it in England, we shall follow their example, though there seems to be no better reason for it than the Oxford circuit being extended through that county in the reign of king Charles II.

Monmouthshire receives its name from Monmouth its county town, and is bounded on the north by Herefordshire; on the east by Gloucestershire; on the south by the river Severn; and on the west by the Welsh counties of Brecknock and Glamorgan. Its extent from north to

south is about twenty-nine miles, from east to west twenty, and in circumference eighty-four. It is subdivided into six hundreds, and contains seven market-towns, one hundred and twenty-seven parishes, about six thousand four hundred and ninety-four houses, thirty-eight thousand nine hundred inhabitants; but sends only three members to parliament, that is, one for Monmouth, and two for the county.

The air is temperate and healthy, and the soil fruitful, though mountainous and woody. The hills feed sheep, goats, and horned cattle, and the valleys produce plenty of grass and corn, especially of the latter, of which there is as good wheat as in any county in the kingdom.

This county is extremely well watered by several fine rivers; for besides the Wye, which parts it from Gloucestershire, the Mynow, which runs between it and Herefordshire, and the Rumney, which divides it from Glamorganshire, it has peculiar to itself the Usk, which enters this county a little above Abergavenny, runs mostly southward, and falls into the Severn by the mouth of the Ebwith; which last river runs from north to south in the western side of the county. All these rivers, especially the Wye and Usk, abound with fish, particularly salmon and trout.

The gentlemen here generally speak English, though the common people use the Welsh language. The manufacture of the county is flannels.

The principal towns in this county are the following:

Monmouth, or Mynwy, is seated at the mouth of the river Mynwy, or Mynow, between that river and the Wye, over each of which it has a bridge. The town is in a manner surrounded with water, there being another river called the Troby, over which it has also a bridge. It is a populous, handsome, well built town, and has a stately church, the east end of which is much ornamented. It has been a place of great strength, and might be easily made so again. The castle, though now in a ruinous condition, was formerly a stately edifice. The market, which is very considerable for corn and all sorts of provisions, is held on Saturdays. The government is under a mayor, two bailiffs, fifteen common-council-men, a town-clerk, &c.

Chepstow is seated on the side of a hill, fourteen miles to the south of Monmouth, and a hundred and thirty-one to the west of London, near the mouth of the Wye, over which it has a fine bridge: it was formerly much resorted to, and is still a large, well-built, and populous town. It was antiently walled round, and defended by a castle; and among the other public buildings had a monastery, the remaining part of which is converted into a parish-church. This is the port for all the towns that stand on the rivers Wye and Lug; ships of good burthen come up to it, for the tide commonly rises here six fathoms, or six and a half at the bridge, which is of timber, and no less than seventy feet high from the surface of the water when the tide is out. In the year 1689 was discovered in this town a Roman pavement, which when entire was very beautiful, representing men, beasts, birds, trees, &c.

Abergavenny has its name from the river Gavenny, which falls below it into the Usk. It is a handsome well-built town, sixteen miles to the west of Monmouth, and a hundred and forty-two of London. This town is encompassed by a wall, and defended by a strong castle. It is a great thorough-fare from the west parts of Wales to Bristol and Bath, and also from Monmouth to Gloucester; and the inhabitants carry on a great trade in flannel. It gives title of baron to the ancient and noble family of Neville.

S E C T. XVIII.

Of Gloucestershire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives in Parliament, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THIS county takes its name from the city of Gloucester, which was called by the Saxons Gleaucaster, and is bounded on the north by Worcestershire, and

and a small part of Warwickshire; on the east by Warwickshire, Oxfordshire, and Berkshire; on the south by Wiltshire and Somersetshire; and on the west by Herefordshire and Monmouthshire. It is sixty-five miles in length and thirty-two in breadth, and contains twenty-seven market-towns, two hundred and eighty parishes, one castle, two forests, nineteen parks, twenty-six thousand seven hundred and sixty houses, and a hundred and sixty-two thousand five hundred and sixty inhabitants: it is subdivided into thirteen hundreds, and sends only eight members to parliament, that is, two for the county, two for the city of Gloucester, and two each for Cirencester and Tewksbury.

The air of this county is wholesome throughout its whole extent; but has a different soil and appearance in the different parts of it: in the east it is hilly, in the west woody, and in the middle is enriched with a fruitful vale. The east part, called Cotswould, has a sharp air; and though the lands are not very fertile in corn, they feed a great number of sheep: the Vale includes both sides of the river Severn, and is very fertile, especially in rich pastures. Here is made the cheese which, next to that of Cheshire, is highly esteemed all over England; and a great deal of this cheese is also made in Wiltshire: in this Vale the air is so mild, even in winter, that it seems to enjoy a different climate from that of Cotswould. The Forest of Dean, which borders upon Herefordshire and Monmouthshire, is fertile both in pasture and tillage; it bears very fine oaks, and has rich mines of iron and valuable coal pits. In general this county may be justly said to abound with all the necessaries of life in the greatest perfection, as corn, wool, iron, steel, timber, bacon, cyder, and salmon. The chief manufacture carried on by the inhabitants is clothing, which, before our wool was smuggled to France, has been known to return five hundred thousand pounds per annum.

Its principal river is the Severn, which rises in Montgomeryshire, and entering this county a little above Tewksbury runs near south-west by Gloucester, discharging itself into the Bristol Channel. The tide flows as high as Tewksbury, which, following the course of the river, is near seventy miles. A little below Newnham it resembles a sea, and the tide of flood rushes on with such impetuosity, that it comes in a roll often near four feet high, carrying every thing before it. This is called The Boar. But what is still more remarkable is, that the tides are highest one year at the full moon, and the next at the change; and one year the night-tides are highest, and the next the day-tides. In this river are taken plenty of excellent salmon, lamprey, and conger eels.

The principal places in Gloucestershire are the following:

Gloucester, by the Britons called *Caer-Glow*, which signifies fine city, and by the Romans *Glevum*, is seated on the east side of the river Severn, a hundred and two miles from London. It abounds much with crosses and statues of the kings of England, and has a handsome prospect of steeples, some without a church. These and their religious foundations in every part of the city gave rise to the old proverb, "As sure as God is at Gloucester." The cathedral is a venerable pile with a handsome tower, and a finely vaulted choir. On the north side lies the unfortunate king Edward II. and before the high altar, in the middle of the church, lies the equally unfortunate prince Robert, the eldest son of William the Conqueror, who, after being imprisoned twenty-six years by his younger brother Rufus, died, and was interred here. In this cathedral is a whispering-place, which formerly passed among the vulgar as somewhat almost miraculous, till they were taught that there is a whispering-gallery in St. Paul's cathedral. This city was anciently fortified, but after the Restoration was dismantled by act of parliament, on account of the resistance it made against the forces of king Charles I. The old houses projecting into the streets, and its crosses, have been pulled down by act of parliament in 1750, and instead of the latter is a statue of colonel Selwyn, their member, who at his own expence made a very large reservoir about half a mile off, from which the water is conveyed into a square basin at the foot of this statue, from whence it runs into four canals, which

flow through the four great streets that here meet in the center of the city. There are large remains of abbeys and convents, both of black and white friars.

There is a large quay, wharf, and custom-house on the river; and in the city are twelve companies, the masters of which attend the mayor on all public occasions in their gowns, and with streamers. Great provision is here made for the poor, particularly Bartholomew's hospital for fifty-four men and women; a blue-coat hospital for educating twenty boys, and for maintaining and annually cloathing ten men and women: there are also three others, with several benefactions for encouraging young tradesmen and putting out boys apprentice, and lately an infirmary has been erected here. The city is governed by a mayor, twelve aldermen, and common-council, who are never fewer than twenty-six, nor above thirty-nine, a town-clerk, and sword-bearer. This city was made the see of a bishop by king Henry VIII. who erected the abbey-church into a cathedral, with a dean and six prebendaries.

Cirencester, so called from the river Churn, on which it stands, and Cestre, a castle, is a populous, rich, and trading town, full of clothiers; it stands eighteen miles to the south-east of Gloucester, and eighty-five to the north-west of London, and carries on a great trade in wool, which is brought from the inland counties of Leicester, Northampton, and Lincoln, and bought up here by the clothiers of Wiltshire and Gloucestershire, for the supply of the great clothing trade. Here is a large beautiful church, with two isles, supported by strong pillars. The chancel is handsomely decorated, and the tower is very neat and lofty: the windows shew some beautiful remains of painted glass, and there are five chapels adjoining it. In this town is a free-school, and several hospitals and alms-houses.

Many antiquities have been found here. In 1723 was discovered a fine Mosaic pavement, and afterwards Mr. Bishop dug up in his garden a vault sixteen feet long and twelve broad, supported by square pillars of Roman brick three feet and half high, on which was a strong floor of terrace, and near it are several other vaults. These were probably the foundations of some Roman temple, for in the same place they found pedestals, the shafts and capitals of columns, and handsome entablatures. Indeed there have been found here innumerable coins and entaglios. The town is governed by two high-constables; and has two weekly markets, one on Monday for corn, cattle, and provisions; and on Friday for wool. In the neighbourhood of this town lord Bathurst has an elegant seat, park, and gardens.

Fairford is a small market-town situated on the river Coln, and is remarkable for the many medals and urns that have been dug up here, and particularly for the fine painted windows of the church. For John Tame, a merchant of London, having taken a prize-ship bound for Rome, in which he found a great quantity of painted glass, he brought both the glass and workmen to England. This painted glass was so beautiful, that Mr. Tame built this church in order to place it in the windows, and dedicated this structure, which is a hundred and twenty-five feet long, and fifty five broad, to the Virgin Mary. It has three chancels, a good vestry, and a noble tower. The windows, which are twenty-eight in number, are glazed with this invaluable prize, and still remain entire; for in the civil wars the glass was taken out and concealed. The painting was from the design of Albert Durer, and the colouring in the drapery and some of the figures so well executed, that Vandyke affirmed they could not be exceeded. The subject is taken from the scripture histories of the Old and New Testament. John Tame, Esq; the founder of this structure, who died in 1500, lies buried on the north side of the church, under a marble monument.

Tewksbury is seated at the confluence of the rivers Severn and Avon, ninety-six miles west-north-west of London, and contains about five hundred houses. Its church is a noble structure, and one of the largest in England, that is not collegiate or a cathedral. It is very lofty, has two spacious isles, a stately tower, and a large chancel. The communion-table consists of one entire piece of marble, fourteen feet long, and three and a half

broad. The town is governed by two bailiffs and twenty-four burgeses, and its neighbourhood to Cotswould makes the clothing trade flourish here. It has likewise a manufacture of cotton.

We have already described the city of Bristol in treating of Somersetshire, though a considerable part of that city stands in this county; and have purposely omitted taking notice of St. Vincent's rocks, and the Hot Well, which stand about two miles distance from Bristol, and ought to be mentioned in this county. St. Vincent's rocks are a vast and irregular heap of stones, intermixed with minerals; but the principal substance of the rocks is a very hard limestone. The rock, out of which issues the famous water called that of the Hot Well, or Bristol water, stands on the north side of the river Avon, and affords a romantic and beautiful prospect. To taste this water in perfection it must be drank warm from the spring, or else it loses its flavour. As it passes through a vast bed of rocks, and among a variety of different stones, it doubtless borrows its taste and virtues from the most particular kinds, and when drank at the spring-head has a fine gentle warmth and a delicate soft milky taste; it is very grateful to the stomach, and is allowed to be cooling, cleansing, and balsamic; but one of its greatest qualities is its astringency: this renders it useful in the diabetes; and in consequence of its other qualities, it is drank with great success in obstructions in the urinary passages from gravel, as also in many of the chronic cases which are least to be relieved by the common course of medicine.

Bristol-stones are found in vast quantities in the cracks of rocks and cavities of stones; but chiefly in the cavities of iron ore. They rise in a great variety of forms in different places, and the clusters of them are yet more various in their appearance, they generally adhere to the rock or ore at one end, and terminate in a point at the other.

S E C T. XIX.

Of Herefordshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, &c. Its Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

HEREFORDSHIRE is bounded on the north by Shropshire; on the east by Worcestershire and Gloucestershire; on the south by Monmouthshire; and on the west by Radnorshire, in Wales; it extends thirty-five miles from north to south, thirty from east to west, and a hundred and eight in circumference.

This county lies in the diocese of Hereford, and contains eight market-towns, eighty-seven vicarages, a hundred and seventy-six parishes, and three hundred and ninety-one villages, fifteen thousand houses, and ninety-five thousand six hundred inhabitants. It is divided into twelve hundreds, and sends eight members to parliament, namely, two knights for the shire, and two for each of the following towns: Hereford, Lempster or Leominster, and Weobly.

The air of this county is healthy and delightful, whence the inhabitants generally live to a great age. As an instance of which, it is said, that a morris-dance was performed before king James I. by ten men and women, whose ages together made a thousand years. The soil is exceeding rich, producing excellent corn, wool, and fruit, as is evident from the Lempster bread, Webber ale, and Herefordshire cyder: the last of which is sent to all parts of England. It also abounds with wood and fish.

Herefordshire is plentifully watered with several rivers, the chief of which are the Wye, the Monow, the Zug, and the Frome, or Froom; all of which are well stored with fish. The salmon of this county are very remarkable, for in other parts of England they are so far out of season, after spawning, as to be unwholesome food, till they have been again at sea to recover themselves; but here they are always found, fat, and fit for the table. The principal places in this county are the following:

Hereford, the metropolis and only city of that county, received its name from the Saxon, it signifying the ford of the army, being the head-quarters of the Saxons: it

is seated on the banks of the Wye, a hundred and thirty-one miles from London, and twenty-six from Gloucester. It has a good stone bridge of eight arches over the Wye, and is surrounded with rivers on all sides but the east. This city, though large, is not populous; as it lies low the streets are often overflowed, so that they are very dirty. It originally owed its flourishing state to the martyrdom of Ethelbert, king of the East Angles, who was basely murdered by king Offa, and had a church built here to his memory, which was soon erected into an episcopal see. This is a stately fabric, the choir, though plain, is neat, and has a good organ; and the spire is handsome, but not very lofty.

The city is governed by a mayor, and has distinct privileges for its several companies, who have their respective halls. In the time of the civil wars this city, being very strong, and well defended, supported a very severe siege against the parliament forces, and even the Scottish army, four thousand of the latter having been slain before it; but at length it surrendered. Of its six parish-churches two were demolished by the siege; but in 1738 the Gothic chapel belonging to the bishop's palace was pulled down, in order to erect another for the public service. Without the walls of Hereford city are the ruins of Black friars monastery, and a pretty stone cross entire, round which were the cloisters, and now the cloisters of the cathedral inclose just such another. These crosses served as a kind of pulpit, whence a monk preached to the people in the open air. It has an hospital liberally endowed for twelve poor persons, with two charity-schools, one for sixty boys, and the other for forty girls, all taught and clothed by subscription. Its weekly markets are on Wednesday, Friday, and Saturday; and it gives title of first viscount of England to a branch of the Devereaux family.

The walls may be traced all round the city, though overgrown with trees, shrubs, grass, and hedges. Towards the north it is sheltered by a high mountain of steep ascent, with a vast camp at the top, from which is a prospect as far as St. Michael's Mount in Monmouthshire, and on the other side is a lofty bleak mountain that separates Brecknockshire from this county.

Lempster, or Leominster, is a large borough on the river Lug, over which are several bridges, fifteen miles from Hereford, and a hundred and thirty-six from London. The church, which is very large, having been in a manner rebuilt, is a very beautiful structure. On the north side of it was a considerable priory, two aisles of which now belong to the church, and two others of more lightsome work, have been added. There are some poor remains of the priory, particularly a little chapel which probably belonged to the prior's family, and underneath it runs a rivulet, which served to grind the prior's corn, but now turns a fulling-mill; and near it are very large ponds for fish, which used to furnish the monks on fasting days. This town is noted for its fine wool and the best wheat and barley, and consequently for the finest bread: it has also a brisk trade in hat-making. Three rivulets that have a swift current run through the town, and there are others very near it; the inhabitants make use of these to work their mills and other machinery in the various branches of their trade.

Between Lempster and Hereford is Hampton, the seat of the late lord Coningsby. There is a plentiful supply of water on all sides of the house for fountains, basins, and canals; and the windows of the chapel are well painted. The park, which is very fine, is eight miles in circumference, and consists of lawns, groves, canals, hills, and plains.

S E C T. XX.

Of Oxfordshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives, Air, Soil, Produce, and Rivers; with a Description of the principal Places it contains, particularly Oxford and Blenheim-house.

THIS county takes its name from the City of Oxford, and is bounded on the north by Warwickshire and Northamptonshire, between which counties it runs

runs for a few miles due north, in the form of a wedge; on the east by Buckinghamshire and Hampshire; on the south by Berkshire; and on the west by Gloucestershire. It extends forty-one miles in length, eighteen in breadth, and a hundred and thirty-eight in circumference.

This county sends nine members to parliament, namely, two knights for the shire, two representatives of the university, two burgesses for Woodstock, and one for Banbury. It is divided into fourteen hundreds, and contains sixty-two vicarages, two hundred and eighty parishes, twelve market-towns, four hundred and fifty-one villages, nineteen thousand houses, and a hundred and fourteen thousand inhabitants.

The air of this county is equal in goodness to any of the other; for the soil being naturally dry, and at the same time plentifully watered with limpid streams, the air is naturally sweet and wholesome.

The soil in general is very fruitful both in corn and grass; but there is a great variety in it, and consequently several degrees of fertility. The husbandmen know well how to distinguish and manage accordingly, both as to the tillage and the different kinds of grain sown here, there being no less than five sorts of wheat adapted to as many kinds of soil. The meadows are covered with rich grass, and are extremely profitable to the farmer. The chief commodities are corn, malt, cattle, fruit, freestone, several sorts of earth, useful in medicine, dyeing, and scouring. Whitney in this county is famous for its manufacture of blankets.

The principal rivers are the Thames, Isis, Charwell, Windrush, and Evenload, which afford plenty of fish, and are remarkably good. The principal places in this county are the following:

Oxford, a noble, populous, and fine city, seated in a delightful plain on the banks of the Isis and Charwell, fifty-five miles from London. It is pretended by some authors, that it was built a thousand years before the birth of our Saviour; but this is justly controverted by others; however, it is allowed by all to have been a place of note before the coming of the Saxons. The whole city, with its suburbs, is of a circular form, three miles in circumference. The streets are spacious, neat, and generally straight; the mayor and aldermen govern the corporation, but in subjection to the chancellor and vice-chancellor of the university, to whom both they and the sheriff of Oxfordshire swear to maintain the rights and privileges of the university. On St. Scholastica's-day, which is on the tenth of February, sixty-two of the principal citizens pay an acknowledgment of one penny each, instead of a heavy fine laid on the city, for an outrage committed against the university in the reign of king Edward III. when sixty-two students were barbarously murdered by the citizens.

The university, considered as a body corporate, consists of the officers of the university in general, and of the several colleges. The governors of this great university, which, for the number of its colleges, and the fineness of its buildings, has not its equal, are the following: I. The chancellor, who is chosen by the students in convocation, and whose office is to inspect the government of the university, to protect its privileges, and call assemblies. The choice generally falls on some nobleman of high rank, and his office is for life. II. The high-steward, who is nominated by the chancellor, and accepted of by the university: his office is for life, and his employment to assist the chancellor and proctors in the execution of their offices, and to sit as judge in capital causes, when required by the chancellor. III. The vice-chancellor is annually nominated by the chancellor as his deputy, and is elected in convocation. He is always the head of some college, and is in orders; he on all occasions represents the chancellor in his absence. IV. The proctors, who are two in number, are annually chosen out of the several colleges by turns. Their duty is to inspect the public exercises, to see discipline preserved, and all disorders prevented or punished. After these are the public orator, the keeper of the records, the register, six beadles, and a verger.

The colleges are places provided with sufficient revenues for the maintenance of a master, professors, and students: the halls are houses where the students live

either wholly, or in part, at their own expence. Of the first sort there are twenty, and of the latter but five. In each of these are private lectures and disputes in the liberal sciences, to prepare the students for the public exercises. They are ranked in the following order:

I. University-college is situated near the east gate of the city, and was the beginning of the university. It was founded before the year 721, but how much earlier is not certain, king Alfred not being so properly the founder of this university, as its restorer after the Danish devastations. It has one master, twelve fellows, seventeen scholars, and two exhibitioners. Before the noble benefaction of Dr. Radcliffe, it had one large beautiful quadrangle, the south side of which is divided into a handsome hall and chapel. In a niche before this quadrangle is a statue of the late queen Anne, and in a niche on the inside of a new quadrangle is that of Dr. Radcliffe, who left forty thousand pounds for building a public library, which is a noble structure.

II. Baliol-college stands in the north part in the suburbs, and was founded by John Baliol, whose son was king of Scotland. It maintains a master, twelve fellows, thirteen scholars, and eighteen exhibitioners. It has one large ancient quadrangle, on the north side of which is the chapel, and a library furnished with a noble collection of books.

III. Merton-college is situated on the south side of the city, and takes its name from its founder Walter of Merton, bishop of Rochester, and chancellor of England, about the year 1267. It has a warden, twenty-four fellows, fourteen portionists, and two clerks. The chapel is the parish-church of St. John Baptist. The inner large court of the college is very beautiful, and has a well furnished library, with a fine garden.

IV. Exeter-college is situated on the west side of the schools, in the north part of the town, and was founded in 1316, by Walter Stapleton, bishop of Exeter, and lord treasurer of England. It maintains a rector, twenty-three fellows, one bible-clerk, and three exhibitioners. It has one large quadrangle, which has a very noble front, and over the gate is a splendid tower.

V. Oriel-college is situated on the south side of the town, and was at first named St. Mary's and King's-college. It was founded by king Edward II. in 1324, and his son Edward III. adding to the revenue a rich messuage called Le Oriel, it thence took the name of Oriel-college. It consists of one handsome regular quadrangle, and has a provost, eighteen fellows, and twelve exhibitioners.

VI. Queen's-college is seated near the parish-church of St. Peter's in the East, and founded in 1340 by Eglesfield, chaplain or confessor to Philippa, consort to king Edward III. in honour of whom he called it Queen's-college. It maintains a provost, sixteen fellows, sixteen scholars, eight chaplains, nine taberders, and twenty exhibitioners. It has had some noble benefactors, who have erected extensive buildings that are justly admired. One side of it is three hundred and twenty-seven feet long, supported by a piazza, and adorned with statues, in which is a long and lofty library, well furnished with books; and on the other side of the college is the new chapel and hall. Her late majesty queen Caroline's statue is erected in this college under a kind of temple supported by pillars, she having given a thousand pounds towards completing the new building.

VII. New-college, which stands on the north-east part of the city, was founded in 1386 by William of Wickham, bishop of Winchester, and lord high chancellor, under the name of the college of the Blessed Virgin Mary. It has a warden, seventy fellows, ten chaplains, three clerks, sixteen choristers, &c. Great additions have been made to the beauty of the buildings, which have been also enlarged towards the garden with two stately and uniform wings. The chapel is a magnificent structure, with a very lofty tower, and a fine ring of bells. The library is well furnished with books and manuscripts, and the great garden laid out in form. In the front is a range of iron palisades, and a gate of exquisite workmanship.

VIII. Lincoln-college, which stands in the middle of the city, was founded in 1427 by Richard Fleming, bishop

bishop of Lincoln; but finished by Thomas De Rotherham, bishop of Lincoln, afterwards lord high chancellor and archbishop of York, in 1475. It has a rector, twelve fellows, nine scholars, twenty exhibitioners, two chaplains, &c. This college has two small ancient quadrangles, with a beautiful chapel, the windows of which are curiously painted.

IX. All Souls college, which fronts the High street, was founded by Henry Chicheley archbishop of Canterbury, for offering up prayers for the souls of all who fell in the wars of king Henry V. in France. It has a warden, forty fellows, two chaplains, nine scholars, three clerks, six choiristers, &c. Colonel Codrington bequeathed ten thousand pounds to this college for building a library and furnishing it with books. This library is two hundred feet long within the walls, and thirty-two feet and a half broad: it has eleven large windows to the south, with a window of seventeen feet in width at each end. It is a fine gothic structure, and is thus built in conformity to the chapel.

X. Magdalen college stands without the east gate, and was founded in 1458, by William Patten, otherwise Wainfleet, bishop of Winchester, and lord high chancellor. It has a president, forty fellows, a school-master, thirty scholars, called demies, an usher, three public readers, four chaplains, eight clerks, sixteen choristers, &c. The chapel and hall are very magnificent, and the walks very delightful. The library, to which colonel Codrington also bequeathed ten thousand pounds, is very well furnished.

XI. Brazen-Nose college is situated in the middle of the city, where stood a hall of the same name, with a monstrous nose of brass fixed upon the door. It was founded in 1509, by William Smith bishop of Lincoln, and has a principal, twenty-four fellows, thirty-three scholars, &c. It consists of two very handsome quadrangles, in the lesser of which are the chapel and library, and under them a wide and pleasant cloister, compactly and elegantly built.

XII. Corpus Christi college stands on the south side of the city, and was founded in 1516, by Richard Fox, bishop of Winchester, and lord privy seal to king Henry VII. and VIII. It has a president, twenty fellows, twenty scholars, two chaplains, and four exhibitioners. It contains some very noble buildings, and its library has a valuable collection of books and manuscripts.

XIII. Christ-Church college, takes up a vast extent of ground, on the south side of the city. It was begun in the year 1515, by Cardinal Wolsey, but upon his disgrace it fell into the king's hands, who made it an episcopal see, and joined it to Canterbury college, and Peckwater Inn. It has a dean, eight canons, one hundred and one students, eight chaplains, eight singing men, eight choiristers, and a teacher of music, a school-master, usher, forty grammar scholars, &c. In the stately tower in the front of the gate, hangs the great bell called Tom, which was removed thither out of the steeple of the cathedral, and is seven feet one inch in diameter, weighing seventeen thousand pounds weight. This bell is tolled every night one hundred and one strokes, agreeable to the number of students in the college, to give warning for shutting up the gates in the colleges and halls in the university. The buildings of this college are very large and splendid. The great quadrangle has a wide and handsome terrace round it, and a fountain in the middle. Peckwater quadrangle is finely built, and there are also two other squares. The cathedral is lofty, the hall and library are high and spacious, and the latter contains a noble collection of books. In a word, this college is a university of itself.

XIV. Trinity college was originally a religious house, called Durham college; for the monks of Durham cathedral, seated in the north suburbs; but upon the dissolution of monasteries, Sir Thomas Pope purchased it of those to whom it had been granted by the crown, and converted it into a college. It has a president, twelve fellows, twelve scholars, &c. It consists of two quadrangles, in the first of which are the chapel, the hall, and the library. The chapel, which has been rebuilt, is an elegant structure, and the roof is enriched with fret-work, and an admirable painting representing our Saviour's ascension.

The gardens on the east side of the college are large and well laid out.

XV. St. John Baptist's college stands in the north suburbs, and was founded in 1555, by Thomas White, lord mayor of London in the place where St. Bernard's college stood before the Reformation. The two quadrangles are large and uniform, particularly the inner court built by archbishop Laud, which is very elegant, the east and west sides of it being supported by noble piazzas. The hall is neat, and adorned with good pictures, and the gardens large and well laid out. It has a president, thirty-nine fellows, eleven scholars, &c.

XVI. Jesus college is situated in St. Michael's parish, and was begun in 1571, by Hugh Price prebendary of Rochester, and appropriated to the benefit of the Welsh; it has met with several benefactions, by which it is enabled to maintain a principal, nineteen fellows, eighteen scholars, twenty-one exhibitioners, &c. It has two handsome quadrangles, the innermost of which is very regular and uniform.

XVII. Wadham college is seated in the north skirts of the city, and received its name from its founder Nicholas Wadham, of Somersetshire, Esq. It was begun in 1609, and finished after his death by his lady in 1613. It consists of one noble quadrangle, besides the library and chapel, the windows of which are beautifully painted, and has a handsome garden. It maintains a warden, fifteen fellows, fifteen scholars, &c.

XVIII. Pembroke college stands on the south side of the city, and was formerly called Broad-gate hall, but was erected into a college by the bounty of Thomas Tesdale, Esq. and Richard Wrightwicke, B. D. in 1624, who gave it the present name in honour of the earl of Pembroke, then lord chancellor. It has one handsome quadrangle, the front of which is a regular neat piece of building, and has a pleasant garden. It has a master, thirteen fellows, and twenty-three scholars, &c.

XIX. Worcester college was lately called Gloucester hall; but was erected into a college by Sir Thomas Cooksey, of Aitley in Worcestershire, and has lately been adorned with new buildings, which make a stately and splendid appearance.

XX. Hertford college was originally called Hart hall; but was erected into a college in 1740, by his late majesty's royal charter, by which it is to consist of a principal, with four senior and eight junior fellows. It stands in the parish of St. Peter's in the east, and consists of one quadrangle.

These are the twenty colleges of which this celebrated university consists; there are besides five halls, which are places unendowed, though not without exhibitions; the students in these subsist at their own expence, are under the government of a principal, and vice-principal, and pay the former for their lodgings. These five halls are Alban hall, Edmund hall, St. Marys hall, New-Inn hall, and St. Mary Magdalen hall.

Besides the building already mentioned, is the theatre, a magnificent structure raised by the munificence of Dr. Gilbert Sheldon archbishop of Canterbury, and built by Sir Christopher Wren. The roof, which is supported without pillars, is finely painted. There is here also the noble Bodleian library, and the museum Ashmoleanum, one of the richest repositories of natural curiosities in the world, the Clarendon printing-house, &c.

The city of Oxford was made an episcopal see in 1541, and besides the colleges and halls just mentioned, has two charity schools, one erected by the university for fifty-four boys, and the other by the city, for fifty boys and girls.

Woodstock, a borough seven miles to the north of Oxford, is pleasantly seated on a rising ground, and was formerly celebrated for the famous labyrinth in which fair Rosamond was concealed by king Henry II. and murdered by his queen. Some years ago a small part of the old palace, and of this labyrinth were remaining; but not the least vestige of them is now left. This town is now principally famous for Blenheim house, a magnificent pile of building erected about half a mile from the town to perpetuate the memory of the signal victory obtained by the allies over the French and Bavarians near the village of Blenheim on the banks of the Danube.

in August 1704. This noble seat, with the manor of Woodstock, was settled by the British parliament on John Churchill, duke of Marlborough, and his heirs, as a grateful acknowledgment for his bravery and conduct on that occasion. The roof is adorned with a stone balustrade; but there are several towers on the top of the wings, that have a very heavy aspect. The lofty hall was painted by Sir James Thornhill, and the ceiling by La Guerre; the rooms are finely enriched with marble chimney pieces, beautiful furniture, incomparable hangings, and paintings representing the principal exploits of the duke of Marlborough. Among the pictures are many of Rubens's best and largest pieces, and the famous loves of the gods by Titian, which was a present from the king of Sardinia. The gallery is supported by marble columns and pilasters, supporting a most curious entablature. Over a pediment in the front of the house, facing the gardens, is a fine bust of Lewis XIV. bigger than the life, taken from the gate of Tournay. The chapel is very beautiful, and the garden is a large plot of ground taken out of the park and well laid out, having fine walks, espaliers, &c. and the vistas are terminated by some remarkable objects in the neighbouring country. In the park is a lofty bridge, consisting of one arch above one hundred and ninety feet wide, and a vast obelisk, in which is inscribed an excellent summary of the duke's actions and character.

Banbury is a large well built market-town, seated on the Charwell, seventy-seven miles to the north-west of London. It contains several good inns, and its markets are well supplied with provisions. This is esteemed the second town in the county for beauty; the houses are generally built with stone, and the church is a large handsome structure. This town has long been famous for its cakes and ale.

SECT. XXI.

Of Buckinghamshire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Places.

THIS county probably derived its name from the Saxon word Buc, it formerly abounding more in deer than any other county. It is bounded on the north by Northamptonshire; on the east by Bedfordshire, Hertfordshire, and Middlesex; on the south by Berkshire, from which it is separated by the Thames; and on the west by Oxfordshire. Its length is about thirty-nine miles, its breadth where broadest, is about eighteen, and it is one hundred and thirty-eight miles in compass.

This county, which lies in the diocese of Lincoln, and in Norfolk circuit, is divided into eight hundreds, and contains fifteen market-towns, seventy-three vicarages, one hundred and eighty-five parishes, six hundred and fifteen villages, eighteen thousand three hundred and ninety houses, and about one hundred and eleven thousand three hundred and forty inhabitants. It sends fourteen members to parliament, namely two for the county, two for Buckingham, two for Chipping-Wycomb, two for Ailesbury, two for Great-Marlow, two for Wendover, and two for Agmondesham.

The air of Buckinghamshire is generally esteemed good, especially in the higher parts; and even in the vallies it is more healthful than in many other counties. The soil is for the most part chalk, or marl, and very rich; so that the corn and cattle of this county are excellent, particularly their sheep. The chief commodities are timber, beach, fine wool, and the chief manufactures are bone-lace, which is here made in great perfection, straw-hats, and paper.

The rivers of this county are but small, except the Thames, which washes its borders to the south; the others are the Ouse and the Colne.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Buckingham, which is seated on the Ouse, which surrounds it on all sides but the north, and is forty-six miles to the north-west of London. It stands on a low ground, and has three bridges over the river. A castle was for-

merly seated in the middle of the town, but hardly any of its ruins now remain. It has a town-hall, a church, and a chapel, erected by archbishop Becker, now used as a free-school, and several meeting-houses. The county jail and court are sometimes kept here, and sometimes the assizes are held in this town.

Near this town is Stow, a village rendered deservedly famous by the noble gardens which belonged to the late lord viscount Cobham, and now to earl Temple. On entering the garden on the south-side, you are struck with the grandeur and variety of the objects that present themselves to view. In the middle of a large octagon piece of water is an obelisk near seventy feet high, from the top of which rises a stream of water. At a good distance are two beautiful rivers, which join, and enter the octagon in one stream, and over one of them is a Palladian bridge. At a distance on the right hand is a Gothic structure seated on a hill, and dedicated to Liberty, and on the left, an Egyptian pyramid sixty feet high.

From the above octagon falls a natural cascade, in three different sheets of water. From hence you pass to the hermitage, which is agreeably situated in a wood; on passing through you come to a neat structure called the Veneris Hortus, before which are the statues of Cain and Abel. Each way from the entrance of the room is a handsome colonade leading to some pavilions, where are four antique busts of Vespasian, Cleopatra, Nero, and Faustina.

On the top of a mount is the Belvidere, a building which affords a delightful prospect. In the garden is also the temple of Friendship, a lofty square building of the Doric order, with three noble porticos on the sides. The ceiling is painted, and in the room are ten pedestals, on which are the busts of his lordship, and nine of his friends, his late royal highness the prince of Wales, the earl of Chesterfield, Mr. Pitt, &c. There are also in the garden, St. Augustine's cave, which is formed of roots of trees and moss: the temple of Bacchus; a Saxon temple, standing in a solemn grove, and containing the seven Saxon deities presiding over the several days of the week; and in the middle an altar for sacrifice; a Corinthian column, on which is placed the statue of his late majesty king George; Dido's cave, seated in a wood; a rotunda, the dome of which is supported by ten Doric columns, and in the centre is a circular pedestal, on which is placed a Venus de Medicis; the statue of her late majesty queen Caroline, erected on four Ionic columns placed on a large pedestal; the sleeping parlour, a square structure placed in a wood in the centre of six walks; the temple of ancient Virtue, which is a rotunda of the Doric order, and in four niches are the statues of Epaminondas, Lycurgus, Socrates, and Homer; the Elysian fields, a most delightful spot; a grotto adorned with shells, pebbles and minerals; a shell pavilion, the dome of which is supported by six wreathed columns; the Chinese house; the monuments of British worthies, these are Mr. Pope, Sir Thomas Gresham, Shakespear, Sir Isaac Newton, Sir Francis Bacon, king Alfred, Edward the Black Prince, queen Elizabeth, king William III. Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Francis Drake, John Hampden, Esq; Sir John Barnard, &c.

In short, the temples, pavilions, pyramids, obelisks, monuments, statues, busts, &c. are all highly finished, and the many inscriptions are designed for the information and instruction of the beholder; and this delightful spot seems to want nothing that can contribute to render it a terrestrial paradise.

Ailesbury, the largest and best town in the county, is seated on a hill, 44 miles from London; but the country round it is low and dirty. It consists of several large streets, and has a handsome market-house, which stands in a kind of square. It has also a town-house, where the assizes, the sessions, and other meetings of the county are held, and under it the jail. Many of the poor are employed in making bone-lace. Provisions are here plentiful and cheap, which is owing to its being encompassed by some of the richest land in England. This town is governed by a bailiff, ten aldermen, and twelve capital burgesses. It gives title of earl to the noble family of Bruce.

Eaton, or Eton, a town seated on the Thames, opposite to Windsor, is justly celebrated for its college, which

has produced a great number of learned men. This building, except the great school-room, are in the Gothic style, and together with the chapel were founded by Henry VI. for the support of a provost and seven fellows, one of whom has the title of vice-provost, and for the education of seventy king's scholars, as those are called, who are on the foundation. The revenue of the college is about five thousand pounds a year. These scholars, when properly qualified, are elected on the first Tuesday in August, to King's college Cambridge, but are not removed till there are vacancies in the college, and then they are called according to seniority; and after they have been three years at Cambridge, they claim a fellowship. Besides those on the foundation, there are seldom less than three hundred scholars, at this time there are many more, who board at the masters houses, or within the bounds of the college. The school is divided into upper and lower, and each of these into three classes. To each school there is a master, and four assistants. Here is a noble library. In the great court is a fine statue of the founder, erected at the expence of the late provost Dr. Godolphin, dean of St. Paul's.

In this county are also Newport Pagnel, Stoney Stratford, and a number of fine seats.

S E C T. XXII.

Of Middlesex; its Name, Situation, Extent, Divisions, Air, Soil, and Produce; a concise Description of the River Thames, of the City of London, the Palace of Hampton-Court, and Kensington, with the other remarkable Places in this County.

THIS county received its name from its situation: it being surrounded by the East, West, and South Saxons. It is bounded on the north by Hertfordshire, on the east by Essex, from which it is divided by the river Lea, on the south by the Thames, which runs between it and Surry, and on the west by Buckinghamshire, from which it is separated by the river Coln. It extends twenty miles in length, fourteen in breadth, and is about ninety-five in circumference.

This county, which lies in the diocese of London, is divided into five hundreds; and, besides the cities of London and Westminster, contains four market towns, thirty-one vicarages, seventy-three parishes, five thousand houses, and twenty-five thousand inhabitants: but with the addition of London, the number of all these is vastly encreased. It is indeed one of the least counties, but is by much the richest, most populous, and pays more taxes to the government than any ten besides; yet sends only eight members to parliament, two for the county, four for London, and two for Westminster.

The air must be extremely wholesome, since not even the great number of people in London can affect it so much as to render it more subject to epidemical diseases, than other places usually are; but, at a very small distance from the smoke of this immensely populous city, the air is not only healthful but exceeding pure; to this the soil, which generally consists of gravel, greatly contributes. The land which chiefly consists of pasture and kitchen-gardens, is extremely fertile, which indeed cannot be otherwise, considering the advantages of the dirt of London streets, which in many places improves the land, and there being never any want of dung for manure, from the many thousand horses kept in this city and its neighbourhood.

The Thames, though running through various counties, seems properly to belong to Middlesex; it being here of the greatest importance to the kingdom. It may be here proper to take notice, that the right reverend annotator on Camden observes, that though it is the current opinion that the Thames had its name from the conjunction of the Thame and Isis, yet it is always called Thames before it comes near the Thame. This he proves from several ancient records, and adds, that it may be safely affirmed, that it does not occur under the name of Isis in any charter and authentic history; and that the name is no where heard of, except among scholars; the common people all along from the spring-head

to Oxford, calling it by no other name but that of the Thames. See Gibson's Camden, Vol. I. page 99.

It was necessary to say thus much to rescue truth from the poetic fictions of the marriage of Thame and Isis, which has been farther strengthened by the painters and engravers.

The Thames, says the author of London and its Environs, if considered with respect to its course and navigation, is not to be equalled by any river in the known world. It rises from a small spring a little to the south-west of Cirencester, in Gloucestershire; and taking its course east-ward, becomes navigable at Lechlade for vessels of fifty tons, and there receives the river Colne, about one hundred and thirty-eight miles from London. From Lechlade it continues its course north-east to Oxford, where it receives the Charwel; after which it runs south-west to Abingdon, and from thence to Dorchester, where it receives the Thame, and continuing its course south-east, flows by the borders of Berkshire, Buckinghamshire, Surry, Middlesex, Essex, and Kent, and passing by a number of towns and fine villages, proceeds by Westminster and London, to Deptford, Greenwich, Woolwich, Gravesend, and so on to the sea. It is impossible to represent the beauties with which the banks of this noble river are embellished from Windsor to London; the numerous villages on its banks being all along adorned with the magnificent houses and fine gardens of the nobility. This river is navigable as far as Lechlade, in Oxfordshire, which is two hundred and thirty miles from its mouth, and the tide flows as high as Richmond in Surry, which, following the course of the river, is seventy miles from the sea. At London the depth is sufficient for the navigation of large ships, which renders it one of the greatest ports for trade in the universe. The water is justly esteemed exceeding wholesome and fit for use in very long voyages, during which it will work itself perfectly fine. It likewise abounds with a great variety of fish.

London, the metropolis of Great Britain, and one of the largest as well as the richest cities upon earth, is situated in the fifty-first degree thirty minutes north latitude, and from this city we have, through the course of this work, computed the longitude of all other countries in the three parts of the world of which we have treated; but it is proper here to observe, that placing the first meridian at the isle of Ferro, its longitude east from thence is seventeen degrees thirty-five minutes.

This city was neither built by brute nor king Lud, as some romantic and fanciful authors pretend; but probably existed in the time of the ancient Britons, before the art of writing was brought into England, and when there were no other monuments of ancient facts than what were found in the songs of the bards which were preserved only by memory. London, however, had no buildings either of brick or stone till it was inhabited by the Romans; for the dwellings of the Britons were only huts formed of twigs wattled together: however, Tacitus observes, that in the year 26 it was very famous for the multitude of its merchants, and the greatness of its traffic; but soon after Suetonius abandoned the city to the fury of Boadicea, it being too large to be defended by his little army of ten thousand Romans, which is doubtless a proof of its being even then of considerable extent, that injured princess burnt the city, and in the cruelty excited by revenge, put the inhabitants to the sword.

It is impossible in the small compass required in a work like this, in treating of a single city, to give the revolutions that have happened in this metropolis: it will be sufficient therefore in this place to describe its present state. The two last great calamities this city has suffered were the plague in 1665, which swept away sixty-five thousand five hundred and ninety-six persons, at a time when the buildings of the city and its inhabitants did not amount to half the number they do at present; and the fire in 1666, which burnt down thirteen thousand two hundred dwelling-houses, four hundred streets and lanes, the cathedral of St. Paul's, eighty-six parish churches, six chapels, the royal exchange, with many other public structures, and fifty-two of the companies halls. In memory of this last a monument is erected near the place where



Boadicea haranguing the Britons.

where it began, which is a magnificent column that rises to a prodigious height, and on the base is an allegorical representation in basso rilievo of the raising of the city from this dreadful conflagration.

London is seated on the banks of the Thames, and, including the buildings which generally go under that name, extends above seven miles in length, but its breadth is in some places only three, in others two, and in others again not much above half a mile. A person unaccustomed to the sight cannot behold without surprise the vast number of barges and boats, both of pleasure and burthen, above London bridge, continually passing and repassing, for the convenience and supply of this city and the towns on the banks of the Thames; for is it possible to observe without astonishment the vast fleets which constantly appear below bridge, carrying away the manufactures of Britain, and bringing back the produce of the whole earth.

The city of London was formerly surrounded with walls, and till lately had seven gates: these were Ludgate, Aldersgate, Aldgate, Cripplegate, Newgate, Moorgate, and Bishopsgate; the three first of which were taken down in 1760, and all the rest, except Newgate, before the end of the following year. But the bounds of what is strictly called the city, including the liberties, are still every where determined by wooden bars, or rails, except on the west, where is a magnificent gate called Temple-bar.

We shall first consider the buildings belonging to the city, strictly so called. A little without the gates to the south-east it was defended by the Tower of London, a very ancient structure, in which the White Tower is said to be founded by William the Conqueror; it is surrounded by a wall and deep ditch, which inclose several streets, besides what is properly called the Tower: there are here some artillery, a magazine of small-arms for sixty thousand men, ranged in the most beautiful order, and a horse-armoury, in which are fifteen figures of kings on horse-back. Here are likewise the crown and other regalia, the mint for coining of money, and the managerie for lions and other beasts, with several foreign birds. The circumference of the whole is about a mile. It contains one parish-church, and is under the command of a constable and lieutenant.

In Thames-street, near the Tower, is the custom-house, with the front facing the river. This is a large and stately structure, where the king's customs are received for all goods imported and exported; and opposite to it, as well as a great way down the river, is a delightful prospect of a grove of masts belonging to merchant ships. A little farther to the west is London bridge, which was formerly much admired for having houses on each side; but having been of infinite disadvantage by blocking up and narrowing the passage, they have been taken down; instead of houses a handsome stone balustrade is now fixed on each side, and the passage rendered as commodious, and at the same time as beautiful as possible, without entirely rebuilding it.

The royal exchange in Cornhill is generally allowed to be one of the best structures of the kind in the world. It was first built by Sir Thomas Gresham in 1566, and 1567; but being burnt in 1666, it was rebuilt in a grander manner, the principal part of Portland stone, and cost eight thousand pounds. In each of the principal fronts is a piazza, and in the center a grand entrance into an area, under a noble and lofty arch; on each side that of the principal front, which is in Cornhill, are Corinthian demi-columns, supporting a compass pediment; and in the intercolumnation, on each side, is a nich with the figures of king Charles I. and II. in Roman habits. On the sides of this entrance is a range of windows placed between demi-columns and pilasters of the Composite order, above which runs a balustrade. The height of the building is fifty-six feet, and from the center of this side rises a lantern and turret a hundred and seventy-eight feet high, on the top of which is a fane in the form of a grasshopper, of polished brass. The north front of the royal exchange is adorned with pilasters of the Composite order; but has neither columns nor statues; and instead of the two compass pediments has a triangular one. The inside of the area, which is

a hundred and forty-four feet long and a hundred and seventeen broad, is surrounded with piazzas like those of the south and north fronts, forming ambulatories for the merchants to shelter themselves from the weather. Above the arches of these piazzas is an entablature extending round, and a compass pediment in the middle of each of the four sides. Under that on the north are the king's arms, on the south those of the city, on the east those of Sir Thomas Gresham, and on the west those of the mercers company. In these intercolumnations are twenty-four niches, twenty of which are filled with the statues of the kings and queens of England. In short, in the center of the area is another statue of king Charles II. in a Roman habit, encompassed with iron rails. In this area merchants meet every day at twelve at noon, and continue there in order to transact business till two. These merchants are disposed in separate classes, each of which has their particular station, called their walk.

The bank of England began to be erected in 1732; this is a very noble structure, to which very large additions are now making; with a grand passage to it from Cornhill.

The mansion-house is a magnificent structure; but too heavy and too large for the use for which it was designed. It is built of Portland stone, and has a portico of six lofty fluted columns of the Corinthian order in the front, the same order being continued in pilasters, both under the pediment and on each side. The basement story is very massy, and built in rustic, and on each side rises a flight of steps of very considerable height, leading up to the portico, in the middle of which is the door which leads to the apartments and offices. The columns support a large angular pediment, adorned with a very noble piece in basso rilievo, representing the dignity and opulence of the city of London, executed by Taylor. In the center stands a very graceful woman crowned with turrets, representing the city, her left foot placed upon the figure of Envy, who lies on her back, and seems endeavouring to rise. Her left arm rests upon a large shield, which has the city arms, and in her right hand she holds a wand. This being the principal figure, it is done in alto rilievo: she seems ready to step forwards, her head and right arm project from the back ground, and her wand extends beyond the cornice of the pediment. Near her, on her right hand, stands a Cupid, holding the cap of Liberty on the end of a short staff, and a little farther a river god, representing the Thames, lying reclined, pouring a stream of water from a large vase; and near him an anchor fastened to its cable, with shells lying on the shore. On the left hand of London is Plenty kneeling and supplicating London to accept of the fruits she is pouring from her cornucopia; and behind her are two naked boys with bales of goods, as emblems of commerce. Beneath this portico are two series of windows, which extend along the whole front; and above this is an Attic story, with square windows crowned with a balustrade. This building has an area in the middle, and the apartments are extremely noble.

Guildhall is the town-hall of the city, and is an old Gothic structure, in which the courts of justice are kept: the great hall is a hundred and fifty-three feet long, fifty broad, and fifty-eight high, embellished with two monstrous wooden giants, the pictures of several of the kings and queens of England, and of eighteen judges who distinguished themselves in determining the differences between landlords and tenants on rebuilding the city after the fire.

Blackwell-hall is famous for being the greatest mart for woolling cloth in the world. Sion-college has a library appropriated to the use of the London clergy.

In Warwick-lane is the college of physicians, where two of the fellows meet twice a week to give medicines to the poor gratis. The structure is very fine; but is in a manner entirely concealed.

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school generally amount to near a thousand, exclusive of the girls, who are about seventy in number.

The college of heralds, to which belong three kings at arms, namely, Garter, Clarencieux, and Norroy, with six heralds, four pursuivants, and eight proctors, is a spacious building, with convenient apartments, a good library relating to heraldry, and here the coats of arms are kept of all the families of note in England.

St. Paul's cathedral, which is seated on the highest ground in the city, is deservedly esteemed the second in Europe, not for magnitude only, but for the magnificence and grandeur of the building. Its general form is that of a long cross: the walls are wrought in rustic, and strengthened as well as adorned by two rows of coupled pilasters, one over the other; the lower Corinthian, and the other Composite. The spaces between the arches of the windows, and the architrave of the lower order, are filled with a great variety of curious enrichments, as are those above. The west front has a most magnificent portico, a noble pediment, in which is represented the conversion of St. Paul in basso relievo, and two stately turrets. At this end is a grand flight of steps of black marble, that extend the whole length of the portico, which consists of twelve lofty Corinthian columns below, and eight of the Composite order above, supporting the above pediment. These are all coupled and fluted. The magnificent figure of St. Paul on the apex of the pediment, with St. Peter on his right, and St. James on his left, have a fine effect. The four evangelists, with their proper emblems on the front of the towers, are also well executed. The other sides of the church are beautifully ornamented, and each has a different front. The dome, which rises in the center of the whole, appears extremely grand: twenty feet above the roof of the church is a circular range of thirty-two columns terminated by their entablature, which supports a handsome stone gallery, adorned with a balustrade. Above these columns is a range of pilasters, with windows between; and from the entablature of these the diameter encreases considerably. On the summit of the dome is an elegant balcony, and from its center rises the lantern, adorned with Corinthian columns; and the whole is terminated by a ball, from which rises a cross, both elegantly gilt.

This vast and noble fabric, which is two thousand two hundred and ninety-two feet in circumference, and three hundred and forty in height to the top of the cross, is surrounded at a proper distance by a dwarf stone wall, on which is placed a balustrade of cast iron. In the area of the grand west front stands a statue of queen Anne, formed of white marble, with proper decorations. Four statues sitting at the base, representing Britannia with the spear; Gallia or France with a crown in her lap; Hibernia, with her harp; and America with her bow.

At the entrance into the choir the organ gallery is supported by eight Corinthian columns of blue and white marble; and the choir has on each side thirty stalls, besides the bishop's throne on the south-side, and lord mayor's on the north. The carving of this beautiful range of stalls, as well as that of the organ, is much admired. The reader's desk, which is at some distance from the pulpit, is an inclosure of very fine brass rails gilt, in which is a gilt brass pillar, supporting an eagle of brass gilt, which holds the book on his back, and extended wings. The altar-piece is adorned with four noble fluted pilasters painted, and veined with gold, in imitation of lapis lazuli, and their capitals are double gilt. In the intercolumniations are twenty-one pannels of figured crimson velvet, and above them six windows in two series. The floor of the choir, and indeed of the whole church, is paved with marble; but within the rails of the altar with porphyry. In the large cross aisle between the north and south porticoes, and at a small distance from the choir, rises the cupola, where you have a view of the whispering gallery, of the paintings above it, and the concave at the top, which fills the mind with surprise and pleasure. Under its center is fixed in the floor a brass plate, round which the pavement is beautifully variegated; but the figures into which it is formed can no where be so well seen as from the whispering-gallery, to which any person may ascend for a trifling expence, and there the voice of one person softly speaking

against the wall, on the other side, seems as if he stood at your ear on this, though the distance between is not less than one hundred and forty feet; and the shutting of the door resounds through the spacious vault like thunder, or as if the whole fabric was falling asunder.

The other churches most worthy of notice in the city, are St. Stephen's Walbrook; which is justly admired for the inside, which is covered with a spacious and noble dome, finely proportioned to the church, and divided with small compartments decorated with great elegance, and crowned with a lantern, while the roof, which is also divided into compartments, is supported by very noble Corinthian columns, raised on their pedestals. Bow church in Cheapside, and that of St. Bride, are rendered very famous by the extraordinary elegance and lightness of their steeples. The Temple church is one of the most beautiful Gothic structures in England: it was founded by the Knights Templars, whose house is converted into two inns of court, called the Inner and Middle Temple, and consist of handsome buildings adorned with gardens.

Among the numerous hospitals in this city, are St. Bartholomew's near Smithfield, a very magnificent structure, of Portland stone, consisting of four sides, which, when the old buildings and shops are taken away, will form the most superb, though not the largest square in this metropolis. This is designed for the relief of the sick and lame; as is also the London hospital at Mile End. Bedlam or Bethlehem hospital is a magnificent building for the reception of lunatics, and St. Luke's hospital is a plainer, but no less useful building for the same purpose. The Magdalen hospital, and the small-pox hospital, are also noble foundations.

The borough of Southwark is a considerable part of this metropolis, it is seated on the south side of the Thames, and consists of the parishes of St. Olave, St. John, St. Saviour, St. George, and St. Thomas; and for its extent, and number of inhabitants, is perhaps inferior to few cities in England. Though in the county of Surry, it is justly considered as a part of London, it being in some measure subject to the lord-mayor, who has under him a steward and bailiff, the former of whom holds a court of record every Monday at St. Margaret's hill, for all debts, damages, and trespasses within his limits; and the lord-mayor proclaims Southwark fair. But tho' this is considered as one of the city wards, and an alderman is appointed for the government of it, yet it has its own magistrates, distinct from those of the city.

The most remarkable structures in Southwark are the two noble hospitals for the sick and wounded, called St. Thomas's and Guy's. The former consists of three fine squares encompassed with buildings, and adorned with the statues of king Edward VI. and Sir Robert Clayton. Its annual disbursements amount to eight thousand pounds: there are four hundred and seventy-four beds, which are constantly kept filled; and they have always a considerable number of out-patients.

Guy's hospital is also a noble structure, in one of the squares of which is a fine brazen statue of Mr. Guy. This hospital is seated near the former, and contains four hundred and thirty-five beds.

The government of the city has a near resemblance to the political constitution of the nation: for as England is governed by the king, lords, and commons in parliament assembled, so is the city by the lord-mayor, aldermen, and common-council. The city is divided into twenty-six districts, called wards, each of which is governed by its respective alderman, who is elected by the house-keepers.

Out of this body the lord-mayor, or principal magistrate, is annually chosen on Michaelmas-day, and enters upon his office on the ninth of November. He is also conservator of the river Thames, from the bridge at Stanes to the river Medway. When the lord-mayor appears abroad as a magistrate, it is in a coach of state; he then wears a purple or a scarlet robe, has a gold chain, with a rich jewel to it, round his neck, and is attended by several officers walking before and on each side of him.

The next in power and dignity are the twenty-six aldermen, each of whom has under him a certain number of common-councilmen, one of whom is his deputy: these, as well as the aldermen, are chosen by the inhabitants of each ward. The mayor and aldermen chuse the recorder, who is their speaker, and counsellor with respect to the laws and customs of the city.

The two sheriffs are considerable magistrates, who have the power to impanel juries, and in their courts causes are tried on actions of debt, trespass, breach of covenants, &c. the execution of the laws is intrusted to them. They are annually chosen on Midsummer-day by the liverymen.

The chamberlain of London is an officer of great trust, he having the charge of the city cash, and is usually general receiver of the land-tax for the city of London and county of Middlesex. He has also full authority over the apprentices of the city; for in his court he decides causes between them and their masters, and admits them to the freedom of the city.

The common-council are members chosen out of every ward, to the number of two hundred and thirty-six, by the house-keepers, from among themselves. These are the representatives of the people.

The liverymen of the city are such as have not only taken up the freedom of the city, but also the livery or gown of their respective companies. These companies amount to ninety-two in number, and the lord-mayor belongs usually to one of the principal of them; these are the mercers, grocers, drapers, fishmongers, goldsmiths, skinners, merchant-tailors, haberdashers, salters, ironmongers, vintners, and cloth-workers. Most of the ninety-two companies have halls, several of which are magnificent structures; together with a master, a clerk, several wardens, assistants, and liverymen, who transact the business of the company, and provide for a number of their own poor. In these companies are seventy-nine masters, two hundred and twenty wardens, two thousand three hundred and eighteen assistants, eight thousand two hundred and seventeen liverymen, who alone have the privilege of electing the representatives of the city, with fifty-two halls; and it is computed that above twenty-six thousand pounds is disposed of annually by these companies to charitable uses; and many of them have very noble alms-houses in the neighbourhood of the city, where the old and decayed members of their respective companies are lodged, maintained, and clothed.

Besides these there are several companies of merchants trading to different parts of the world, who have their respective halls: and a considerable number of companies for insuring ships at sea, and houses from fire; these always keep fire-engines and a set of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their assistance in case of fire; and are on all occasions extremely bold, dexterous, and diligent; but though all their labours should prove unsuccessful, the person who suffers by this devouring element has the comfort arising from the certainty of being paid the value of what he has insured.

We now come to Westminster, which is generally included under the name of London, and is only distinguished from it by its not being under the government of the same magistrates. It received its name from its abbey, or minster, being seated to the west of St. Paul's, and was once a mile distant from London; but its suburbs extending to that city, have perfectly united them.

As Westminster has the honour of containing the palace of the king of Great Britain, our law-tribunals, and both houses in which the parliament assemble, it is inhabited by the nobility and gentry, and thence that city and its liberties has a greater number of noble squares and elegant private buildings. The city of Westminster at present consists but of two parishes, St. Margaret's and St. John's the Evangelist; but the liberties contain ten parishes, namely, St. Martin's in the Fields, St. James's, St. Anne's, St. George's Bloomsbury, St. George's Hanover-square, St. George's Queen-square, St. Paul's Covent-garden, St. Mary le Strand, and St. Clement's Danes; to which may be added the precinct of the Savoy. However, each of the above parishes is of such prodigious extent, considering the number of the houses they con-

tain, that it would be impossible for one-tenth part of the inhabitants to attend divine worship at one and the same time, there are therefore many chapels of ease for the convenience of those who could not be so well accommodated in their parish-churches.

The abbey-church of St. Peter's Westminster is a venerable pile of building in the Gothic taste, where most of our monarchs have been crowned, and many of them interred. The present fabric was in part erected by Henry III. and finished after his death. The extent of the building is very considerable; for its length is three hundred and sixty feet within the walls, at the nave it is seventy-two broad, and at the cross a hundred and ninety-five. The Gothic arches and side aisles are supported by forty-eight pillars of grey marble, each composed of clusters of very slender ones, and covered with ornaments. This structure is adorned with a prodigious number of monuments of kings, heroes, generals, and persons distinguished by their learning and genius: many of which are extremely beautiful, being adorned with admirable statues of white marble, basso-relievos, the most beautiful kind of granite, porphyry, and other rich kinds of marble, finely polished, and accompanied with elegant inscriptions.

Henry the seventh's chapel joins to the abbey, and is styled by Leland, *The Wonder of the World*; it is, indeed, one of the most expensive remains of the ancient English taste and magnificence, and was founded by Henry VII. in 1502. The ceiling is wrought with such an astonishing variety of figures as is impossible to be describe. The stalls on each side are of oak, with Gothic canopies most beautifully carved; as are also the seats; and the pavement is of black and white marble. In the middle of the east end of the nave is the magnificent tomb of Henry VII. enclosed with a screen of cast brass, most admirably executed and ornamented with statues. In this chapel are the tombs of George Villiers, duke of Buckingham, and several other persons of high rank.

Westminster-hall is near the abbey, and is one of the largest rooms in Europe, whose roof is not supported with pillars. Here the courts of law are kept; and adjoining to it are the houses of the Lords and Commons.

Westminster bridge is universally allowed to be one of the finest in the world. The first stone was laid on the twenty-ninth of January, 1739, and the last in 1747. It is adorned and secured on each side with a lofty and noble balustrade, and is twelve hundred and twenty-three feet in length. The piers, which are fourteen, have thirteen large and two small arches, all semicircular. The center arch is seventy-six feet wide, and the others decrease in width four feet on each side.

The admiralty, the treasury, and the horse-guards are expensive buildings; the banqueting-house at White-hall is thus called from there being originally in this place an edifice in which our kings had public entertainments. This structure was erected by the celebrated Inigo Jones, as a small part of a superb palace, of which that great architect had drawn the plan. The outside of this structure has been always esteemed a most admirable work; and the ceiling is painted by Rubens. This great apartment has been many years converted into a chapel.

The architecture of several churches of Westminster and its liberties have been greatly admired, particularly that of St. Martin's in the Fields, and St. Paul's Covent-garden.

The British Museum, which may properly be said to be founded by Sir Hans Sloane, bart. may be justly esteemed an honour and an ornament to this nation, it consisting of an amazing number of natural curiosities, to which were added by his late majesty the royal libraries of books and manuscripts collected by the kings of England.

Amidst the splendid buildings of this city we are sorry we cannot mention the palace of our sovereign, which is a mean structure, unworthy of being the residence of so great a monarch. The meuse, which contains the king's stables, is, however, a more magnificent edifice; but the square in which it stands would admit of great improvements. The new buildings in the liberty of Westminster are daily increasing in the most astonishing manner. The principal squares are those of Hanover,

Grosvenor, Berkley, Cavendish, St. James's, Soho, Leicester, Golden, Red Lyon, Bloomsbury-square, and Lincolns-inn Fields; with many others of less note.

There are in Westminster, as well as in the city of London, a great number of charitable foundations, among which we may reckon the noble infirmaries at Hyde-park-corner, Middlesex hospital, and that called Westminster infirmary, the hospital for exposed and deserted young children, the asylum, several hospitals for lying-in women, and many others.

The civil and ecclesiastical government of this city were vested in the dean and chapter of Westminster; but since the Reformation the civil part has been committed to laymen. The high-steward, who is usually a nobleman of the first rank, is chosen by the dean and chapter, and has an under-steward who officiates for him, and must therefore be versed in the law; but his choice must be confirmed by the dean and chapter. The under-steward, with other magistrates, keeps the court leet, which tries all petty offences, and is commonly a chairman of the quarter-sessions.

Next to the under-steward is the high-bailiff, who is also chosen by the dean and chapter. His power resembles that of a sheriff, for by him juries are summoned; all the bailiffs of Westminster are subordinate to him, and he makes the return at the election of members of parliament. As all fines and forfeitures are his, his place is very profitable.

There is also a high-constable chosen by the court-leet, to whom all the other constables are subject. Here are likewise fourteen burgesses, or magistrates, seven for the city and seven for the liberties, each having an assistant. Their office is much like that of an alderman of London, each having a proper ward, out of these are elected two head-burgesses, one for the city, and one for the liberties.

Besides the cities of London, Southwark, and Westminster, there are included a great number of streets which cannot properly be termed in the liberty of either, and yet are comprehended under the general name of London, they being united to it. Hence the number of streets, lanes, and alleys exceed seven thousand, the houses amount to about a hundred and fifty thousand, and that of the inhabitants cannot be less than a million. Besides St. Paul's cathedral and Westminster abbey, there are a hundred and two parish-churches, and sixty-nine chapels of the established religion; twenty-one French Protestant chapels, eight chapels belonging to the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c. above a hundred meeting-houses of the Protestant Dissenters; several popish chapels for the use of foreign ambassadors, and three Jewish synagogues. There are also in and near this city one hundred alms-houses, about twenty hospitals and infirmaries, twenty-two prisons, forty-two markets, twenty-seven public squares, besides those within any single building, as for instance in the Temple; eight free-schools for grammar learning, and a hundred and thirty-one charity-schools, which constantly provide education for above five thousand children.

In short, this great metropolis enjoys several advantages which no other great city has in equal perfection; the plenty of water fit for drinking and all other uses, is none of the least. That of the Thames, that of the New River, conducted to Islington by the immortal Sir Hugh Middleton, and that of several other water-works, not only supply this city with that necessary of life, essential also to cleanliness, and consequently to health, but running in streams through pipes under the pavement of every street, is of the greatest use in extinguishing fires: while the common-sewers contribute to keep the streets clean and wholesome, and prevent our ever being greatly incommoded by that element. Add to this, that this great metropolis is much better lighted by night than Paris, or any other great city, and that, by the improvement making in the pavement, it will in this respect also be inferior to no other city.

For the entertainment of people of all ranks there are assemblies for dancing, musical assemblies, two theatres, in which plays are acted, an opera-house, a house of theatrical amusements called Sadler's-Wells, at Islington, several places where there are commodious rooms and plea-

fant gardens near London, where the people meet to drink tea; besides Marybone-gardens, and Vaux-hall-gardens already described in treating of the county of Surry, and those of Ranelagh. The two last are not to be equalled in Europe.

Ranelagh-gardens, are so called from their formerly belonging to the earl of Ranelagh. Though the garden is beautiful, this place is most admired for its amphitheatre in the midst of it. This is a circular building, one hundred and eighty-five feet in its external diameter. Round the whole is an arcade, and over that a gallery with a balustrade, to admit the company into the upper boxes, except where the entrances break the continuity; over this are the windows, and it is terminated by the roof. The internal diameter is one hundred and fifty feet, and the architecture of the inside corresponds with that without, except that over every column between the windows, termini support the roof. In the middle of the area, where the orchestra was at first designed, is a chimney that has four faces; this renders it warm and comfortable in cold weather. The orchestra fills up one of the entrances. The entertainment consists of a fine band of music, with an organ, accompanied by the best voices. The regale is tea and coffee.

Chelsea, in which are the above gardens, is a large and populous village, pleasantly situated on the bank of the Thames, two miles from London. Here is a physic-garden belonging to the company of apothecaries of London, several private buildings worthy of the curiosity of the public; Salter's coffee-house, well known for the great number of curiosities to be seen there; and Chelsea-hospital, a noble edifice, erected for the invalids in the land-service.

Chelsea-hospital, which Charles II. began to erect, was carried on by James II. and completed by William III. was entirely built under the direction of Sir Christopher Wren, and consists of a vast range of buildings. The front towards the north opens into a piece of ground laid out in walks for the pensioners; and that facing the south, into a garden which extends to the Thames, and is kept in good order. This side not only affords a view of that fine river, but of the county of Surry beyond it. In the centre of this edifice is a pediment supported by four columns, over which is a handsome turret, and in this part is an opening which leads through the building. On one side of this entrance is the chapel, the altar-piece of which is adorned with the resurrection, painted by Ricci; and on the other the hall, where is the picture of Charles II. on horseback, and several other pieces as big as the life, and in this room all the pensioners dine. The wings join the chapel and hall to the north, and are open towards the Thames on the south: these are three hundred and sixty feet in length, and about eighty in breadth; they are three stories high, and the rooms are so well disposed, that nothing can be more pleasant. On the front of this square is a colonade, extending along the side of the hall and chapel; and in the midst of the quadrangle is the statue of king Charles II. in a Roman dress, standing on a marble pedestal. There are several other buildings adjoining, that form two other large squares, and consist of apartments for the officers and servants of the house; for old maimed officers of horse and foot, and the infirmary for the sick.

An air of elegance and neatness is observed in these buildings. They are composed of brick and stone, and there appears such a disposition of the parts as is best suited to the purposes of the charity, the reception of a great number, and the providing them with every thing that can contribute to the convenience and pleasure of the pensioners. The expence of erecting them amounted to about one hundred and fifty thousand pounds, and the extent of the ground is above forty acres.

In the wings are sixteen wards, in which are accommodations for above four hundred men; and in the other buildings are a considerable number of apartments for officers and servants. These pensioners consist of superannuated veterans, who have been at least twenty years in the army, or those soldiers who are disabled in the service of the crown. They wear red coats lined with blue, and are provided with all other clothes, diet, washing, and lodging. The governor has five hundred pounds a year;

a year; the lieutenant-governor two hundred and fifty pounds, and the major one hundred and fifty pounds. Thirty-six officers are allowed six pence a day; thirty-four light horsemen, and thirty serjeants, have two shillings a week each; forty-eight corporals and drums have ten pence *per* piece; and three hundred and thirty-six are each allowed eight pence a week pocket-money. As the house is called a garrison, all the members are obliged to do duty in turn; and they have prayers twice a day in the chapel, performed by two chaplains, who have each a salary of one hundred pounds a year. The physician, secretary, comptroller, deputy-treasurer, steward, and surgeon, have also each a hundred pounds a year, and many other officers have considerable salaries. There are likewise between eight hundred and a thousand out-pensioners, each of whom has eight pounds twelve shillings and six pence a year.

These great expences are supported by a poundage deducted out of the pay of the army, with one day's pay once a year from each officer and common soldier; and when there is any deficiency, it is supplied by a sum raised by parliament.

This hospital is governed by the following commissioners; the president of the council, the first commissioner of the treasury, the principal secretary of state, the pay-master-general of the forces, the secretary at war, the comptrollers of the army, and by the governor and lieutenant-governor of the hospital.

Kensington is a large and populous village, about two miles from Hyde-Park-Corner. The palace, which was the seat of the lord-chancellor Finch, afterwards earl of Nottingham, was purchased by king William III. who greatly enlarged it; queen Mary enlarged the gardens; they were farther improved by queen Anne, and queen Caroline completed the design by extending them much farther. These gardens, which are three miles and a half in compass, are extremely pleasant, and kept in great order, and in summer are resorted to by a great number of people. The palace indeed, has none of that grandeur which ought to appear in the residence of a British monarch, it being very irregular in point of architecture; however, the royal apartments are grand, and adorned with pictures by the greatest masters.

Hampton-Court is delightfully situated near the north bank of the Thames, twelve miles to the south-west of London, at a small distance from the village of Hampton. This palace was originally built by cardinal Wolsey: but king William and queen Mary were so greatly pleased with the situation, which rendered it capable of great improvements, and of being made one of the finest palaces in Europe, that while the former caused the old apartments to be pulled down and rebuilt in the magnificent manner in which they now appear, her majesty, impatient to enjoy so agreeable a retreat, fixed upon a building near the river called the water-gallery, and suiting it to her convenience, adorned it with the utmost elegance, though its situation would not allow it to stand after the principal building was completed. Since the pulling down of the water-gallery which stood before the fine stone front that faces the river, the ground to the south-west received considerable improvements. The park and gardens, with the ground on which the palace now stands, are about three miles in circumference. On a pediment at the front of the palace on this side is a bas-relief of the trials of Hercules over Envy, and facing it a large oval basin, answering to the form of this part of the garden, which is a large oval divided into gravel-walks and parterres. At the entrance of the grand walk are two large marble vases of exquisite workmanship, one said to be performed by Mr. Cibber, the father of the poet-laureat; and the other by a foreigner: these pieces are reported to be done as a trial of skill; but it is difficult to determine which is the finest performance. They are beautifully adorned with bas-relieues, that on the right hand representing the triumphs of Bacchus, and the other on the left Amphitrite and the Nereids. At the bottom of this walk, facing a canal which runs into the park, are two other large vases, the bas-relief on one representing the judgment of Paris, and that of the other, Meleager hunting the wild boar. In four of the parterres are four fine brass statues, all after fine originals.

The whole palace consists of three quadrangles; the first and second are Gothic; but in the latter is a most beautiful colonade of the Ionic order, the columns in couplets, built by Sir Christopher Wren. Through this you pass into the third court or quadrangle, in which are the royal apartments, which are magnificently built of brick and stone by king William III. and on the farther side of them are the gardens, with the superb front of stone facing them.

On the opposite side of the quadrangle, that is adorned with a colonade, is the great stair-case, which has iron balusters curiously wrought and gilt, and both the ceiling and sides were painted by Verrio. From the stair-case you pass into the grand chamber, which is upwards of sixty feet long, and forty wide. This room contains arms for five thousand men, placed in various forms.

The next is the king's first presence-chamber, which is hung with rich old tapestry. The ceiling is vaulted, and from the centre hangs a fine lustre of nineteen branches. Fronting the door are the canopy and chair of state, which, as well as the stools, are of crimson damask. On the left hand of the entrance is a fine picture, about eighteen feet by fifteen, by Sir Godfrey Kneller; in which king William III. is represented in armour on a stately grey horse, trampling on trophies of war, and a flaming torch: Plenty, with her cornucopia, offers him an olive branch, and Flora presents flowers. At the top in the clouds, Mercury and Peace support his helmet, decorated with laurel, and a cupid holds a scroll. On the bottom part of the picture appear Neptune and his attendants by the side of a rock, welcoming the hero on shore; and at a distance is seen a fleet of ships, their sails swelled with the wind.

The second presence-chamber is spacious, and has a vaulted ceiling, from the centre of which hangs a gilt chandelier of twelve branches. The tapestry is ancient, but very rich, the lights being all gold, and the shadows silk. The chair of state and stools are of crimson damask, fringed with the same colour. The room is also adorned with several paintings.

The fourth room is very lofty, in the middle hangs a beautiful chased silver chandelier of sixteen branches. Here is a fine canopy of state, with the windows, curtains, chair, and stools, of rich crimson damask, laced and fringed with gold. The tapestry, which represents part of the story of Abraham, is fine.

In the fifth room is also a chair of state and stools; the window-curtains are tissue, with a silver ground, and there are silver sconces fastened to the tapestry. Over the chimney-piece is an admirable whole length picture of king Charles I. and over the doors are two capital pictures; the first is David with Goliath's head, by Fetti; the other the holy family, by Correggio.

In the king's state-chamber is a bed of crimson velvet laced with gold, with plumes of white feathers on the top. This room, which is very spacious, is hung with tapestry, and adorned with eight chased silver sconces. The ceiling, which was painted by Verrio, represents Endymion lying with his head in the lap of Morpheus, and Diana admiring him as he sleeps. On another part of the ceiling is a fine figure of Somnus with his attendants. In the border are four landscapes, and four boys with baskets of flowers, intermixed with poppies.

The king's dressing-room has also the ceiling painted. Mars is sleeping in Venus's lap, while several cupids steal away his armour, sword, and spear, and others are binding his legs and arms with fetters of roses. The room is hung with straw-coloured India damask, and the chairs, stools, and screen, are covered with the same.

The king's writing-closet is of a triangular form. The hangings and stools are of a pea-green India damask. A glass is so placed as to shew all the rooms on that side of the building in one view. Over each door is a flower-piece by Baptift, and over the chimney a fine picture of a great variety of birds, by Bougdane.

Queen Mary's closet is hung with needle-work, said to be wrought with her own hand; there are also an easy chair, four others, and a screen, all said to be the work of that excellent queen. The work is extremely neat, and shows great judgment in drawing.

The queen's gallery, which is about seventy feet long, and twenty-five feet wide, is hung with seven beautiful pieces

pieces of tapestry, representing the history of Alexander the Great, done after the paintings of Le Brun.

The cieling of the queen's state bed-chamber is finely painted: Aurora is represented rising out of the ocean in her golden chariot, drawn by four white horses. The bed is of crimson damask, and, besides other furniture, the room is adorned with a number of fine portraits, and a glass lustre with silver sockets.

The queen's drawing room has the cieling painted by Verrio: in the middle queen Anne is represented in the character of Justice, holding the sword and scales, with Neptune and Britannia supporting a crown over her head. The room is hung with green damask, upon which are placed nine pictures by Andrea Montegna, three on each side of the room, and three at the end. These were originally all in one piece of great length, as may be plainly seen from some of the figures being cut asunder, and placed in different pieces. The whole is a triumph of Julius Cæsar, and was a long procession of soldiers, priests, officers of state, &c. at the end of which that emperor appears in his triumphal chariot, with Victory holding a laurel crown over his head.

The queen's state audience-room has a fine canopy of state, and is hung with rich tapestry, representing the children of Israel carrying the twelve stones to the river Jordan; and has five pictures at full length of the duke, duchess, and marchioness of Brunswic; the duchess of Lenox, and Margaret queen of Scots all by Holbein.

The prince of Wales's presence-chamber is hung with tapestry, and has a canopy of state of green damask; and both this, and the prince's drawing-room, are adorned with a number of portraits by Holbein.

In the private dining-room are four pictures of the defeat of the Spanish armada, by Vandevelde, and over the chimney a very fine one, by Vandyke, of the lord Effingham Howard, lord high-admiral of England.

In the admirals gallery are the pictures of a considerable number of celebrated admirals; and in the room of beauties are the portraits of a number of beautiful ladies of the English court; among which is that of queen Mary.

The cartoons of Raphael Urbino, so called from their being painted on paper, were for a long time the most considerable ornament of this palace; but have of late been removed to the queen's palace in St. James's park.

A great number of the villages in this county are adorned with many seats of the nobility and gentry, and are more worthy of notice than even the market-towns: it will be sufficient to mention one or two of those seats.

Chiswick, is seated on the Thames, on the south-west side of Hammer-smith. In this village is a charity school; and it is adorned with several elegant seats, as the earl of Grantham's, now colonel Elliot's, the earl of Shrewsbury's, the late lord Wilmington's, &c. but the most remarkable is that of the late earl of Burlington's, which was a plain commodious building, but a part of it being destroyed by fire, his lordship erected near it a beautiful villa, which for elegance of taste, equals every thing of its kind in England. The court in the front is kept very neat, and has on each side yew-hedges in pannels, with termini placed at proper distances, and in the front of the hedges are two rows of cedars, the dark shade of which afford a pleasing contrast to the whiteness of the elegant building behind them. The ascent to the house is by a noble flight of steps, on one side of which is the statue of Paladio, and on the other, that of Inigo Jones. The portico is supported by six fine fluted columns of the Corinthian order, with a very elegant pediment, and the cornice, frieze, and architrave, are as rich as possible. Though the other front towards the garden is plainer, yet it is in a bold and masterly style, and has at the same time a pleasing simplicity, as hath also the side-front towards the serpentine-river, which is different from the two others. The octagonal saloon in the middle of the building, which is covered at the top with a dome, through which it is enlightened, is also very elegant. The inside of this structure is nobly adorned, the cielings are gilt and painted, and the rooms ornamented with some of the best pictures in Europe.

The gardens are very beautiful, and laid out in the finest taste: on descending from the back part of the house you enter a verdant lawn planted with clumps of evergreens, between which are two rows of large stone vases. At the end next the house are two wolves in stone, by Scheemaker: at the farther end are two large lions, and the view is terminated by three antique statues, dug up in Adrian's garden at Rome, with stone seats between them, and behind a close plantation of evergreens. On turning to the house on the right hand an open grove of forest-trees affords a view of the orangery; and on turning to the left is an easy slope covered with short grass, which leads down to a serpentine river, on the side of which are clumps of evergreens; and at the farther end is an opening into an enclosure, where are a Roman temple and an obelisk, with grass slopes, and in the middle a circular piece of water. From hence you are led to the wilderness, through which are three straight avenues, terminated by three different edifices; and in the sides are serpentine walks, through which you may ramble near a mile in the shade. On each side the serpentine river are also verdant walks, which accompany the river in all its turnings. On the right hand of the river is a building that is the exact model of the portico of Covent-garden church; on the left a wilderness laid out in regular walks, and in the middle over the river a Paladian wooden bridge. With the earth dug from the bed of this river is raised a terrace that affords a prospect of the adjacent country, which when the tide is up is agreeably enlivened by a view of the boats and barges passing along the Thames.

Gunerbury-house, near Ealing, the seat of the late Henry Furnese, Esq; is a noble and elegant structure built by Inigo Jones, or, as some say, by Mr. Webb, his son-in-law. It is seated on a rising ground, and the approach to it from the garden is remarkable fine. The loggia has a beautiful appearance at a distance, and commands a fine prospect of the county of Surry, the river Thames, and of all the meadows on its banks for some miles; and in clear weather of even the city of London. The apartments are well contrived, and the hall, which is spacious, is on one side supported by rows of columns, and from thence you ascend by a noble flight of stairs to a saloon, twenty-five feet high, and most elegantly furnished. This fine room has an entrance into the portico on the back front, which is adorned with beautiful columns. On entering the garden from the house you ascend a noble terrace, which affords a delightful view of the neighbouring country, and from this terrace, which extends the whole breadth of the garden, you descend by a noble flight of steps, with a grand balustrade on each side, into the garden.

S E C T. XXIII.

Of the County of Essex; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives, Air, Soil, and principal Places.

ESSEX, which took its name from its being the country of the East Saxons, is bounded on the north by the river Stour, which separates it from Suffolk and Cambridgeshire; on the east by the German sea; on the west by Hertfordshire and Middlesex; and on the south by the river Thames. It extends forty-four miles in length from east to west, and about forty-two in breadth from north to south. This county, which is in the diocese of London, is divided into eighteen hundreds, and contains twenty-seven market-towns, four hundred and fifteen parishes, a hundred and twenty-five vicarages, and eleven hundred villages, with about thirty-four thousand eight hundred houses, and two hundred and eight thousand eight hundred inhabitants. It sends eight members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for Colchester, Harwich, and Malden.

The air in the inland parts is healthy; but in the marshes near the sea it produces agues, particularly in the part called the Hundreds. However, the fertility of the unwholesome part is very great, and even the higher grounds of this county are very fruitful. About Saffron

Walden

Walden, the earth, after bearing saffron three years, it is said, will produce good barley for eighteen years successively, without any manure. Its produce, which is very plentiful, consists of corn, most excellent saffron, cattle, fowl, fish, and particularly oysters. The chief manufactures of this county are cloth, stuffs, and particularly baize.

The principal rivers, besides the Thames, are the Stour, which falls into the German sea at Harwich; the Lea, its western boundary, falls into the Thames below Stratford; the Blackwater runs through the heart of the county, and passing by Chelmsford is joined by the Chelmer, and from thence runs into the German sea; the Colne runs by Halsted to Colchester, and so into the sea. All these rivers abound in most sorts of fish.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Chelmsford is thus called from the ford over the river Chelmer, and is seated on the road to Colchester, between that river and the Blackwater, over which there are bridges, twenty-eight miles east-north-east of London. It is a handsome well frequented town, and is governed by a chief constable; but has only one church, which is an ancient Gothic structure, and three meeting-houses. There is here an excellent conduit, which has such a supply of water, that it is said to run above a hog-head and an half in a minute. Here the members for the county are chosen, and the assizes commonly held, as well as the four quarterly sessions. As it is seated nearly in the center of the county, and in the great road to London, it is much frequented by travellers and the neighbouring gentry, for transacting all business relating to the county.

Colchester is a place of great antiquity, twenty-two miles to the east-north-east of Chelmsford, and fifty from London. It is pleasantly and commodiously seated on the south side of the river Coln, which runs through the town, and incloses it on the east and north-east sides: over it are three bridges. It is navigable within three miles of the town for large ships; a little lower it may receive the royal navy; and up to that part called the Hythe it is navigable for hoys and small barks quite close to the houses, here being a long quay. The trade principally consists in making baize and serges, the whole country being employed in spinning wool for this and the adjacent towns. Colchester, including the villages within its liberty, which is of large extent, has been supposed to contain forty thousand people. In the civil wars, during the reign of Charles I. it sustained a severe siege, which was turned into a blockade, in which the garrison and inhabitants suffered the utmost extremity of hunger, and were at last obliged to surrender at discretion, when their two principal officers, Sir Charles Lucas and Sir George Lisle, were barbarously shot in cold blood under the castle wall, to the indelible infamy of Fairfax, the general of the parliament's forces. It was surrounded with a wall, which had six gates and three posterns, besides nine watch-towers; but these are in a great measure demolished. It had sixteen parish-churches; but now only twelve are used, which are not very large, and most of them were damaged in Cromwell's time. There are here also five meeting-houses. The town consists of about three thousand dwelling-houses, most of them ancient buildings; but there are among them many good houses. The streets are not very broad, but are pretty well paved: and the town, which is famous for oysters and eringo-root, imports baize, wine, brandy, coals, deals, &c. Towards the east are the ruins of an old castle, with a fence round it, about two miles in circumference.

Harwich, a sea-port town, situated in the fifty-second degree three minutes latitude, and in the first degree eighteen minutes east longitude, seventy-three miles to the east-north-east of London, is surrounded on three parts by the sea and the river Stour. It is not very large, but is well inhabited, and contains between eight and nine hundred houses, which are generally good and lofty buildings, and the streets are both pretty wide and well paved. The number of the inhabitants amount to about four thousand. The harbour is one of the finest in England, for in it four hundred ships may ride in safety;

and opposite to the town is Landguard fort, and a good battery of cannon. Here the packet-boats are stationed that pass to and from Holland; and here also is a good dock-yard, in which many ships of war are built. The town is governed by a mayor, eight aldermen, a recorder, and twenty-four capital burgeses; but it has only a chapel of ease, and several meeting-houses, the mother church being at Dover-court, at two miles distance. The market is kept on Tuesdays and Fridays.

Dunmow, a market-town thirty-eight miles from London, in which the manufacture of baize flourishes, is particularly remarkable since Henry III's time for the custom of giving a fitch of bacon to any married couple who will swear, kneeling on two peaked stones in the church-yard, that for a year and a day after their marriage they never repented of their choice, nor quarrelled in all that time; and this appears upon record to have been several times actually claimed and delivered.

S E C T. XXIV.

Of the County of Suffolk; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives, Air, Soil, Produce, and principal Towns.

SUFFOLK was thus called by the Saxons, to denote the Southern people, in opposition to those of Norfolk, or Northfolk; and is bounded on the north by the rivers Waveney and the Lesser Ouse, which part it from Norfolk; on the east by the German ocean; on the south by the river Stour, which divides it from Essex, last described; and on the west by Cambridgeshire. It extends fifty miles in length, twenty-five in breadth, and is divided into seventeen hundreds, in which are twenty-eight market-towns, ninety-five vicarages, five hundred and seventy-five parishes, fifteen thousand villages, thirty-four thousand four hundred and twenty houses, and two hundred and six thousand inhabitants. It sends sixteen members to parliament, namely, two knights for the shire, and two burgeses for each of the following boroughs: Ipswich, Dunwich, Orford, Aldborough, Sudbury, Eye, and St. Edmondsbury, and lies in the diocese of Norwich.

The air is very clear and healthy, even near the sea-coast; the beach being generally sandy and shelly, which either absorbs or shoots off the sea-water, and keeps it from stagnating or forming a noisome and stinking mud, whence physicians esteem the air as good as any in England.

The soil is of various qualities; that near the shore is sandy and full of heaths, yet abounds in rye, peas, and hemp, with numerous flocks of sheep. High Suffolk, or the Wood-lands, which is the inland part of the county, though abounding in wood, has a rich deep clay and marle that yields good pasture-grounds, on which feed abundance of cattle. That part which lies on the confines of Essex and Cambridge also affords excellent pasture; and about Bury St. Edmund's, and so on to the north and north-west, it is fruitful in corn, except towards Newmarket. The seeding of cattle and sheep on turnips is said to have been an improvement first set on foot in this county. Its principal produce is butter and cheese, the latter of which is frequently in this county very much the worse on account of the goodness of the former, and is sometimes of so hard and horny a nature, as to require the force of the hatchet to cut it.

This county is generally divided into two parts, namely, the Franchise or Liberty of St. Edmund, which contains the west part of the county; and the Geldable, which is the eastern, each of these furnishes a distinct grand-jury at the assizes.

The principal rivers are the Waveney, the Deben, the Orwell, by some called the Gipping, and the Stour. The Waveney rises in the northern edge of the county, and running to the north-eastward, after it has passed Beccles, forms two branches, one of which runs to the east almost to Leostoff, where it stops short, without reaching the sea; the other makes an angle to the northward, and falls into the Yare a little above Yarmouth. The Deben rises a little to the westward of Debenham, and running eastward to Wickham, winds round that town, and runs south-

south-south-east to the German ocean. The Orwell rises near Wulpit, and runs eastward to the same sea. The Stour rises in the edge of Cambridgeshire, and running mostly eastward, falls into the German ocean with the Orwell at Harwich.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Ipswich, a place of great antiquity, is seated on the river Orwell, twenty miles to the north-east of Colchester, and seventy-two to the north-east of London, and was once surrounded with a wall, the traces of which are still to be seen. The town forms a half moon upon the bank of the river, and it is remarkable that though ships of five hundred tons may upon a spring-tide come up near the town, yet the river is scarce navigable above the town even for the smallest boats; nor does the tide, which sometimes rises thirteen or fourteen feet, and gives them near the town twenty-four feet water, flow much farther up the river. This may be accounted a very neat and well-built town. It has a very spacious market-place, in the midst of which is a handsome cross. At a small distance is the shambles, with the herb-market; and in a spacious street, at a small distance, is a market for butter, poultry, &c. and another for fish, with which the town is well supplied. The town consists of about four thousand houses, which are generally good buildings and very lofty, formed into streets that are tolerably wide and well paved. It is divided into four wards, and contains twelve parish-churches, with a Presbyterian, an Independent, and a Quaker's-meeting. Here is also a town-hall, with a spacious council-chamber, and other commodious apartments; a county-hall, two hospitals, a free-school, a good library, a custom-house, a good quay, and several alms-houses. It is governed by a bailiff, twelve aldermen, and twenty-four common-councilmen; but no manufacture of consequence is carried on here; yet being a sea-port, and having a large and convenient quay, it has a good maritime trade, though it is not so considerable as formerly.

Bury St. Edmund's, or St. Edmundsbury, so called from Edmund, king of the East Angles, who was murdered in 870, and buried here, is delightfully situated upon an eminence on the west side of the river Lark, or Bourne, seventy miles to the north-east of London, and having a view of a very fruitful country, has been called the English Montpellier. It is regularly built, the streets crossing each other almost at right angles, and is governed by a recorder, twelve aldermen, and twenty-four common-council. It was formerly famed for its abbey, which was said to be the finest and richest of any in England, and stood between the two churches, which are both very large, and seated in one church-yard. In St. Mary's, one of these churches, lies Mary queen of France, who was married to Thomas duke of Norfolk. Besides these churches, it has one Presbyterian, one Independent, and one Quaker's-meeting. The inhabitants are said to amount to about seven thousand. Here is a spacious market-house, a beautiful cross, and a grammar-school. Here are held the assizes for the county. This town is the general rendezvous of all the nobility and gentry from the neighbouring counties.

SECT. XXV.

Of Cambridgeshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives, Air, Soil, &c.

CAMBRIDGESHIRE, which receives its name from Cambridge, so called from its bridge over the river Cam, is bounded on the north by Lincolnshire; on the east by the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk; on the south by Essex and Hertfordshire; and on the west by Huntingdon and Bedfordshire. It is thirty-five miles in length, about twenty in breadth, and near a hundred and thirty in circumference; it lies partly in the diocese of Ely, and partly in that of Norwich. It is divided into sixteen hundreds, and contains eight market-towns, eighty-three vicarages, a hundred and sixty-three parishes, two hundred and seventy-nine villages, with about seventeen thousand houses, and eighty-six thousand seven

hundred inhabitants. It sends only six members to parliament, namely, two for the county, two for the town of Cambridge, and two for the university.

The air and soil of this county vary extremely, some parts, especially the southern and eastern, are pleasant and healthy; but the northern and fen-country are low and watery, and consequently not very healthful. As the fen-country is in a manner the sink of thirteen counties, it is often overflowed; for all the waters of the middle part of England, which do not run into the Thames or the Trent, fall into these fens, and in the latter part of the year, when they are overflowed with water, they appear covered with fogs; so that while the higher grounds of the adjacent country glitter with the beams of the sun, the Isle of Ely appears wrapt in a mist. To clear these fens a number of drains has been made at a very great expence, by which a great deal of ground has been rendered fertile, and the air much improved. The people who are used to live in this watery country are as healthy as those who enjoy a clearer air, except being subject to the ague, which they make light of.

In these fens are abundance of those ingenious contrivances called decoys, and it is incredible what quantities of wild-fowl of all sorts, as duck, mallard, teal, widgeon, &c. they take in them every week during the season. It is said that the neat profits of a decoy near Ely amount to near five hundred pounds a year; there being generally sent to London during the season from that decoy three thousand couples a week.

Cambridgeshire is almost wholly a corn-country, and five parts in six of all they sow is barley, which is generally sold to Ware, Royston, and other great malting-towns in Hertfordshire.

The principal river in this county is the Ouse, which runs from the east to the north-west, and receives the Cam near Thetford.

The chief places in this county are the following:

Cambridge, the capital of the county, and a celebrated university, stands in a spacious, delightful, and fertile plain, fifty-five miles north of London, and sixty north-east of Oxford. The river Cam divides it into two unequal parts; but its situation is low, and the air is generally esteemed not so good as that of Oxford. It contains about two thousand five hundred houses, and the inhabitants are computed at six thousand: but the streets are generally narrow, though pretty well paved; yet, as they lie low, they are in winter very dirty. In the midst of the market-place is a very good conduit, continually running. The town consists of fourteen parishes, and is governed by a mayor, a recorder, twelve aldermen, and twenty-four common-council; and the mayor, when he enters upon his office, takes an oath to maintain the privileges, liberties, and customs of the university, to which he is subservient.

The glory of this town is its university, which is under the government of the chancellor, who is always a nobleman of high rank, and may be elected every three years, or is continued by the tacit consent of the university. The other officers of the university are, II. The vice-chancellor, who is annually chosen on the fourth of November, by the body of the university, out of two persons nominated by the heads of colleges. III. A commissary, who holds a court of record of civil causes for all privileged persons and scholars under the degree of master of arts. IV. A high-steward, chosen by the senate, and holding by patent from the University. V. Two proctors, who are annually chosen; as are also two taxers, who, with the proctors, have the cognizance of weights and measures, as clerks of the market. The university has also a librarian, a register, and other officers.

The vice-chancellor sometimes visits the taverns and other public-houses in person; but it is more frequently done by the proctors, who have power to punish offending scholars, and to fine the public-houses who entertain them after eight at night in the winter, or nine in summer.

The origin of this university is concealed by the darkness of antiquity; it is said to have been restored by Sebert, king of the East Angles, in the year 630, but was afterwards long neglected and overthrown by the

war of the Danes; but at length revived under the Norman government. It has at present sixteen colleges and halls, which here differ only in name, they being equally endowed, and enjoy the same privileges. In these are sixteen masters, four hundred and six fellowships, about six hundred and sixty-two scholarships, two hundred and thirty-six exhibitions; and the whole number of masters, fellows, scholars, exhibitioners, and other students, amount to about fifteen hundred. We shall now give a brief account of these colleges and halls, according to the date of their several foundations.

I. Peter-house, which perhaps took its name from St. Peter's church in its neighbourhood, was founded by Hugh Balsam, bishop of Ely, in the year 1257. It was endowed for a master, fourteen fellows, &c. which number might be increased or diminished according to the improvement or diminution of their revenues; and has at present twenty-two fellows, and four scholars.

II. Clare-hall was founded in 1340 by Richard Badew, chancellor of the university, with the assistance of the lady Elizabeth Clare, countess of Ulster. He had before erected a house called University-hall, in which the scholars lived for sixteen years at their own expence, till it being accidentally burnt, the founder being sensible that the expence of rebuilding it would exceed his abilities, obtained the assistance of the above lady, through whose liberality it was not only rebuilt, but endowed. This structure has been lately rebuilt with free-stone, and is one of the neatest and most uniform houses in the university. It enjoys a most delightful situation, it being seated on the banks of the river, which here forms a kind of natural canal. It maintains eighteen fellows, and sixty-three scholars.

III. Pembroke-hall was founded seven years after Clare-hall, by Mary St. Paul, countess of Pembroke, and maintains five fellows and thirteen scholars.

IV. St. Bennet's, or Corpus Christi-college, was founded about the same time by the united guilds or fraternities of Corpus Christi and the Blessed Virgin. It takes its name from the adjoining church of St. Benedict. Among its modern benefactors the most considerable is Dr. Matthew Parker, archbishop of Canterbury, who gave a curious library, chiefly consisting of scarce manuscripts; he also founded two fellowships, and five scholarships. At present it is able to maintain twelve fellows, and forty scholars.

V. Trinity-hall was founded by William Bateman, bishop of Norwich, about the year 1348; and as he was eminent for his extensive knowledge in the civil and canon law, two fellows and three scholars, placed by him there, were obliged to pursue that particular branch of learning. It has twelve fellows and fourteen scholars.

VI. Gonvil and Caius-college. With respect to this college it must be observed, that in 1348 Edmund de Gonvil, rector of Terrington in Norfolk, founded a hall, called after his name, in the place where are now the orchard and Tennis-court of Bennet's-college: but within five years after it was removed by bishop Bateman to the place where it now stands. In 1607 John Caius, M. D. made such large additions, both to the building and revenues, that he is deservedly considered as the principal founder; and it has of late years received considerable embellishments. It now maintains twelve fellows of the first rank, fourteen of the second, and seventy-four scholars.

VII. King's-college was founded in 1451 by king Henry VI. and afterwards enlarged by Henry VII. and his son Henry VIII. The model first laid down was never completed; only a part of the magnificent plan being executed: however, the chapel is deservedly esteemed one of the finest buildings of its kind in the world. It is three hundred and four feet in length, seventy-three in breadth, and ninety-one high to the battlements, and has not one pillar in it. It has twelve large windows on each side finely painted, and the carving and other workmanship of the numerous stalls surpasses any thing of the kind. It constitutes one side of a large square; for the royal founder designed that the college should be a quadrangle, all of equal beauty; but the civil wars prevented his accomplishing it: however, what has been lately added is not only an ornament to the college, but to the

whole university, and is built with great regularity and beauty. It maintains seventy fellows and scholars, besides chaplains, &c.

VIII. Queen's-college was founded in 1448, by queen Margaret of Anjou, the wife of Henry VI. but finished by Elizabeth the consort of Edward IV. It now maintains a master, nineteen fellows, twelve bible-clerks, four Greek scholars, forty other scholars, besides lecturers of Hebrew, geometry, and arithmetic.

IX. Catharine-hall owes its foundation to Richard Woodlarke, the third provost of King's-college. A great part of it has been lately rebuilt. It is a neat and elegant structure, in which are maintained six fellows and thirty scholars.

X. Jesus college was begun by John Alcock, bishop of Ely, in 1497, who having obtained of Henry VII. and pope Julius II. the revenues of a monastery of nuns, which had been suppressed on account of their scandalous incontinence, endowed and dedicated it to Jesus, the Blessed Virgin, and St. Radegund, patroness of the nunnery. It has now sixteen fellowships, and thirty-one scholars.

XI. Christ's-college was founded by the lady Margaret, countess of Richmond, mother of Henry VII. for a master and twelve fellows, which number agreeing with our Saviour and his twelve apostles was complained of in Edward the Sixth's reign as superstitious, on which the king added another fellowship and some scholarships. A noble building has been lately added to the old house, and the number of scholars amount to fifty-six.

XII. St. John's-college was begun by the same lady about nineteen years after Christ's-college, and was finished by her executors. This college, which in the beginning of the reign of king James I. was greatly enlarged with new buildings, is pleasantly situated near the river, and is no less remarkable for the number of its students and its beautiful groves and gardens, than for its strict and regular discipline. It has a fine stone bridge over the river, and the library is noble and curious. The number of students amount to one hundred, and its fellows to fifty-three.

XIII. Magdalen-college was originally a hall for monks to prepare themselves for academical exercises; but at the dissolution of the monasteries by Henry VIII. a new college was founded here by Thomas Audley, baron of Walden, and it was afterwards enlarged and endowed by Sir Christopher Wray, lord chief justice of England. This college stands by itself on the north-west side of the river, and has been improved and adorned by handsome buildings. It maintains a master, thirteen fellows, and thirty scholars.

XIV. Trinity-college was founded by Henry VIII. who converted three small houses into one college, made a considerable addition to their former endowments, and dedicated this house to the Holy and Undivided Trinity. Queen Mary added largely to the endowment, and by subsequent benefactions it is enabled to maintain sixty-five fellows, and ninety-one scholars. Its library, which many learned men have contributed to enrich, is very noble: the chapels, buildings, &c. justly place this in the first rank of colleges, and render it superior to some foreign universities.

XV. Emanuel-college was founded by Sir Walter Mildmay, chancellor of the exchequer, in 1584, on the same spot where the Dominican friars had formerly a house. It has a very neat chapel, built by the bounty of Dr. William Sancroft, archbishop of Canterbury, and others, who likewise made a fine addition to the library by giving it his fine collection of books. It maintains a master, fourteen fellows, fifty scholars, and ten poor scholars.

XVI. Sidney Suffex-college was founded by virtue of the will of the lady Frances Sidney, countess of Suffex, who died in 1589, and for this purpose left five hundred pounds. Afterwards Sir Francis Clarke, and after him Sir John Brereton, not only erected a set of new buildings, but augmented the scholarships and fellowships; so that it is now enabled to maintain a master, twelve fellows, and twenty-eight scholars.

Among the other buildings in Cambridge is the new senate-house, which is a fine edifice, and, with the schools,

schools, the university-library, and other buildings, form a noble square. This structure is a hundred and one feet in length, forty-two in breadth, and is adorned with fluted columns, a triangular pediment, and other beautiful decorations.

The schools of the university were at first in private houses, afterwards public schools were erected at the expence of the university, in or near the place where they now stand; but the present structure, which is built of brick and stone, was erected partly at the expence of the university, and partly by the contributions of several benefactors.

The university-library was first built by Rotheram, archbishop of York, who with Tonsal, bishop of Durham, furnished it with choice books; after which his majesty king George I. purchased the library of Dr. John Moore, bishop of Ely, which cost him six thousand guineas, and bestowed it upon this university. Soon after the late lord viscount Townshend erected a fine marble statue of his majesty in the senate-hall of King's-college. The same prince also appointed two persons, both in the university of Oxford and Cambridge, well skilled in modern history, and in the knowledge of modern languages, to be nominated king's professors of modern history, one of whom in each university is obliged to read lectures in the public schools at particular times; each of these professors to have a salary of four hundred pounds per annum, out of which each professor is obliged to maintain, with sufficient salaries, two persons at least, well qualified to teach and instruct in writing and speaking those languages gratis, twenty scholars of each university, to be nominated by the king, each of which is obliged to learn at least two of those languages.

Stourbridge, a field near Cambridge, is known for its famous fair annually kept on the seventh of September, and continues a fortnight. This is esteemed one of the greatest fairs in England, many tradesmen going thither from London and other parts to keep shops there. The trade chiefly consists of woollen cloth, hops, iron, wool, leather, cheese, horses, and many other things.

Ely is seated on an island of the same name, seventeen miles to the north of Cambridge, and sixty-nine north-by-east of London. It stands on a hill seated in the middle of a fenny plain, on the banks of the river, which renders it very unhealthy. The soil is exceeding rich, and the city is encompassed with gardens, which furnish all the county for twenty miles round. Great quantities of strawberries are cultivated here, particularly of the white fort. The city consists of about six hundred good houses, and has but one good street well paved, the rest being extremely dirty. The bishop has the same power as in a county palatine; for he appoints a judge, holds the assizes, jail-delivery, and quarter-sessions of the peace for the liberty. The assizes are held there every twelve months. The cathedral is a stately structure, which has a lantern of curious architecture; besides which the city has only one church.

S E C T. XXVI.

Of Hertfordshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives, Rivers, Air, Soil, and principal Towns.

HARTFORDSHIRE, or Hertfordshire, derives its name from Hartford, or Hertford, the county town, is bounded on the north by Cambridgeshire, on the east by Essex, on the west by Bedfordshire and Buckinghamshire, and on the south by Middlesex. It is thirty-one miles in length, about twenty-eight in breadth, and about a hundred and thirty in circumference. This county, which lies partly in the diocese of London and partly in that of Lincoln, is divided into eight hundreds, which contain eight market-towns, fifty-four vicarages, a hundred and twenty parishes, and near nine hundred and fifty villages, with about sixteen thousand five hundred houses, and eighty-two thousand eight hundred inhabitants; and sends six members to parliament, two knights for the shire, with two burgesses for St. Albans, and as many for Hertford.

The air is very clear and salutary, whence it is frequently recommended by physicians as highly conducive to health, and the people have a saying, that whoever buys a house or land in Hertfordshire, pays two years purchase extraordinary for the goodness of the air. The soil is generally rich, and in the northern parts has a marle mixed with it, that makes it produce excellent wheat; but the meadows and pastures are indifferent. The chief commodities are wheat, barley, malt, and wood.

This county is well watered with small rivers, the chief of which are the Lea and the Coln. The principal towns in Hertfordshire are the following:

Hertford, is seated on the river Lea, two miles to the west of Ware, and twenty-one to the north of London, and was formerly much more considerable than it is at present. It is built in the form of a Y, with a castle in the middle of the two horns, and contains several streets and lanes. It had formerly five parish churches; but they are now reduced to two, with several meeting-houses of the dissenters.

It has a corporation, governed by a mayor, nine aldermen, a recorder, a town-clerk, a chamberlain, ten capital burgesses, &c. The chief commodities of its markets are wool, wheat, and malt, and it is said to send five thousand quarters of malt weekly to London, by the river Lea.

Here is a free-school for the children belonging to the town; three charity schools, and also a school belonging to Christ's-Hospital in London; this is a handsome structure, erected by the governors, for such children as either want health, or are too young for that hospital. This town gives the title of earl to the family of Conway, and near it is the seat of the late governor Harrison, pleasantly situated on a hill, that commands a fine prospect, and there are several other seats in its neighbourhood.

Ware, is seated on the river Lea, twenty-one miles from London. The plenty of water about this town gave rise to that admirable project, of cutting a channel from thence, and thus forming a new river for supplying London with water. This river takes its rise from Arnwell, near this town, and was formed by the great Sir Hugh Middleton, who was obliged, in order to avoid the eminences and valleys in the way, to make it run a course of about thirty-nine miles, and to carry it over two valleys, in long wooden troughs lined with lead; that at Buthill being six hundred and sixty feet in length, and thirty in height, under which is an arch, capacious enough to admit the largest waggon loaded with hay or straw. In short, over and under this river, which sometimes rises thus high, and at others is conveyed underground, run several considerable currents of land waters, and both above and below it a great number of brooks, rills, and water courses have their passage.

In the town of Ware is a charity-school, and six or seven alms houses. The school which formerly was for the younger children of Christ's hospital, is removed to Hertford, the air being there esteemed purer. This town has been famous for its great bed, which is much visited by travellers, it being twelve feet square, and is said to hold twenty people. It was kept at the Crown, but now at the Bull.

St. Alban's, a large and ancient town, twenty-one miles from London, received its name from St. Alban, who suffered in the persecution under Dioclesian, and being afterwards canonized, and interred on a hill in the neighbourhood of the town, a monastery was erected to him by king Offa, to atone for his guilt, in causing him to be murdered. King Edward I. erected here a magnificent cross, in memory of queen Eleanor, and king Edward VI. incorporated the town by a charter, granting the inhabitants a mayor, a steward, a chamberlain, and ten burgesses; but the mayor and steward are here the only justices of peace. Here are three churches, besides the ancient church called St. Alban's, belonging to the monastery, which is now a parish church. In this ancient structure is a funeral monument, and the effigy of king Offa its founder, who is seated on his throne. On the east side stood the shrine of St. Alban, and in the south aisle is the monument of duke Humphry, brother to king Henry V. commonly distinguished by the title of the

the Good duke of Gloucester. It is adorned with a ducal coronet, and the arms of France and England quartered. In niches on one side are seventeen kings, but in the niches on the other side there are no statues remaining.

About fifty years ago, in digging a grave, a pair of stairs was discovered that led down into a vault, where a leaden coffin was found, in which the duke of Gloucester's body was preserved entire, by a kind of pickle in which it lay, only the flesh was wasted from the legs, the pickle at that end being dried up. Many curious medals and coins are to be seen in the church, that have been dug out of the ruins of Old Verulam, which stood on the other side of the river Ver or Moore, which runs south-west of the town.

St. Alban's is the largest town in the county, and, besides its four churches, has several meeting houses, two charity schools, and three fairs, and has on Saturdays one of the best markets for wheat in England. It gives the title of duke to the noble family of Beauclerc. The great John duke of Marlborough erected a seat here, called Holloway-house, and several neat alms-houses have been built here by him and his duchess. Near St. Alban's is a fort at a place called by the common people the Oyster-hills, which is supposed to have been the camp of Ostorius the Roman proprætor.

S E C T. XXVII.

Of Bedfordshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives, Air, Soil, and principal Places.

THIS county derives its name from its chief town; it is bounded on the north by Northamptonshire and Huntingdonshire; on the east by Cambridgeshire; on the west by Buckinghamshire; and on the south by Hertfordshire. It is twenty-two miles long, but not quite fifteen broad. This county is divided into nine hundreds, in which are ten market-towns, fifty-eight vicarages, one hundred and sixteen parishes, five hundred and fifty villages, with about twelve thousand one hundred and seventy houses, and upwards of sixty thousand inhabitants. This county sends only four members to parliament, two of which are for the county, and the other two for Bedford.

The air is temperate, clear, and consequently healthy. The soil is a deep clay, and in the northern parts abounds in corn and pasture; but is sandy in the middle, with a ridge of hills, covered with woods. Its commodities are chiefly fuller's earth, which is of the utmost consequence to the clothing trade; it also affords cattle, venison, fowl, timber, wood, wheat, and barley in great plenty, and remarkably good. The chief manufactures here are bone-lace and straw hats.

The chief river in this county is the Ouse, the navigation of which is of great service in the corn-trade. It divides the county into two unequal parts, forming the most beautiful meanders; for in the distance of twenty miles it runs over a tract of seventy.

The principal places in this county are the following: Bedford, a populous and well built town, forty-four miles to the north-west of London, is seated on the banks of the river Ouse, which divides it into two parts. Here are five parish churches, the principal of which is St. Paul's, and also several meeting-houses of the dissenters: a handsome stone bridge, with a gate at each end, to stop the passage occasionally; and its high-street is in particular very handsome and well built, as is also the market-place, which is much improved with new buildings. It is the only market-town on the Ouse, which has been made navigable to it, vast quantities of corn, particularly barley, being carried from hence down the river to Lynn, where it is shipped for Holland; and here being great plenty of provisions, the higlers buy up considerable quantities for the use of the London markets. On which account it has many good inns, tho' it does not stand upon any of the great roads. Here is a well endowed free-school, and a charity-school for forty children. The town is governed by a mayor, twelve

aldermen, a recorder, two bailiffs, a town clerk, and two serjeants at mace.

The soil in the neighbourhood of Bedford is extremely rich, and particularly produces great quantities of the best wheat, which is carried by waggons from hence, and the north parts of the county to Hitchin and Hertford, where it is ground, and the flour brought by land to London. This town gives the title of duke to the noble family of Russell.

Dunstable, a market-town, seated on a dry chalk hill, sixteen miles from Bedford, and thirty-four from London. Here no springs are to be found, unless they dig very deep for them; but there is a large pond in the middle of the town, filled with rain water, and is never dry. It has four streets, answering to the four cardinal points. The church is the remainder of a priory, and opposite to it is a farm-house, which was once a royal palace. The larks of this town are well known to all who study the gratification of their palates.

Woburn, a market-town, seated on a rising ground, on the high road from London to Northampton. It was burnt down in 1724, but has been neatly rebuilt, and has a handsome market-place, with a free-school and a charity-school, founded by the duke of Bedford, who also erected the market-house. Woburn has near it plenty of fuller's earth.

This town was formerly famous for its abbey, which now belongs to the duke of Bedford, and is his seat; it has many noble rooms, particularly a fine library well stocked with books, and fitted up in an elegant taste; and a long gallery adorned with a collection of fine paintings. Before the house is a large bason of water, surrounded with a fine broad gravel walk. In this bason is a beautiful yacht, of between thirty and forty tons burthen, elegantly carved and gilt, is completely rigged, and mounts ten guns, which are fired on occasion of entertainments given on board. There are also a handsome pleasure boat, a wherry, and skiff.

The park is nine miles round, and encompassed with a brick wall ten feet high. It has lofty woods, some of them of fir trees, and other ever-greens: particularly on the north side of the park is a plantation near two miles long, with a fine riding through it, where, in the depth of winter, one may ride in shelter through a perpetual verdure. A noble piece of water at the end of this plantation, has an island in the middle, upon which is a Chinese building, where, in summer, his grace often dines with his company. There are also in this park many gravel roads through the woods, by which means a person may either walk or ride to every part of the park in the wettest season, without meeting with the least dirt.

S E C T. XXVIII.

Of Huntingdonshire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives, Air, Soil, Produce, and principal Places.

HUNTINGDONSHIRE, or Huntingtonshire, received its name from the Saxons, who, from its being a sporting country, called it Huntedunscire. It is bounded on the north and west by Northamptonshire; on the east by Cambridgeshire; and on the south by Bedfordshire; extending twenty-five miles in length from north to south, eighteen in breadth from east to west, and near sixty-seven in circumference.

This county, which is in the diocese of Lincoln, is divided into three hundreds, and contains six market-towns, twenty-nine vicarages, seventy-nine parishes, two hundred and twenty-nine villages, about eight thousand two hundred and twenty houses, and upwards of forty-one thousand inhabitants: but sends only four members to parliament, namely, two knights of the shire, and two members for Huntingdon.

The air of Huntingdonshire is good, except in the fenny parts, which are subject to damps and unwholesome fogs. The soil is very fruitful; in the dry lands it yields good crops of corn, and in the lower grounds the meadows

meadows and pastures are exceeding rich, producing fine horned cattle. Hence its chief commodities are corn, cattle, excellent cheese made at Stilton, and called the Parmesan of England; with fowl and fish.

There is something particular in the civil government of this county; for as Cambridgehire and Ely are under the same administration with it, the sheriff is chosen by turns out of these several places.

The principal rivers are the Nen and the Ouse. The Nen, after it has passed Oundle in Northamptonshire, winds round the north-west and north bounds of this county. The Ouse enters it at St. Neot's, and running to the north-east passes Huntingdon, and then leaves the county at Erith.

In the north-east part of the county, is a lake called Wittlesey-Meer, six miles long and three broad; the water is clear, but in the calmest weather is subject to be agitated, as if by a tempest. The air of this lake is thick, foggy, and too often fatal to strangers, who attempt to live in its neighbourhood; but the natives receive no inconvenience from it; on the contrary, this lake abounds in fish, and its banks are remarkably fertile.

The chief places in this county are the following:

Huntingdon, called by the Saxons Hunter's-Down, is pleasantly seated on a rising ground, by the river Ouse, over which it has a handsome stone bridge, fifty-seven miles north-by-west of London. It was once much larger than at present, it having fifteen parish churches, which are now reduced to two, with several meeting houses. In this place the assizes are held, and it is a great thorough-fare on the northern road, on which account it is well furnished with inns. It is governed by a mayor, and confers the title of earl on the noble family of Hastings.

Near the west side of the town is Hinchinbroke, which gives the title of viscount to the eldest son of the earl of Sandwich, and where that nobleman has a seat called Hinchinbroke-house, the gardens of which are very fine.

St. Neot's is a well built town, fifty-six miles to the north-north-west of London, seated on the river Ouse, over which there is a stone bridge: it has a handsome church, with a fine steeple, and the market is very considerable.

St. Ives is an ancient, large, and handsome place, fifty-seven miles north-west of London, and is seated on the river Ouse, over which it has a handsome stone bridge. Here was a priory, which is now in ruins. It has one large church, two dissenting meetings, and a popish chapel, with about five hundred dwelling-houses. The streets are pretty wide, and tolerably well paved.

SECT. XXIX.

Of Northamptonshire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THIS county takes its name from the town of Northampton, which some say was so called from its situation on the north side of the river Ansona, or Nen, while others maintain that it was thus named from its situation with respect to Southampton. It is seated in the middle of England, and as it extends in a narrow tract towards the north-east, borders upon more counties than any other in England; for on the north it is bounded by Lincolnshire, Rutlandshire, and Leicestershire; on the east by Cambridgehire, Huntingdonshire, and Bedfordshire; on the west by Warwickshire and Oxfordshire; and on the south by Buckinghamshire. It extends in length from the south-west to the north-east near fifty-five miles, in the broadest part from east to west it is twenty-six, and a hundred and twenty-five in circumference. It is seated in the diocese of Peterborough, and divided into twenty hundreds, containing thirteen market-towns, eighty-five vicarages, and about five hundred and fifty villages, with about twenty-four thousand eight hundred houses, and a hundred and twenty-nine thousand

inhabitants. Northamptonshire sends nine members to parliament, two for the county, two each for Northampton, the city of Peterborough, and Brackley, and one for Higham-Ferrers.

The air of this county is very healthy, and, except the little corner of Peterborough hundreds, is entirely free from bogs and fens, hence it abounds with the seats of the nobility and gentry. The soil is very fertile, both for tillage and pasturage, and is deficient in nothing but fuel, which is in most parts very scarce; nor can this scarcity be remedied, as they have no coal-pits, nor any navigable rivers to admit of their being supplied by water-carriage. It is observable, that here is but one barren heath, and that the rest of the country is as fruitful in corn and grass as any part of England. The commodities produced by this county are horned cattle, sheep, horses, and corn. The principal manufactures in which the people are employed are serges, tamies, shalloons, boots, and shoes.

The principal rivers of Northamptonshire are the Nen and the Welland; besides which it is partly watered by the Ouse, the Leam, and the Charwell. Three of these, namely, the Nen, the Leam, and the Charwell, rise within a small distance of each other, near Daventry, and there form very different courses; the Leam running westward, the Charwell southward, and the Nen eastward, till it falls into the German ocean. The Welland rises in the north-west side of the county, and divides it from Leicestershire, Rutlandshire, and Lincolnshire, running through a part of the last county till it falls into the sea. The Ouse also rises in this county, but soon enters Buckinghamshire. These rivers are of great service in furnishing this inland county with fish.

The principal towns in this county are the following:

Northampton, an ancient borough town, incorporated by king Henry II. and confirmed by king James I. is seated on the river Nen, sixty-seven miles north-west-by-north of London. It had walls, which are now demolished, and likewise a large castle, which is in ruins; and here several parliaments have been held. It is at present esteemed the handsomest town in all this part of England; but its beauty is owing to a dreadful disaster; for it was so effectually burnt down on the twentieth of September, 1675, that very few houses were left standing: but it is now handsomely rebuilt with brick and stone, and the streets are wide and spacious. It has two bridges over the river: the hall for the assizes is adorned with columns of the Corinthian order, and the market-place is square and spacious. It had seven churches, which are now reduced to four, All Saints, St. Giles's, St. Sepulchre's, and St. Peter's. The first is a noble edifice, adorned with a cupola, and has a grand portico before it of eight lofty Ionic columns. This structure stands in the center where four large spacious streets terminate, and is consequently seen to the utmost advantage. Here are also several meeting-houses of Protestant dissenters. The public buildings are in general extremely handsome: this town has an infirmary, a good free-school, a charity-school, and two alms-houses. It is governed by a mayor, two bailiffs, a recorder, four aldermen, forty-eight common-councilmen, and a town-clerk.

Peterborough, a city of great antiquity, is seated on the river Nen, over which there is a bridge that leads into Huntingdonshire, and is in the eastern angle of Northamptonshire, seventy-six miles north-by-west of London. This is the least city in England; for Wells, Ely, and Carlisle are much bigger. Here are, however, many good houses; for the streets are handsome and well built, and the market-place pretty spacious. It has, however, but one church besides the cathedral, which is one of the most noble Gothic buildings in England: the west end is supported by three noble arches, very curiously embellished; and the windows are finely painted with the histories of the Old and New Testament. In short, the whole structure is adorned with a great deal of curious work. In this church was buried Mary queen of Scots; but her body was afterwards removed by her son James I. to king Henry the Seventh's chapel, in Westminster abbey.

Here

Here also lies interred queen Catharine the divorced wife of king Henry VIII. who has a monument erected to her memory.

This town is governed by a mayor, aldermen, and a recorder, and gives the title of earl to the noble family of Mordaunt.

Wellingborough is pleasantly seated on the ascent of a hill on the western banks of the river Nen, sixty-five miles from London, and is a large, well built, and well inhabited town, with a handsome church, and a free-school. A dreadful fire happened here in July, 1738, which in six hours time consumed above eight hundred dwelling-houses, mostly in the south and east parts of the town; but it has since been rebuilt in a more handsome manner. This town enjoys a pretty good trade.

S E C T. XXX.

Of Warwickshire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Places.

WARWICKSHIRE derives its names from the Saxons, who called it Weringscire, which signifies a station of soldiers. It is bounded on the north by Staffordshire, on the east by Leicestershire and Northamptonshire, on the south-west by Gloucestershire, and on the south-east by Oxfordshire; extending in length forty-seven miles, and twenty-seven in breadth. This county, which lies partly in the diocese of Litchfield and Coventry, and partly in that of Worcester, is divided into four hundreds and one liberty, and contains seventeen market-towns, eighty-seven vicarages, a hundred and fifty-eight parishes, seven hundred and eighty villages, about twenty-two thousand houses, and two hundred thousand inhabitants. It sends six members to parliament, namely, two knights of the shire, two members for Warwick, and two for Coventry.

The air is allowed to be very mild; pleasant, and healthy, and more so since the wood lands have been thinned and laid more open than formerly, by the great consumption of wood in the iron-works; by which means the wood-landers have been obliged to apply to tillage and pasture. The northern part of the country, called the Woodland, is divided from the south, called the Feldon, by the river Avon; but the soil of both is rich, and produces excellent corn and cheese, the last of which is famous all over England: hence the chief commodities of this county are corn, malt, wood, wool, and cheese. This county also abounds in coals, which in some places lie even with the surface of the earth; and here are many excellent coal-pits.

The principal rivers are the Avon, which rises in Leicestershire, and enters this county a little above Rugby, running chiefly south-west; it passes by Warwick, Stratford, and Bitford, below which it enters Worcestershire. The Tame, which rises in Staffordshire, and entering this county, runs eastward, till it has received the Blythe, and then, turning to the northward, enters Staffordshire. The Arrow rises in Worcestershire, and crossing the west-south-west borders of this county, joins the Avon a little below Bitford. The principal towns in Warwickshire are the following:

Warwick is seated on a rock near the Avon, eighty-four miles to the north-west of London. All the passages to it are cut through the rock; and there is no way to go to it but over water. It was anciently fortified with a wall, which is now in ruins; but has still a strong and stately castle, which is the seat of the lord Brooke. It is a large and handsome town, in which are two parish-churches, with several meeting-houses of the Dissenters. It principally consists of one regular built street, at each end of which is an ancient gate, and over the river is a stone bridge of twelve arches. It is governed by a bailiff and twelve burgesses, and has a handsome market-house supported on stone pillars. It has likewise a good free-school, and an hospital called St. James's, for twelve decayed gentlemen, who have each twenty pounds a year, and the chaplain fifty.

This town was wholly reduced to a heap of ruins by a terrible fire on the fifth of September, 1694; but was rebuilt by act of parliament in so noble and beautiful a manner, that few towns in England make so fine an appearance. It is famous for being the residence of the celebrated Guy earl of Warwick, of whom so many fabulous and romantic accounts have been given, that it is perhaps impossible to distinguish his real actions from those that are fabulous. He flourished in the reign of Athelstan, and decided the fate of the kingdom by single combat with Colbrond, the Dane, a man of gigantic stature, whom he slew, and afterwards led an hermit's life till his death. They show here his helmet and sword.

The castle, already mentioned, stands upon the river Avon, on a solid rock. The terrace, like that of Windsor, overlooks a beautiful country, and you see the Avon running at the foot of the precipice, from above fifty feet perpendicular height. The building is old, but has often been repaired and beautified, and is now a very agreeable structure, both within and without. The apartments are well contrived, and the communication between the remotest parts of the building is well preserved by galleries, and the great hall, which is very magnificent. There are in the castle many curious original pictures, by Vandyke, and other hands, of kings, queens, and other noble personages.

A mile out of town on the side of a hill is a cell called Guy-Cliff, and in a kind of old chapel is a statue of Guy eight feet high. The fence of the court is of solid rock, in which are cut stables and out-houses. Here they shew the cave where Guy died an hermit.

Coventry is a city and county of itself, containing under its jurisdiction nineteen villages and hamlets. It is situated ninety-two miles to the north-west of London, and eleven to the north-east of Warwick. It stands on the little river Sherburn, and is of great extent; but the houses being mostly very old, and chiefly built of wood and plaster, with stories projecting over each other, make but a very indifferent appearance. This is the sister city to Litchfield, and is joined in the title of the see, which was for some time seated here. It was walled and incorporated by Edward II. afterwards its charter was confirmed by king Henry VI. and augmented with several privileges by king James I. Its walls were demolished by order of king Charles II. in the year 1662, and only the gates left standing, from which the beauty and strength of the walls, which were three miles in compass, may be easily guessed at.

It is governed by a mayor, two bailiffs, sheriffs, ten aldermen, a town-clerk, and other officers, who hold pleas for all actions, and it has a jail for felons, as well as debtors. It is divided into ten wards, and has three parish churches, that of the Holy Trinity, St. Michael, and St. John the Baptist, with several meeting-houses; but has no cathedral. The church of St. Michael is a fine structure of Gothic architecture, and has a curious piece of painting for the altar-piece. The spire of the great church, which is very beautiful, is three hundred feet high, and there are two churches in the same yard, where they seem to rival each other. At the south end of the town also stands a tall spire by itself, this being what is left of the Grey Friar's conventual church. In the market-place stood the most stately cross in England, it being sixty-six feet high, and adorned with the statues of several of the English kings, and a variety of curious Gothic sculpture; but it has been lately taken down. The inhabitants have also lately obtained an act for paving, lighting, and cleaning the streets. The town-house is worth seeing, the windows being of painted glass, representing some of the old kings, earls, &c. who have been benefactors to the town.

The story of the lady Godiva, who rode naked thro' the high-street of the city, to purchase its exemption from oppressive taxes, is here so firmly believed, that they will not suffer the truth of it to be questioned, and in memory of it the inhabitants have an annual procession on the Friday after Trinity Sunday, which is held as a fair, when the figure of a naked woman rides on horse-back through the city with great pomp and ceremony, and the picture of the poor fellow who peeped out of a window

to see her, is still kept up, looking out of a window in the high-street. This city has a very considerable manufacture of stuffs, particularly of tamies, and also of ribbons. It gives the title of earl to the noble family of Coventry.

Birmingham is a very large town, seventeen miles to the north-west of Coventry, and one hundred and nine to the north-west of London; it stands on the side of a hill, forming nearly a half-moon. The lower part is filled with work-shops and ware-houses of the manufacturers, and consists chiefly of old buildings; but the upper part contains a number of new and regular streets. It has no corporation, it being governed only by two constables and two bailiffs, and is therefore free for any person to come and settle there, which has greatly contributed both to the increase of the buildings, and the trade, which is the most flourishing of any in England for all sorts of iron-work and hard-ware. It has two churches, one in the lower part of the town, which is an ancient building with a very tall spire; the other is a very grand modern structure, having a square stone tower, with a dome and turret above it. In this town is a fine peel of ten bells, and a set of musical chimes, which play seven different tunes, one for each day of the week. It has also two chapels and meeting-houses for every denomination of dissenters. The houses, which are continually increasing, amount to about seven thousand. There is a free-grammar school, founded and handsomely endowed by king Edward VI. and since rebuilt in a very handsome form. Here is also a charity school, in which are maintained and taught upwards of fifty boys and girls.

S E C T. XXXI.

Of Worcestershire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Places.

WORCESTERSHIRE derives its name from its capital, called by the Saxons Weagorcestre, which at length became changed to Worcester. This county is bounded on the north by Staffordshire; on the east and north-east by Warwickshire; on the west by Shropshire, and Herefordshire; and on the south by Gloucestershire; extending about thirty-five miles in length, and twenty-seven in breadth.

It is divided into seven hundreds, and two limits, and contains twelve market-towns, fifty-five vicarages, one hundred and fifty-two parishes, five hundred villages, about twenty thousand six hundred houses, and one hundred and twenty-three thousand seven hundred inhabitants. It is in the diocese of Worcester, and sends nine members to parliament; namely, two for the county, and two for each of the following places, Worcester, Droitwich, and Evesham, and one for the borough of Bewdley.

The air of Worcestershire is very healthy, and the soil in the vales and meadows very rich, producing corn and pasture, particularly the rich vale of Evesham, which is justly stiled the granary of these parts. The hills have generally an easy ascent, except Malvern hill, and feed large flocks of sheep. This county had formerly two large forests, but the iron and salt works have in a manner destroyed them; and therefore these works are now chiefly carried on with coal, with which this county abounds. A number of rivers and rivulets water the fine meadows, and give them a richness that is easily perceived in the butter and cheese. Here is plenty of fruits of most sorts, especially pears, which are in many places found growing in the hedges. The chief commodities are coals, corn, cloth, cheese, cyder, perry, and salt.

The principal rivers with which this county is watered are the Severn, which enters Worcestershire on the north-west edge of the county, and running southward by Worcester, receives the Temd, when, passing by Upton, it enters Gloucestershire. The Temd enters Worcestershire on the west border, and runs to the south-east, till it joins the Severn. The Avon enters the east-side of Worcestershire, and running through the vale of Evesham, leaves this county at the southermost point. All

these rivers abound with the usual sorts of fish; but the Severn has lampreys almost peculiar to itself: they resemble an eel in shape, but instead of gills, have nine holes on each side of the neck: they are in season in the spring of the year, when they have a delicious taste, which abates as the summer advances. The principal towns of this county are the following:

Worcester is pleasantly situated on the eastern bank of the river Severn, one hundred and twelve miles to the west-north-west of London. This is a large well built and populous city. It has a handsome stone bridge over the Severn, and from hence rises a gentle ascent, so high as to afford a pleasant prospect over the vale beneath. The Foregate-street is remarkably beautiful and regular, and the whole city is extraordinary well paved. The public buildings make a noble appearance, particularly the Guildhall; but the statues on the out-side are very indifferent; the work-house is also a handsome structure. The cathedral is very ancient, and makes but an indifferent appearance either within or without; the tower being low, without any spire, and only four very small pinnacles at the corners. In it lies buried king John, not where his monument now stands, but under a little stone before the altar of the eastermost wall of the church. On each side of him, on the ground, lie the effigies of two bishops. On the southside of the high altar, is a large handsome chapel, the choir of which is of exquisite workmanship. Here is the monument of prince Arthur, the eldest son of king Henry VII. who died at Ludlow in 1502, and among other monuments is one of the famous countess of Salisbury, who, dancing before Edward III. in his great hall at Windsor, dropped her garter, which the king taking up, it is pretended gave rise to the order of the Garter; but this is generally supposed to be a mistake. The monument is very fine, and it is remarkable, that there are several angels of stone strewing garters over the tomb.

Besides the cathedral and St. Michael's church, which is without the liberty of the city, it contains nine parish churches; it has also three grammar-schools, seven hospitals well endowed, a water-house, and a well contrived quay. It is governed by a mayor, six aldermen, a recorder, two coroners, a sheriff, a sword-bearer, and five serjeants at mace. The inhabitants are generally esteemed rich, being full of business, chiefly occasioned by the clothing trade, of which the city and county carry on a great share: the number of hands it employs in this town and the adjoining villages, in carding, spinning, weaving, fulling, &c. is almost incredible. One part of the city is wholly possessed by the Welsh, who speak their own language, and are employed in this manufacture. There is here also a manufacture of porcelain, which is carried to a very great perfection; so as to equal that brought from China.

Droitwich, is seated on the river Salwarp, six miles from Worcester, and ninety-five from London; it is a corporate and borough town, remarkable for its excellent salt springs, of which is here made fine white salt: the inhabitants have also a manufacture of linen cloth and hats.

Kidderminster, a town seated under a hill, by the river Stour, one hundred and twenty-eight miles to the north-west of London, is particularly famous for its woollen manufacture, called Kidderminster stuffs; but at present here is an extraordinary manufactory of blankets and carpets, equal to those of Turkey, and the inhabitants are said to have no less than one thousand looms constantly employed. Here is a handsome church, a very good free-school, and an alms-house. It is governed by a bailiff, twelve capital burgesses, and twenty-five common council men.

Stourbridge, or Sturbridge, is seated on the river Stour, over which it has a bridge, from whence it has its name, is one hundred and seventeen miles to the north-west of London. The inhabitants have a considerable manufacture of glass of all sorts, and also iron works. Here are also made fine stone pots for glass-makers to melt their metal in, and likewise crucibles, the clay of which these are made being almost peculiar to this place. Here is a good free-school, in which is a library.

Near this town is Hagley-park, the seat of Lord Lyttelton, which is a beautiful spot of ground, intermixed with a pleasing variety of hills, valleys, and woods. The house is esteemed one of the finest seats in the county.

S E C T. XXXII.

Of Shropshire ; its Name, Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives, Air, Soil, and Produce. Of the Phenomena of this County ; its Rivers, and principal Towns.

SHROPSHIRE obtained its name from that given by the Saxons to Shrewsbury, which they called Scrobberig, which signifies a town built on a woody hill. It is bounded on the north by Flintshire, in Wales, and Cheshire; on the east by Staffordshire and Worcestershire; on the south by Worcestershire, Herefordshire, and Radnorshire, in Wales; and on the west by the Welch counties of Radnorshire, Montgomeryshire, and Denbighshire. It extends about thirty-eight miles in length from north to south, thirty in breadth, and a hundred and forty in circumference.

This county lies partly in the diocese of Litchfield and Coventry, and partly in that of Hereford; and is divided into fourteen hundreds, in which are contained sixteen market-towns, fifty-two vicarages, a hundred and twenty parishes, six hundred and fifteen villages, with about twenty-two thousand three hundred and eighty houses, and a hundred thirteen thousand six hundred and eighty inhabitants. It sends twelve members to parliament, that is, two for the county, and two for each of the following towns, Shrewsbury, Ludlow, Bridgenorth, Wenlock, and Bishop's-castle.

The air of Shropshire is salubrious, and not very sharp, except on the hills. The soil is generally fruitful, especially in the northern and eastern parts, which produce plenty of wheat and barley; but the southern and western, being mountainous, are less fertile, yet yield sufficient pasture for sheep and cattle. Under the surface are mines of lead, copper, iron, stone, and inexhaustible coal-pits. Over most of the coal-pits lies a stratum of a blackish, hard, porous substance, containing great quantities of bitumen, which being ground to powder in horse-mills, and boiled in coppers of water, there swims on the surface a bituminous matter, which, by evaporation, is brought to the consistence of pitch; or, by the help of an oil distilled from the same stone, and mixed with it, may be thinned to a sort of tar: both these substances serve particularly for caulking of ships, as well, if not better than pitch or tar, it being less liable to crack.

Many authors mention a remarkable phenomenon at Brosely, about six miles north of Bridgenorth. This is a well that exhales a sulphureous vapour, which when contracted to one vent, by means of an iron cover with a semicircular hole, and fired by applying a lighted candle to it, will continue burning with great violence, so as to boil a large piece of beef in two hours; but what is still more extraordinary, a piece of meat broiled in this flame has not the least ill taste from the sulphur. This, however, is not the only phenomenon of the kind, there being another burning well of much the same nature in Lancashire.

The chief rivers of this county are the Severn and the Temd. Both these rivers receive several smaller ones, and all of them are well stocked with a variety of fish, as salmon, trouts, pike, carp, lampreys, eels, &c. As the Severn, which rises in Montgomeryshire, is navigable before it leaves it, that river is of infinite advantage to this county, not only for the communication it affords, but for the commerce it maintains with Worcestershire, Gloucestershire, and Bristol.

The principal places in Shropshire are the following:

Shrewsbury, a beautiful, large, pleasant, populous, and rich town, a hundred and fifty-seven miles to the north-west of London, is supposed to have been built out of the ruins of the ancient Uriconium. In the reign of William the Conqueror, Roger earl of Montgomery built a castle on the north side, and a stately abbey called St. Giles's, or the Holy Cross, at the east end, famous for

being the repository of St. Winifred's body; but only some ruins of it are now to be seen.

Shrewsbury is seated on the Severn, which in part surrounds the town, in the form of a horse-shoe, and over it are two stone bridges, upon one of which is built a very noble gate that has over the arch the statue of the great Llewellyn, whose memory is dear to the Welsh, he being their last prince of Wales. The town is near two miles long, and the streets mostly broad and paved. Here are five churches, and two of them have lofty spires: St. Chad's and St. Mary's are said to have been anciently collegiate; and all the churches, except the last, which is a royal peculiar, are in the diocese of Litchfield and Coventry. There are here a great number of gentry, and this is a place of mirth and gallantry, something like Bury in Suffolk, or Durham in the north; but is much bigger than either of them.

Here is the largest market, the greatest plenty of good provisions, and the cheapest that is to be met with in all the western part of England. Over the market-place is kept a kind of hall for their manufactures, which are chiefly of flannel and white broad-cloth, great quantities of which are weekly sold here. All the inhabitants speak English; but on a market-day you would imagine yourself in Wales.

Here is the most considerable free-school in this part of England, founded by king Edward VI. and endowed by queen Elizabeth, with a sufficient maintenance for a head-master and three under-masters. The buildings, which are of stone, are very spacious, particularly the library, which contains a great many books. The school-masters have also very handsome dwelling-houses; so that the whole has the appearance of a college. The town was incorporated by king Henry I. and is under the government of a mayor, a recorder, a steward, twenty-four aldermen, and forty-eight common-councilmen.

Near this place was fought the bloody battle between Henry Hotspur and Henry IV. king of England, in which the former was killed, and his army entirely defeated; and the place is still called Battle-field. This town is also famous for the reception it gave to Charles I. but the fate of the war afterwards turning against the king, the town was almost ruined; but it has now fully recovered from this disaster, and is one of the most flourishing places in England: the wall and gates are still standing, but useless, and the old castle is gone to ruins. This town gives title of earl to the noble family of Talbot.

Ludlow is seated twenty-nine miles to the south of Shrewsbury, and one hundred thirty-six to the north-west of London, and was formerly defended by a castle, which, now in its decay, gives some idea of its beauty in its flourishing state. This was the palace of the prince of Wales in right of his principality. It enjoys a fine situation, there being a spacious plain in its front, which formerly extended near two miles; but much of it now is enclosed. The country round it is exceeding pleasant and fertile, and nothing can be added by nature to render it a fit place for a royal palace. It is built upon a rock, in the north-west angle of the town, and on the west is shaded by a lofty hill, and washed by the river. The battlements are of great height and thickness, with towers at convenient distances. That half which is within the walls of the town is secured with a deep ditch; the other is founded on the solid rock; but all the fine courts, the royal apartments, halls, and rooms of state lie open, abandoned, and some of them falling down.

The town of Ludlow is likewise fortified with walls, which have seven gates. It is well built, and is a place of good trade. On the south side of the town runs the Temd, over which is a good bridge. The river has several dams across it, on which are placed abundance of mills. Ludlow has a very good church, the windows of which are full of painted glass, pretty entire; the tower is handsome, and has a pleasant ring of six bells. The church is dedicated to St. Laurence, and in the market-place is a conduit, on the top of which is a long stone cross bearing a niche, in which is the image of that saint. The town is governed by two bailiffs, twelve aldermen, a recorder, twenty-five common-councilmen, and other inferior officers. It has the privilege of trying

and executing criminals, and has an alms-house for thirty poor people.

Bridgenorth is pleasantly situated, twenty-one miles to the south-east of Shrewsbury, and a hundred and thirty-six to the north-west of London. The air is healthy, the prospect delightful, and it has a pretty good trade. It consists of two towns, the High and the Low, which are separated by the Severn; but united by a stone bridge of seven arches, which has a gate and gate-house. It has been fortified with walls, and a castle now in ruins; and the area in the last is converted into a fine bowling-green. The streets are broad and paved. In Cowgate-street a rock rises perpendicularly, where are several tenements that have an agreeable, though a grotesque appearance. There is a hollow way cut through the rock, leading from the High town to the bridge, in some parts of the depth of twenty feet, and likewise many vaults and dwellings hewn out of the rock. The town is governed by two bailiffs, twenty-four aldermen, and other inferior officers. It is famous for gunsmiths, and the manufacture of stockings. Here are two churches, St. Mary Magdalen's, which was made a free chapel, and exempted from episcopal jurisdiction by king John; and St. Leonard's, which was burnt in the civil commotions in the reign of Charles I. and lately rebuilt by the inhabitants; but though the parishes are large, and the town very populous, the churches are very indifferently endowed; and this is also the case with the free-school.

Whitchurch is seated on the confines of the county, near Cheshire, about a hundred and sixty-two miles to the north-west of London. It is a pleasant and populous town, and in the Old church, which was lately taken down, was a monument of the great Talbot, first earl of Shrewsbury, called in his time the English Achilles. The New church is a large and handsome structure. The town has a good market, and many gentry near it.

S E C T. XXXIII.

Of Staffordshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, Lakes, and principal Towns.

STAFFORDSHIRE, which is so named from Stafford, the county town, is bounded on the east and south-east by Derbyshire; on the south by Warwickshire; on the south-west by Shropshire; and on the north-west, north, and north-east by Cheshire and Derbyshire. It extends forty-five miles in length, twenty-eight in breadth, and a hundred and forty-two in circumference. This county, which lies in the diocese of Litchfield and Coventry, is divided into five hundreds, and contains nineteen market-towns, thirty-nine vicarages, a hundred and fifty parishes, and six hundred and seventy villages; with about twenty-three thousand seven hundred and forty houses, and a hundred and forty-two thousand four hundred and forty inhabitants. It sends ten members to parliament, two for the county, and two for each of the following towns, Litchfield, Stafford, Newcastle Under Lyne, and Tamworth.

The air of this county is generally very good, though sharp, especially on the hilly part, which lies between Trentham and Beach. The moor-lands, which are mountainous, and therefore reckoned the most barren, produce a short, but sweet grass, and feed as large cattle as those of Lancashire. The banks of the Dove in particular maintain the great dairies which supply Uttoxeter market with such store of butter and cheese. Great numbers of sheep are fed both in the northern and southern parts; but they are small, and their wool coarser than that of several other counties; but a great deal of it is manufactured in the clothing and felting business. The arable ground is no less fruitful than the pastures, and even the moor-lands, when manured with marl and lime, mixed with turf-ashes, produce good oats and barley. The southern parts, and some of the northern, yield wheat, rye, barley, pulse, flax, and hemp.

With regard to the subterraneous productions, the moor and wood-lands yield copper, lead, iron, marble,

alabaster, mill-stones, excellent coal, salt, &c. In the more fruitful parts are several marls which are used with great success on the lands. Here is likewise brick-earth for red bricks, and others that burn blue; fuller's-earth, potter's-clay, particularly a sort used in the glass-houses; slip, a reddish earth with which vessels are painted yellow, red ochre, and tobacco-pipe clay. It likewise yields fire-stone, rocks of lime-stone, a kind of iron-stone called musk, as big as the crown of a hat, and containing about a pint of a cold, sharp, pleasant liquor, which the workmen are fond of; the best sort of iron-ware are made of this stone; also hæmatites, or blood-stone.

The principal rivers in this county are the Trent, the third river in England, which rises among the moor-lands in the north-west side of the county, and has its waters increased by several rivulets, with the Sow, Eccleshall-water, and other streams, then runs to the eastward into Derbyshire. The Dove rises in the most northern point of Staffordshire, forming the boundary between it and Derbyshire, and joins the Trent a little below Burton. The Sow rises a few miles to the west of Newcastle Under Lyne, and running to the south-east falls into the Trent. They are all well stocked with fish, especially the Trent.

Besides these Staffordshire has plenty of water from its small lakes, as Ladford-pool, Cock-meer, Eccleshall-pool, New and Mare-pools, &c. most of which have rivulets passing through them, or are fed with springs, and abound in fish.

The principal places in this county are the following.

Litchfield, a neat well built city, and county of itself, is seated in a pleasant champaign country, a hundred and eighteen miles to the north-west of London. A brook, which glides slowly through it, divides the city into two parts, one of which is called the Town, and the other the Close. In the first is a fine school, a very handsome hospital dedicated to St. John, and well endowed: this part is the largest and most populous; but the other has the best buildings, and among the rest the cathedral, with the houses of the residentiary clergy, and many other good buildings. The cathedral is esteemed one of the most elegant Gothic structures in England, it is built of a reddish stone, and the west end is adorned with the statues of all the kings who reigned in Jerusalem, from David to the captivity: but the two towers are much too low for their breadth; yet the spires above them are carried up in a beautiful taste, and a tower and spires which rise from the middle of the church are much higher than those at the west end, and equally beautiful. The great window over the middle door is very large, and beautifully adorned. The see is very ancient, it having been once archiepiscopal, with jurisdiction over the kingdoms of the Mercians and East Angles. Besides the cathedral, here are three parish-churches, a free-school, and two hospitals. The jurisdiction of the city extends in a circle near ten miles in compass, and is annually rode round by the sheriff on the eighth of September. The corporation consists of a recorder, who is a nobleman of high rank, two bailiffs, a sheriff, twenty-four burgesses, &c. The market is well supplied with all sorts of provisions on Tuesdays and Fridays. This town gives title of earl to the noble family of Lee.

Stafford, the county town, is seated on the river Sow, which washes it on the south and west, over which is a stone bridge. It stands sixteen miles to the north-west of Litchfield, and a hundred and thirty-five to the north-west of London. It is a neat and well built town, surrounded with meadows: the streets are large, and many of the houses handsomely built. It has a fine square market-place, in which is the county hall, which is a very handsome structure, and under it is the market-house. This town has two parish-churches, and a free-school. It is governed by a mayor and other inferior officers, and here the assizes and sessions are kept. Stafford is much increased and grown rich by the cloathing trade, and it is remarkable that it still retains the ancient custom of Borough English, which is, that the youngest sons inherit the lands of their fathers within the town.

Newcastle Under Lyne is seated on a branch of the Trent, fifteen miles to the north of Stafford, and a hundred

hundred forty-nine to the north-north-west of London. It is a large place, with broad paved streets; but the castle, from whence it receives its name, is quite demolished. It is governed by a mayor, two justices, two bailiffs, and common council; and had formerly four churches, which are now reduced to one. The principal manufacture of the town is hat-making, there being here an incorporated company by the name of felt-makers. The cloathing trade also flourishes here; and about three miles from the town is a manufacture of earthen-ware, which imitates brown china: they also make black tea-pots and other vessels, some of which are neatly figured and gilt, and likewise a prodigious quantity of white earthen-ware.

The adjacent parts yield pit-coal, which shining with a variety of colours, is therefore called peacock-coal.

About three miles south-east of Newcastle is the little town of Trentham, so called from the river Trent, which rises there, where is the noble seat of earl Gower, esteemed the finest in the county: the house is modern, and built on the plan of the queen's palace in St. James's park; but its situation, with the front towards the church-yard, renders the entrance inconvenient. The park is very beautiful; it has two large pieces of water, and the hills which rise from them are finely covered with wood. The park is walled round, and from the high ground in it you have an extensive view of the country on every side.

Wolverhampton, or Woolverhampton, a very ancient, large, and flourishing town, a hundred and twenty miles to the north-west of London, is pleasantly seated on a hill. The houses are pretty well built, and the streets are for the most part broad and well paved. It has an ancient collegiate church annexed to the deanry of Windsor, in which are several ancient monuments, and a very handsome chapel; with a Presbyterian, a Roman catholic, and a Quakers meeting-house. Here the trade of lock-making is carried on to great perfection, as also are the making of most other utensils in brass and iron, which are sent from hence and exported all over Europe. A market for iron-work is held weekly, some of which is made in the town; but the principal part is brought to the market by the farmers for several miles round, where every farm has one forge or more; so that the farmers work at their forges as smiths, when they are not employed in the fields, and what they bring to market is bought up by the great tradesmen who send it to London.

S E C T. XXXIV.

Of Leicestershire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives in Parliament, Air, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THIS county takes its name from Leicester, its capital, which it obtained from its situation on the river Leire, now called the Soar, and is bounded on the north by Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire, on the east by Lincolnshire and Rutlandshire, on the south by Northamptonshire, and on the west by Warwickshire. It extends about thirty miles from east to west, near twenty-five from north to south, and about ninety-six in circumference.

Leicestershire, which lies in the diocese of Lincoln, is divided into six hundreds, and contains thirteen market-towns, eighty-one vicarages, a hundred and ninety-two parishes, ten parks, five hundred and fifty villages, and about a hundred and twelve thousand two hundred inhabitants; but sends only four members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and the like number for the town of Leicester.

The air of this county is very healthful; but the soil is different in different parts: in the south-west it is rich and plentiful, both for corn and pasture; but so destitute of fuel, that the inhabitants are forced to burn dried cow-dung. In this part there are, however, fine meadows on the banks of the Avon. The north-east part, especially about the river Wreke, is mostly barren, mountainous, and rocky; but affords plenty of wood and pit-coal, feeding vast numbers of sheep, which here and in Lincolnshire are the largest mutton with which the London markets are supplied, and have the greatest fleeces

of wool of any in England; nor is the wool less fine on account of its quantity, and, some few places excepted, is the longest staple in the whole island. The sheep-breeding country here reaches from the river Anker, on the confines of Warwickshire, to the Humber, at the farthest end of Lincolnshire, which is near a hundred miles in length; and from the banks of the Trent, in Lincolnshire and Leicestershire, to those of the Ouse, which is above sixty miles in breadth.

The horses fed here are also the largest in England, they being generally the great black coach and dray-horses, of which such numbers are continually sent up to London. Indeed most of the gentlemen are graziers, and in some places it is not uncommon for these to rent from five hundred to two thousand pounds a year.

In short, this county produces wheat, barley, peas, and oats; but its most natural and plentiful crops are of beans.

Its principal rivers, the Avon, the Soar, anciently called the Leire, the Anker, and the Welland, which rise in the west part of this county, form four different courses; for the Avon soon leaves this county, and runs to Warwick. The Soar, the principal river, first runs north-east by Leicester, till having received the Wreke, it turns to the north-west, and falls into the Trent, where the three counties, Leicestershire, Derbyshire, and Nottinghamshire, meet. The Anker runs north-west to Atherston, on the edge of Warwickshire. The Welland runs north east by Harborough to Stamford. The Wreke rises in a part of the county called the Would, and runs westward till it falls into the Soar.

We shall now describe the principal places of this county.

Leicester, the county town, is seated on the river Soar, by which it is half surrounded, ninety-eight miles from London. It is a very ancient place, was once the see of a bishop, and is said to have had thirty-two parish-churches, which are now reduced to five, with several meeting-houses. At present it is the largest and most populous town in the county. In the High-street is an exquisite piece of workmanship in the form of our Saviour's cross, and the hospital built by Henry Plantagenet, duke of Lancaster, still continues in a tolerable condition, it being supported by some revenues from the duchy of Lancaster, and can decently maintain one hundred aged people; but the most stately edifice of this kind at present is the New Bede-house, or hospital, built in the reign of Henry VIII. and endowed by Sir William Wigiston, a merchant of the staple in this town, for twelve poor lazers, which has a chapel and library for the use of the ministers and scholars belonging to the town; there is another for six widows, and a charity-school for thirty boys and ten girls. Leicester has a very spacious market-place, and the streets are paved; but have many old buildings. It is governed by a mayor, &c. and the freemen of Leicester have by their charter the privilege of being exempted from paying toll in all the fairs and markets in England.

Before the castle was dismantled it was a vast building, in which the great Henry, duke of Lancaster, kept his court; the hall and kitchen still remain entire, the former of which is so lofty and spacious, that the courts of justice, which are held here at the assizes, are at such a distance as not to incommode one another. The principal business of the town is stocking-weaving.

Many curious relics have been found in this town, particularly Roman coins; and in the bottom of a cellar was discovered a piece of Mosaic pavement representing the story of Aëdon torn to pieces by his own hounds. This is an admirable piece of workmanship, the stones being only white and brown, and very small. This piece of antiquity is still preserved.

The first law for burning hereticks, by which lord Cobham and others suffered death, was made in a parliament held here, in the reign of king Henry V. declaring the favourers of Wickliff's doctrine heretics and traitors. In the civil wars Leicester was besieged by king Charles I. and taken by storm, on the thirty-first of May, 1645, when his army gave the garrison no quarter, hanged some of the committee, and plundered the inhabitants.

inhabitants. But Sir Thomas Fairfax soon after advancing with the parliament's forces, besieged it again, and obliged the new garrison to surrender upon terms.

Loughborough, is pleasantly seated among fertile meadows, near the forest of Charwood, one hundred and seven miles from London. It stands on the river Soar, over which it has a bridge, and is a handsome town, with one spacious church.

Ashby de la Zouche, is a very considerable market-town, which took its name from the Zouches, its lords; it is seated between Preston-park, and the great park on the skirts of Derbyshire, about a hundred miles from London. It has a large handsome church, near which stand the ruins of the earl of Huntingdon's castle, destroyed in 1648. There is a free-school here, endowed by the earl of Huntingdon, to whom the manor belongs. The town is noted for its large manufacture of hats, in which some hundreds are employed.

S E C T. XXXV.

Of Rutlandshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives in Parliament, Air, Soil, and principal Towns.

RUTLANDSHIRE, the least of all the counties in England, is almost of a circular form, and is bounded on the north and north-east by Lincolnshire; on the south and south-east by Northamptonshire; and on the south-west and north-west by Leicestershire; extending from north to south about fifteen miles, from east to west ten, and about forty in circumference. This county is divided into five hundreds, in which are ten vicarages, forty-eight parishes, one hundred and eleven villages, about three thousand two hundred and sixty houses, and sixteen thousand three hundred inhabitants. It lies in the diocese of Peterborough, and sends only two members to parliament, which are the two knights for the shire.

The air is sweet and salubrious, it being quite clear from fogs and mists. Rutlandshire is extremely well watered, for, besides the Welland, which washes the south and south-east borders, and the Guash or Wash, which intersects the county from east to west, quite through the middle of it; there are abundance of small rivers and brooks, which fall into them on all sides. They all afford plenty of excellent fish, which makes some amends for the want of sea-fish, from which the inhabitants are in a great measure debarred, by their inland situation.

The soil is very fruitful, in corn and pasture, which feeds great numbers of cattle, especially sheep, the wool of which is redder than in other counties, from the peculiar redness of the soil. The vale of Catmos, in which Okeham stands, is not inferior in point of fertility to the vales of White-horse and Belvoir. This county gives title of duke to the noble family of Manners. The principal towns it contains, are Okeham, and Uppingham.

Okeham, the county town, stands in the rich valley of Catmos, ninety-four miles from London. It is pretty well built, has a good church, a free-school, and an hospital. It has likewise an ancient castle, in which the assizes are held. It is said to be a custom in this town, that when a nobleman comes within its precincts, he is obliged to pay homage, by giving a shoe from one of his horses, or to compound for it in money; when the forfeited shoe, or that made in its stead, is fixed with the nobleman's name on the castle-gate. Sometimes they are made very large, and gilt in proportion to the sum of money given instead of the shoe. The castle was built soon after the conquest, by Walkelin de Ferrariis, who bearing horse-shoes in his arms, gave rise to the above custom.

Uppingham, a town of Rutlandshire, is seated on an eminence, and is a pretty compact well built place, with a very good free-school, and an hospital.

Though this county is very small, it contains a considerable number of noblemen's seats.

S E C T. XXXVI.

Of Lincolnshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives in Parliament, Air, Soil, Produce, and principal Towns.

LINCOLNSHIRE, takes its name from the city of Lincoln, which by the ancient Britons was called Lindcoit, and by the Saxons Lincollscire; it is bounded on the north by Yorkshire, from which it is divided by the Humber, on the east by the German ocean, and a small part of Norfolk, on the south by Cambridgeshire and Northamptonshire; and on the west is bounded by Rutlandshire, Leicestershire, Nottinghamshire, and a small part of Yorkshire.

It is generally reckoned almost sixty miles from north to south, and in the middle, where widest, thirty-five; but according to Templeman, it is sixty-seven miles in length, and forty-three in breadth. It is generally divided into three parts, namely, Holland on the south-east side, Kesteven on the south-west, and Lindsey on the north; which last division is the largest, for it includes all that lies north of Lincoln city, and the Fosse-dyke, which king Henry I. cut between the Witham and the Trent. This county is sub-divided into three hundreds, and twenty-five wapentakes, and contains one city, five parliamentary boroughs, thirty-four other market-towns, two hundred and fifty-six vicarages, one thousand five hundred and fifty-six villages, near forty thousand six hundred houses, and about two hundred two thousand nine hundred inhabitants. It is in the diocese of Lincoln, and sends twelve members to parliament, two for the county, and two for each of the following places, Lincoln, Stamford, Grantham, Boston, and Grimsby.

This county is well watered with rivers, the principal of which are the Trent, which washes the western edge of the county, and falls into the Humber, the northern boundary. The Witham, which rising in the south-west of the county, runs northward, till it receives the Fosse-dyke at Lincoln, where it turns to the south-east, and at length falls into the German ocean below Boston; and the Welland, which parts this county from Northamptonshire, running through Holland division also into the German ocean.

With respect to the air of this county, it must be observed, according to its three grand divisions, that of Holland, as it is partly under water, and the rest of it moist and fenny, must be bad. Kesteven is more salubrious, it being less affected with the fogs from the fen country, and its soil more fruitful. Lindsey is generally esteemed healthy, especially on the western side. The soil is in most places very rich, the inland part producing corn in great plenty, and the fens cole-seed, and very rich pastures; whence their breed of cattle is larger than that of any other county in England, except Somersetshire; their horses are also excellent and very large: The hunting hounds and hares are particularly noted for their extreme swiftness. Here are all the common fruits, and they are said to have better pippins than those of Kent, especially such as grow in the division of Holland, and about Kirton, both of which sorts are very wholesome and delicious; yet, being grafted on their own stock, are much improved, and are then called rennets.

The churches of this county are said to be its chief ornaments, it being commonly observed, that no county has better churches and worse houses. The poorer sort of people here wash their cloaths with hog's-dung, and burn dry cow-dung.

The principal places in Lincolnshire are the following.

Lincoln, a city seated one hundred and twenty-eight miles from London, was anciently a Roman colony, called Lindum Colonia. It is pleasantly seated on the top, side, and foot of a hill, on the river Witham, which divides into several streams, and waters the lower part of the city, over which are several bridges. It had formerly fifty churches, which are now reduced to fourteen, besides the cathedral or minster, and meeting houses of every denomination of dissenters. The cathedral is one of the most superb structures of the kind in England, and from its situation on the top of a hill, may be seen from

from five or six counties. It has a double cross or transept, with two spires or towers, and many bells, particularly in the north tower, which has the finest great bell in England, called Tom of Lincoln: it weighs four tons eighteen hundred and ninety-four pounds, and is twenty-two feet eight inches in circumference. The middle or Round-tower is the highest in the kingdom, and when the spire was standing it must, in proportion to the height of the tower, have exceeded that of Old St. Paul's, which was five hundred and twenty feet. The monks were so proud of this structure, that they would have it the devil looked upon it with an envious eye, whence the proverb "He looks as the devil does over Lincoln." Now there are only four very ordinary pinacles, one at each corner. It has two large gates on the west: the cloisters and library are fine, and the latter well furnished with printed books and manuscripts. Two catharine-wheel windows at the ends of the larger transept are remarkably beautiful, and adorned with painted glass.

To the south of the cathedral, upon the very brow of the hill, is the bishop's palace. Though this is the largest diocese in England, the revenue of the bishopric is said now to amount only to fifteen hundred pounds per annum; but was formerly immensely great. In this diocese are contained the counties of Lincoln, Leicester, Huntingdon, Bedford, Bucks, and part of Hertfordshire; and in them twelve hundred and fifty-five parishes, of which five hundred and seventy-seven are impropriations.

In the upper town are good buildings, and several gentlemen have their houses there, besides those of the prebendaries and other clergy. The communication between the upper and lower town is very troublesome; but in the steepest part is the briskest trade, and here the shops are well furnished with commodities; but the buildings are generally old, especially in the lower part. This is a city and county of itself: it is governed by a mayor, twelve aldermen, two sheriffs, &c. whose jurisdiction extends twenty miles in circumference. It has given the title of earl to the noble family of Clinton ever since the reign of queen Elizabeth. Here are four charity-schools, in each of which thirty poor children are taught by clergymen's widows.

Stamford is seated on the Welland, eighty-three miles from London, and is a large and populous borough in the sub-division of Kesteven. It stands on the slope of a hill, and has a stone bridge of five arches over the river, on the confines of Northamptonshire and the county of Rutland. The river is navigable by barges up to the town. Here is a handsome town-hall and six parish-churches, with several good streets and fine structures. It is an ancient town, it being known in the time of the Romans, and had long ago a college whose students removed to Brazen-Nose-college, in Oxford; but though its trade is not very considerable, the inhabitants are numerous and rich; and it being seated upon the York road, is particularly famous for its large and commodious inns. Among the privileges of which the inhabitants boast, is, that the mayor is immediately under the king, and commands the militia, returns writs, &c. and that they have the custom of Borough English, by which the younger sons inherit upon their fathers dying intestate. In this town is a charity-school, in which eighty poor children are taught and employed.

Boston, a large, populous, and well built sea-port town, in the sub-division called Holland, twenty-six miles south-east of Lincoln, and ninety north of London, is built on both sides of the river Witham, at its mouth, and stands part in Lincolnshire and part in Northamptonshire, which are joined by a wooden bridge. It has a commodious harbour on the German ocean, is full of merchants, and enjoys a good trade. The town is supplied with water by pipes from a reservoir made by act of parliament, in a common called the West Fen. The church is without cross ailes, and is said to be the largest parish church in the world; and its tower, which is two hundred and eighty feet from the ground, serves as a land-mark to mariners, not only into this port, but even into the mouth of the Ouse, being seen out at sea to the entrance of the channels, called Lynn-deeps and Boston-deeps, very difficult places. The

living is a vicarage, in the gift of the mayor and burgesses.

Grantham, a neat populous borough of the sub-division called Kesteven, is a place of great resort, and has abundance of good inns, it lying on the north road, a hundred and four miles from London. It has a fine large church, with a stone spire two hundred and eighty feet high, which, by a mere deception of the sight, seems to stand awry. It has also a good free-school, built and endowed by Dr. Richard Fox, bishop of Winchester, who was a native of this town; and here the celebrated Sir Isaac Newton received his first education. In this town there are also two charity-schools, and upon the neighbouring course are frequently horse-races. It gives title of baron to the noble family of Robinson.

Gainsborough, a large and well built town of Lindsey sub-division, is seated on the Trent, a hundred and thirty-seven miles from London; it has a fine large market held weekly on Tuesdays, and gives title of earl to the noble family of Noel. Its church was rebuilt by act of parliament in 1735; and here are several meeting-houses of Dissenters. The Danes landed here when they came up the Trent, which brings up ships of burthen with the tide, though it is forty miles distance by water from the Humber.

S E C T. XXXVII.

Of the County of Norfolk; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives in Parliament, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Places.

THIS county received its name from its northern situation with respect to Suffolk; it is bounded on the north and east sides by the German ocean, on the west by Cambridgeshire and Lincolnshire, and on the south by Suffolk. It extends about fifty miles from east to west, thirty-five from north to south, and about a hundred and forty-five in circumference.

It is divided into thirty-one hundreds, and contains a hundred and sixty-four vicarages, thirty-three market-towns, six hundred and sixty parishes, near fifteen hundred villages, about forty-seven thousand one hundred and eighty houses, and two hundred and eighty-three thousand inhabitants. This county is in the diocese of Norwich, and sends twelve members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for each of the following boroughs, Norwich, Lynn-Regis, Yarmouth, Thetford, and Castle-Rising.

The air of this county is sharp and piercing, which throws the seasons backward than is usual in the same latitude in England. The inland country is thought very healthy; but the soil is observed to have a greater variety in it than is found perhaps in any other county, and from thence has been considered as an epitome of England, it having all the kinds of soil found throughout the kingdom, namely, arable, pasture, wood-lands, meadows, heaths, fens, light sandy ground, and deep clay; but even the worst of these are far from being unprofitable, the sandy heaths feeding sheep and breeding rabbits, and the fens affording rich pasture for cattle. The chief commodities are corn, cattle, wool, rabbits, honey, saffron, herrings in great abundance, with jet and amber thrown upon the sea-coast. The manufactures are worsted, woollens, and silks, in which all the inland part is employed. This county gives title of duke to the noble family of Howard.

The principal rivers of Norfolk are the Ouse, which divides it on the west from Suffolk and Cambridgeshire. The Waveney, which is the boundary between Norfolk on the south-east and Suffolk. The two different courses of these rivers are the more remarkable, as both rise within a very small distance of each other in the southern edge of the county. The Yare, which is peculiar to Norfolk, rises near the center of the county, and runs eastward through Norwich to Yarmouth, where it falls into the German ocean. A little above this last mentioned town the Yare is joined by the Waveney. These three rivers abound with fish, and are

particularly famous for excellent perch; but the Yare has also a fish, called a ruff, peculiar to itself, that exceeds the perch in the delicacy of its taste: it is much about the same size, and the body is all over rough with sharp prickles, from whence it has its name. The back is of a brownish colour, the belly of a pale yellow, and about the jaws it has double semi-circular marks.

The principal towns in this county are the following:

Norwich, a very ancient, large, handsome, populous, and well frequented city, is seated on the banks of the river Yare, which runs through a part of it, a hundred and nine miles north-east-by-north of London. It is encompassed by walls, which have twelve gates, and has a fine old castle, at present used as a prison, and from whence a person may have a view of the whole city. Here also are the ruins of a castle, called by the name of Kett, who lived in the reign of Edward VI. and did much damage to the city, which is very ancient, and has undergone great calamities. It has several bridges over the river, and has thirty-six churches, besides the cathedral, which is a handsome structure, and has a lofty spire steeple: there are here also meeting-houses of Dissenters of all denominations. As the walls are three miles in compass, the whole space within them is not inhabited, they inclosing many gardens and orchards. There are here, however, about eight thousand houses; the streets are pretty wide, and there is a very spacious market-place. It has also a new play-house, a place of entertainment called Vauxhall, and several other curious gardens to which the gentry resort; with an hospital for a hundred poor men and women.

It has a large and flourishing manufactory of camblets, crapes, &c. for which it has a great trade, both at home and abroad. It is a city and county of itself: the bishop has a palace here, as hath also the duke of Norfolk. It is governed by a mayor, a recorder, twelve aldermen, two sheriffs, and twenty-one common-council.

It has been observed of this city, that if a stranger was only to ride through it, or view it on ordinary days, he would be induced to think it a town without inhabitants; but, on the contrary, if he was to view this city either on a Sunday, or on any public occasion, he would wonder where the people could dwell, the multitude is so great: but the case is this, the inhabitants being all busy at the manufactures, are in their combing-shops, as they call them, at their twisting-mills, in their garrets at their looms, and the like; almost all the works they are employed in being done within doors.

Yarmouth, a sea-port town, a hundred and twenty-two miles to the north-east of London, is seated on the river Yare, where it falls into the sea, and is a place of great strength, both by art and nature, it being almost surrounded with water, and defended by a very strong fort. It is an ancient town much older than Norwich, and is well built and very populous. It has the finest quay in England, if not in Europe, and is said to equal at least that of Marseilles; for the ships ride here so close, that for half a mile together they go across the stream with their bowsprits over the land, their bows or heads touching the very wharf; so that one may walk from ship to ship as on a floating bridge all along by the shore side. The quay, which reaches from the draw-bridge almost to the south gate, is so spacious and wide, that in some places it is near a hundred yards from the houses to the wharf. In this pleasant and agreeable range of buildings are some very magnificent structures, and among the rest the custom-house, the town-hall, and some merchants houses which resemble little palaces rather than the dwelling-houses of private men.

The greatest defect of this town seems to be, that tho' it is very rich and increasing in wealth and trade, and consequently in people, there is not room to enlarge it by new buildings. It consists of about fifteen hundred houses, and though there are several pretty wide streets, they are chiefly very narrow, and just wide enough for their little carriages to pass through. It is esteemed the key of this coast; but though the harbour is a very fine one, it is very dangerous for strangers in windy weather. Yarmouth is governed by a mayor, eighteen aldermen,

and thirty-six common-council. This town, though so considerable, has only one large church, which is dedicated to St. Nicholas, and a neat chapel, with a considerable number of meeting-houses. The steeple of St. Nicholas's church is so high, that it serves for a land-mark to those at sea; and it is remarkable, that which way soever this steeple be viewed it appears crooked.

Yarmouth is noted for its red herrings, which are jocosely called Yarmouth capons, and also for its coaches, which are nothing more than sledges drawn with one horse. During the fishing season the land is covered with people, and the river with barks and boats, busy day and night in landing and carrying off the herrings, which are caught here in almost incredible quantities. Our author says, he happened to be there during their fishing fair, as they call it, when he counted in one tide a hundred and ten barks and fishing vessels coming up the river, all laden with herrings taken the night before. After the herrings are cured, they export them to Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, Messina, Venice, Spain, and Portugal; and at the same time carry to those places great quantities of woollen goods. They have also a considerable trade in woollen manufactures to Holland, Norway, and the Baltic, from whence they import timber and naval stores; and have a very great share in the coal-trade between Newcastle and the port of London.

Lynn-Regis, or King's-Lynn, was first called Lynn-Episcopi, as being the property of the bishop of Norwich, till the dissolution of monasteries by king Henry VIII. when that prince becoming its possessor, conferred on it the title of Lynn-Regis. It is a handsome, large, and well built town, ninety-eight miles north-east of London, in the fifty-second degree fifty-five minutes north latitude, and in thirty-two minutes east longitude. It is seated at the mouth of the Ouse, which, by means of the several streams it receives before it falls into the sea, forms a navigation, by which the merchants of Lynn entirely supply Cambridgeshire, Huntingdonshire, the north part of Buckinghamshire, Bedfordshire, and Northamptonshire, with the inland parts of Norfolk and Suffolk; more particularly with coals and wine: and they carry on a considerable foreign trade, especially to Holland, Norway, the Baltic, Spain, and Portugal. The harbour is safe when ships have once entered it; but there are flats and shoals at the entrance, at which buoys are placed; and there are always good pilots ready for steering strangers in.

The town contains about two thousand four hundred houses; and is strong by sea, as it was also formerly by land, where there are the ruins of the works in part demolished in the civil wars, yet not so much but they may be easily repaired; these consist of nine regular bastions, and a ditch nearly in the form of a semi-circle, which make the place about half a mile in breadth; and St. Anne's fort and platform at the north-east end commands all ships that enter the harbour.

It has a spacious and fine market-place, in which is a handsome statue of king James II. with a fine cross, which has a dome, and a gallery round it, supported by sixteen columns; and the market-house is a modern free-stone building seventy feet high, neatly adorned with statues and other embellishments. Four rivulets, over which are fifteen bridges, run through the town; and the tide in the Ouse, which for a mile here is about as broad as the Thames at London bridge, rises twenty feet perpendicular. The town is supplied with fresh water by conduits and pipes from the neighbourhood.

The king's staith-yard is a very handsome square, adorned with a statue of king James II. here the greatest part of the wines imported are landed. The town-house, called Trinity-hall, is an ancient and noble building. The exchange in the middle of the town is an elegant structure of free-stone, adorned with two orders of columns, and within it is the custom-house.

It has two churches, a very large chapel, and two dissenting meeting-houses. St. Margaret's church, which is very large, formerly belonged to an abbey, and has a high lantern, covered with lead: at the west end is a stone tower, with a moon-dial, shewing the increase and decrease

decrease of that planet; and above the tower is a spire, in which is a ring of bells. St. Nicholas's chapel is very ancient, and has a tower and octangular spire.

In this chapel is a library, to which lord Townsend, the late earl of Orford, Sir Charles Turner, &c. were considerable benefactors.

The town is governed by a mayor, a recorder, a high steward, twelve aldermen, and eighteen common-council; and there is here a very laudable custom, which is, that every first Monday of the month, the mayor, aldermen, preachers, &c. meet to hear and determine all disputes in an amicable manner, in order to prevent law-suits. There are here also a free-school, which is a strong and beautiful building, two hospitals, and a charity-school.

SECT. XXXVIII.

Of Nottinghamshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal towns.

NOTTINGHAMSHIRE takes its name from Nottingham, the county town, called by the Saxons Snottengaham, or a house of Dens, so called from the spacious vaults dug in the rocks, in which the ancient Britons perhaps resided. This county is remarkable for its being bounded on the four cardinal points of the compass, by four single counties, a circumstance which is not found in the situation of any other county in England: on the north it borders upon Yorkshire, on the east on Lincolnshire, on the south on Leicestershire, and on the west on Derbyshire. It extends forty-seven miles in length, and twenty-seven in breadth.

This county, which lies in the diocese of York, is divided into six wapentakes, and contains nine market-towns, one hundred and sixty-eight parishes, ninety-four vicarages, four hundred and fifty villages, about seventeen thousand four hundred and sixty houses, and ninety-five thousand inhabitants. It sends eight members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for each of the following boroughs, Nottingham, East-Retford, and Newark upon Trent.

The air of this county is esteemed exceeding healthful, but the soil is various: the eastern side is very fruitful, and yields great plenty of corn and grass; but the western parts are less fertile, being generally very woody, and in some places barren, and only yielding coal. The chief commodities are pit-coal, a kind of stone somewhat like alabaster, but not so hard, which when burnt, makes a plaister harder than that of Paris, with which the inhabitants generally plaister the floors of their upper rooms, instead of boarding them. Their other commodities are malt, wool, liquorice, wood, fish, and fowl. Their manufactures chiefly consist of frame-work knitting, glass, and earthen-ware.

The principal rivers of this county are, the Trent and the Idle. The Trent is one of the capital rivers in England, it running a course of near two hundred miles before it reaches the Humber. Its spring-head is in the highlands of Staffordshire, as hath been already observed, in treating of that county, and from thence it runs through Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, and Lincolnshire. The name is derived by some from the thirty smaller rivers it receives, and by others from thirty different kinds of fish found in it. It enters this county at the south-west point, where it is joined by the Erwash, and runs to the eastward till it reaches Newark, where it forms an island, and turning to the northward, runs into Lincolnshire. The Idle rises in Sherwood forest, and running through the northern parts of the county to the edge of Yorkshire and Lincolnshire, there joins the Trent. The principal towns in this county are the following:

Nottingham, which is delightfully seated on a rock, one hundred and twenty-two miles north west of London, at the foot of which runs the river Leane, which, at a mile's distance, falls into the Trent, over which there is a handsome stone bridge, and another over the Leane. The town is large and well built; most of the

houses in the market-place and principal streets, have their front supported by lofty stone columns, of the Tuscan order, which not only make a very handsome appearance, but afford shelter in bad weather. The streets are well paved, and from their situation on a rock, are always clean. The market-place, which is large and spacious, has a beautiful cross, in which a kind of dome, is supported by very lofty stone columns, under which is kept the corn-market. In a street at some distance from this market, are several stone steps diminishing as they rise, and on the top stands a very noble column crowned with a ball. This is called the Hen-cross, and here is a market for all sorts of poultry.

It is proper to observe, once for all, that, though what are called market-crosses, take their name from crucifixes being antiently erected in those places, no modern structure of this kind, ever bears any mark of popish superstition.

The rock on which the town stands, is pretty soft, and renders the town remarkable for its cellars, two or three being sometimes under each other, with the steps hewn out of the rock, in some places to the number of sixty or seventy in depth. These conveniencies, together with the goodness of the malt, enable the inhabitants to drink the best malt liquors, and to make a considerable advantage in sending them to most parts of England; for which purpose most of the low lands of this county are sowed with barley. As the meadows, which lie between the town and the Trent, are liable to be overflowed, a good boarded causeway for foot-passengers, extends about a mile long.

The town has three churches; that of St. Mary's is a large and noble gothic structure, with a square tower; and that of St. Peter's is a very handsome building, with a modern painting of the Last Supper, on the altar-piece. It has a lofty spire, and each has a good ring of bells and chimes. St. Nicholas's church is however a mean building. There are also four meeting-houses.

Heavy goods are brought hither from London by sea up the river Trent, and many coal-pits within three or four miles of the town, afford plenty of fuel at a small expence. It is governed by a mayor, a recorder, six aldermen, two sheriffs, two chamberlains, two coroners, and eighteen common-council.

At the south-west end of the town is a steep hill, which has on the south a high precipice fronting the meadows. On this hill stood a castle of such antiquity, that the time of its first erection cannot be traced. It was rebuilt by William Peverel, bastard son to the Conqueror, and afterwards improved by Edward IV. and Richard III. This structure was granted to the earl of Rutland, and afterwards came into the possession of William Cavendish, marquis of Newcastle, who, in 1674, cleared away the old building, and a most magnificent structure was at length erected, which seems to have been modelled after some of the draughts of Inigo Jones. The present duke of Newcastle, in 1760, made a present of this noble edifice to the earl of Lincoln, his grace's nephew. It is built entirely of stone, and has a delightful prospect over the meadows, which extend two or three hundred feet below it, about twelve miles in length, like a level bowling-green, interspersed with villages, and the river Trent winding through it; on the east-end, over the town and the distant country; and on the north, over the park, which is beautifully variegated with hills and valleys.

In this park are the remains of a church or pagan temple, hewn out of the rock, the roof vaulted and supported by a kind of massy pillars, in a very rude taste: the floor, the roof, the pillars, and sides, being all of a piece. In the same ledge of perpendicular rocks, are the remains of several houses, chambers, dove-houses, &c. which might possibly be the residence of some of the ancient Druids.

Newark, is a very handsome well built town, seated on the Trent, seventeen miles to the east of Nottingham, and one hundred and four from London. The market-place is a noble square, and the church is large and spacious, with a handsome lofty spire. The town is under the government of a mayor, and twelve aldermen. Here was once a handsome castle, which is now

in ruins. The Trent here divides itself, and forms an island, to which there is a bridge leading from the town.

Mansfield, a large well built market-town, seated in the forest of Sherwood, thirteen miles to the north of Nottingham, and one hundred and thirty-six to the north-west of London, and carries on a considerable trade in malt.

Retford, is divided into East and West Retford, by the river Idle, which runs through it. This town enjoys many considerable privileges, and is governed by a steward, who is generally a person of quality. In West Retford is a very fine hospital, founded in 1666, by Dr. Dorrel, and since incorporated: it has a master, ten brethren, a steward, and a nurse, who have a garden and orchard divided into ten shares.

S E C T. XXXIX.

Of Derbyshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, and Representatives in Parliament; its Air, Soil, and Rivers; with a Description of the Wonders of the Peak, and the principal Towns of the County.

DERBYSHIRE is bounded on the north by Yorkshire, on the east by Nottinghamshire, on the south by Leicestershire and Warwickshire, and on the west by Staffordshire and Cheshire. It extends near forty miles in length, in the northern parts it is about thirty miles broad, but in the southern not above six; and it is computed to be near one hundred and thirty miles in circumference.

This county is divided into five hundreds, in which are contained eleven market-towns, fifty-three vicarages, one hundred and six parishes, near five hundred villages, twenty-one thousand one hundred and fifty houses, and one hundred twenty-six thousand nine hundred inhabitants. It is seated in the diocese of Litchfield and Coventry, and sends four members to parliament, two for the county, and two for the town of Derby.

The air, especially on the east-side, is wholesome and agreeable; but in the mountains of the Peak it is sharp and cold. The north and west parts are hilly and stony; but the southern and eastern have rich lands, that are pleasant and fertile, producing most kinds of grain, particularly barley. Even the north-west part, called the Peak, is not destitute of riches, for the bleak mountains, produce great quantities of the best lead, marble, alabaster, mill-stones, iron, coal, a coarse sort of crystal, and in the intermediate valleys is great plenty of grass.

The principal rivers are the Derwent, the Dove, the Erwasb, and the Trent. The two first rise in the Peak; the Derwent running from north-west to south-east, through the middle of the county, and at length becoming a considerable river, discharges itself into the Trent, about eight miles below Derby. The Dove parts this county from Staffordshire, and falls into the Trent, about five miles to the north of Burton upon Trent. The Trent, of which we have given a particular account in treating of Nottinghamshire, only visits a small space of the southern parts of this county.

It will now be proper to take notice of what are called the Seven Wonders of the Peak, one of the most extraordinary of which is Poole's-hole, a stupendous cavern, at the foot of a great mountain. The entrance is so low and narrow, that you must stoop to get in; but it soon opens into a wide and lofty concavity, that has some resemblance to a gothic cathedral, which reaches above a quarter of a mile in length. Water drops every where from the roof and sides, and being of a petrifying quality, it crusts all the stones with long crystals, in various forms, which, by the help of a strong imagination, are shewn you as lions, lanterns, organs, a fitch of bacon, &c. At length you come to the queen of Scots pillar, which is the boundary of most people's curiosity, and was so named by that unhappy princess, when she visited this place. It is composed of a clear bright stone, like alabaster, or rather like that kind of spar which is found about lead. A stream of water runs along the middle of this cavern among the fallen rocks, with an hideous noise. On the left hand is a sort of chamber, where

they say Poole, a famous robber, lived, and whose kitchen and bedchamber they shew you, after you have crept ten yards on your hands and knees. What appears most extraordinary is, the surprising height of the arch, which Dr. Leigh compares to fret-work, organ, and choir-work, bespangled with stars, which dazzle the eyes, and looks extremely beautiful from the reflection of the lights.

Another of these wonders is Mam-Tor, which signifies the Mother-Rock. From the top of a prodigious precipice, the soft earth being continually crumbling and falling down, raises a mountain below, which visibly increasing without an apparent diminution of the top, the ignorant people imagine, that, though the earth is continually falling, the mountain loses nothing of its bulk.

Another wonder is called by the gross name of the Devil's Arse. Here, or on the steep side of a mountain, is a large opening, almost in the form of an old Gothic arch, above thirty feet perpendicular, and above twice that breadth at the bottom. Several small cottages are built on each side the entrance, whose inhabitants in a great measure subsist by guiding strangers into the cavern. Its width, however, soon diminishes; for, after crossing one stream of water, the roof gradually descends till it is so low, that a man cannot stand upright under it; but, stooping for a little way, and passing over another stream, you find it more lofty. Then proceeding on, you come to a third rivulet, where the rock descends almost to the surface of the water, and prevents all farther search. The vault in several places makes a noble appearance, and being chequered with various coloured stones, its beauty is admired by every spectator.

Another wonder, is called Tides-Well, or Weeden-Well, a spring, which according to some writers, ebbs and flows regularly like the sea. That it does ebb and flow is certain; but it is at very unequal periods, sometimes not in a day or two, and sometimes twice in an hour. The basin of the spring is about a yard deep, and the same in length and breadth. When it flows the water rises with a bubbling noise, as if the air, which was pent up within the cavities of the rock, was forcing itself a passage, it driving the water before it.

The next wonder, as it is called, is Buxton-Wells, which, besides their medicinal use, have this singularity, that within five feet of one of the hot springs, there arises a cold one; but this is not very extraordinary, since hot and cold springs rise near each other, in several places in England, and in other countries. The water of Buxton-Wells is sulphurous, with a small quantity of saline particles; but is not in the least impregnated with vitriol. Hence they are very palatable, in comparison with other medicinal waters. These wells are often recommended by physicians, both for drinking and bathing, especially for scorbutic, rheumatic, or nervous complaints.

The late duke of Devonshire built a large and convenient house for the reception of strangers. The bath-room is arched over, and the whole made handsome, convenient, and delightful. The bath will receive twenty persons at a time to walk and swim in, and the water is of a warmth equal to that of new-milk. These waters were well known in the time of the Romans. Besides the principal springs, which are at the village of Buxton, there are many others that rise unregarded in the neighbouring inclosures, and on the sides of the hill, so that their number can scarce be known.

We shall now proceed to the next wonder. In the midst of a plain open field is a frightful chasm in the earth, or rather rock, called Elden-hole, the mouth of which is about twenty feet over one way, and fifty or sixty another, descending down perpendicularly to a depth that is said never yet to have been discovered, tho' several attempts have been made to find its bottom. Mr. Cotton says he let down eight hundred fathoms of line, which is sixteen hundred yards, or near a mile perpendicular.

The last wonder is that of Chatsworth-house and gardens, belonging to the duke of Devonshire. On the top of a mountain, where mill-stones are dug, is a vast extended moor, which for fifteen or sixteen miles together

has neither hedge, house, nor tree; but appears like a waste and barren wilderness, over which when strangers travel, it is impossible to find their way without a guide. If contraries illustrate each other, here they are seen in the strongest opposition, for nothing can be more surprising to a traveller who comes from the north, when, after a tedious progress through a dismal desert, on a sudden the guide brings him to a precipice where he looks down from a comfortless and barren waste into the most delightful valley, and beholds a noble palace and one of the finest gardens that can be imagined. Before the west front of the house, which is very fine, runs the river Derwent, which, though not many miles from its source, sometimes appears like a large and rapid river, when after a sudden rain the torrents rush down from the mountains. Over this river is a stately stone bridge, with an ancient tower upon it, and in an island in the river is a tower, in the form of a castle. The front to the garden is a regular piece of architecture. The sashes of the second story are seventeen feet high, of polished looking-glass, each square two feet wide, and the wood-work double gilt. The windows, doors, and rooms are adorned with beautiful marble, and the inside with paintings. The chapel is extremely beautiful, the altar-end and the floor are of marble, the seats and gallery of cedar, and the rest of the wall and ceiling finely painted. The gardens abound with green-houses, summer-houses, walks, wildernesses, and orangeries, intermixed with statues, urns, canals, basins, and a great variety of water-works; among which are many curious fountains, an artificial willow-tree, which drops water from every leaf, and a wonderful cascade, where from a neat house of stone, like a temple, a whole river descends the slope of a hill a quarter of a mile in length, over steps, with a roaring noise, till it is at last lost under ground.

The principal towns in Derbyshire are the following:

Derby is situated on the west banks of the Derwent, over which it has a handsome stone bridge, a hundred and twenty-two miles to the north-west of London. It is a pleasant, agreeable, and well built town, inhabited by a great number of gentlemen. The river is navigable up to the bridge, and just above it, is a beautiful artificial island raised out of the water and formed into a garden. This island stands before the celebrated engine-house for making organzine, or thrown silk; by which invention one hand will twist as much silk as could be done by fifty, and that in a truer and much better manner. This engine contains twenty-six thousand five hundred and eighty-six wheels, and ninety-seven thousand seven hundred and forty-six movements, which work seventy three thousand seven hundred and twenty-six yards of silk thread every time the water-wheel goes round, which is three times in one minute, and three hundred and eighteen millions five hundred and four thousand nine hundred and sixty yards in one day and night. One water-wheel gives motion to all the rest of the wheels and movements, of which any one may be stopt separately. One fire-engine likewise conveys warm air to every part of the machine, and the whole work is governed by one regulator. The town is very populous, and contains five parishes and several meeting-houses.

Derby has a large market-place, a beautiful town-house of free stone, and very handsome streets. The principal church is that of All Saints, which has a beautiful Gothic tower a hundred and seventy-eight feet high, and for the elegance of its ornaments, is not to be equalled by any in this or the adjacent counties. According to an inscription in this church the steeple was erected about queen Mary's reign, at the expence of the bachelors and maidens of the town, on which account whenever a maiden, a native of the town, was married, the bells used formerly to be rung by bachelors. The government of this town is under a mayor, an high-steward, nine aldermen, a recorder, fourteen brothers, fourteen capital burgeses, and a town-clerk. The principal trade of the town consists in malt and ale.

Wirksworth is seated in a valley near the spring-head of the river Eccleborn, and is a pretty large populous place, a hundred and eighteen miles from London, and

has a handsome church, a free-school, and an almshouse. The town is remarkable for having the greatest lead market in England, and for having what is called a barmoot-court, to judge controversies among the miners; and to adjust subterranean quarrels and disputes.

Chesterfield is a handsome populous town, situated on a hill between two small rivers, a hundred and twenty-seven miles to the northward of London. It has a handsome large church, which has a spire of timber covered with lead, but warped all a wry; and also several meeting-houses. It is governed by a mayor. Its market is considerable for corn, lead, and country commodities. The houses are for the most part built of rough stone, and covered with slate. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade to and with all the neighbouring counties in lead, grocery, the malting of barley, tanning, stockings, blankets, bedding, &c. Chesterfield has a large free-school, reckoned the most considerable of any in the north of England, and likewise several almshouses. This town gives title of earl to the noble family of Stanhope.

S E C T. XL.

Of Yorkshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives in Parliament, Air, Soil, and Rivers; with a Description of the principal Towns.

YORKSHIRE, which in extent is equal to some sovereignty, and is bigger than any two of the largest counties in England, is bounded on the north by Westmoreland and the bishopric of Durham; on the east by the German ocean; on the south by Lancashire, Nottinghamshire, and Derbyshire; and on the west by a small part of Cheshire, Lancashire, and Westmoreland. It extends ninety miles in length from east to west, seventy-five in breadth from north to south, and above three hundred and sixty in circumference. This county is divided into three ridings, called the North, East, and West; besides which there is a fourth division, called Richmondshire; and is sub-divided into twenty-three wapentakes, which contain fifty-seven market-towns, two hundred and forty-two vicarages, five hundred and sixty-three parishes, two thousand three hundred and thirty villages, about a hundred and six thousand one hundred and fifty houses, and six hundred and thirty-six thousand nine hundred inhabitants. It lies in the diocese of York, except Richmondshire, in the North Riding, which belongs to the diocese of Chester, and sends thirty members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for each of the following boroughs, York, Kingston upon Hull, Knaresborough, Scarborough, Rippon, Richmond, Heydon, Boroughbridge, Malton, Thirsk, Aldborough, Beverley, Northallerton, and Pontefract.

The air and soil of this extensive country vary extremely; the East Riding, on account of its neighbourhood to the German ocean, is less healthy than the other Ridings; but this inconvenience decreases in proportion as the country recedes from the sea. However, where the air is most indifferent, the soil is most fruitful; for on the hilly parts of this Riding, especially in what is called the York Wolds, the soil is generally barren, dry, and sandy. Great numbers of lean sheep are therefore sold from hence, and sent into other counties to be fattened for the market.

The West Riding enjoys a sharp but healthy air, and the soil on the western side is hilly, stony, and not very fruitful; but the intermediate valleys afford plenty of good meadow ground, and also pasture for the largest cattle. On the side next the river Ouse, the soil is rich, producing wheat and barley; and in its worst parts the best oats. Its commodities, besides what have been mentioned, are iron, pit-coal, jet, allum, horses, and goats.

The North Riding in general exceeds the other two in the salubrity and coldness of the air. The worst parts breed lean cattle; but on the sides of the hills, in the valleys, and plains, it produces good corn, and rich pastures for large cattle; nor is it wanting in subterraneous riches,

riches, as marble, pit-coal, copperas, alum, and between the clefts of the rocks on the sea-coast is found the best sort of jet.

The principal rivers are the Ouse, and those which fall into it, as the Dun, or Don, the Calder, the Aire, the Wharfe, and the Swale, which joining their streams form the Humber, which falls into the German ocean, between Yorkshire and Lincolnshire. The Ouse rises in the west-north-west side of the county, and chiefly running to the south-east, at length falls into the Humber. The Dun rises in the hills near the south-west end of Yorkshire, and running to the southward till it has reached Sheffield, turns to the north-east, and having received the Aire, falls into the Ouse. The Calder, has its source in the edge of Lancashire, and entering the south-west side of this county, runs eastward, and joins the river Aire. The Aire has its spring at the foot of a high hill, called Pennigent, and running slow, chiefly to the eastward, discharges itself into the Dun. The Wharfe, or Wherefe, rises among the hills in the west of Yorkshire, and runs with a swift and impetuous current, mostly to the south-east, till it falls into the Ouse. The Swale rises among the north-west hills of Yorkshire, and running chiefly from the north-west to the south-east, joins the Ure, about four miles below Boroughbridge. Besides these, the Tees rises in the bishopric of Durham, and becoming the boundary between these two counties, runs eastward till it falls into the German ocean. The Darwent, which divides the north and east ridings, rises in the north-east of Yorkshire, near the sea coast, and first runs to the south, but soon winding to the south-west, falls into the Ouse. The Hull has its source in the Wolds, from whence it runs mostly to the southward, passing near Beverley, and falls into the Humber. Into these principal rivers a great number of rivulets discharge themselves, and they afford great plenty of fish, particularly salmon, trout, and craw-fish.

We shall now describe the principal places in this extensive county.

York, is seated on the river Ouse, one hundred and ninety-eight miles to the north of London, and is generally esteemed the second city in England, though Bristol now claims that honour, on account of its extensive trade. It is very ancient, and has undergone various revolutions; but is still adorned with many fine buildings, both public and private; it being very populous, and inhabited by gentlemen and wealthy tradesmen. It is surrounded with a good wall, through which are four gates and five posterns, and has a castle, built by William the Conqueror, which was formerly a place of great strength, but is now a prison, in which debtors and felons are confined, in a manner more agreeable to the dictates of religion and humanity, than perhaps in any other prison in the kingdom.

The bridge over the Ouse consists of five arches, of which that in the center is fifty-one feet in height, and eighty-one in diameter.

There are now in this city but seventeen churches in use, with some meeting-houses; though, in the reign of king Henry V. there were forty-one parishes, besides seventeen chapels, and nine abbeys. The cathedral, or minster, is a noble Gothic structure, in which the rules of proportion are better observed than is usually found in other churches of that kind of architecture. The west-end measures a hundred and twenty-four feet in breadth: it is adorned with two regular towers, which diminish by degrees, and have a good effect. Between them is the principal entrance, over which is a magnificent window that cannot be equalled, except by that in the east front, which can never be sufficiently admired. The great arch, under which is the entrance into the church, is said to be the largest of the kind in Europe. The most remarkable deficiency in the building is in the lantern-steeple, which terminates very indifferently: it is however finely ornamented, and has eight stately windows, measuring forty feet from top to bottom. The nave of the church exceeds that of St. Paul's at London, several feet both in height and breadth, but is not quite so high as that of Westminster abbey, though it exceeds it by

upwards of sixteen feet in breadth. The stone screens at each end of the choir are beautifully wrought: the first separates the choir from the middle of the church, the other terminates it behind the altar, which by a gradual ascent of sixteen steps is raised to a graceful height above the level of the body of the church. From the middle of the church is seen the noble window at the east-end, which is upwards of thirty feet in breadth, and seventy-five in height. The masonry of the upper part is beautifully executed, below which, in one hundred and seventeen partitions, is expressed the history of the Bible, on painted glass. The south end of the cathedral is beautified with a circular window, called from the colour of the stained glass, the Marygold-window. The north end is taken up with five lights, which reaching almost from the top to the bottom, may be considered as one stately window, representing a rich embroidery of mosaic needle work. The chapter-house is an octagon Gothic building, sixty-three feet in diameter, with windows of painted glass on each side; the roof, which is sixty-eight feet high, is supported without any pillar, and over the building is a timber spire, covered with lead.

With respect to the modern buildings of this city, the assembly-house is a noble structure, designed by the earl of Burlington, consisting of a stately Egyptian hall, one hundred and twenty-three feet in length, and about forty in breadth and height, and also a common ball-room, sixty-six feet long, with about two thirds of that dimension in height and breadth; with other smaller rooms for cards and tea. The corporation have lately built a mansion-house for the lord-mayor, for so he is stiled here as well as in London: The corporation also consists of twelve aldermen, a recorder, two sheriffs, twenty-four prime common-council-men, eight chamberlains, seventy-two other common-council, &c. The city is a county of itself, whose jurisdiction extends over thirty-six villages and hamlets. This city gives title of duke to his majesty's eldest brother, Edward Augustus.

Hull, or Kingston upon Hull, stands on the west-side of the river Hull, where it discharges itself into the Humber, one hundred and seventy miles north of London. It is very populous; but as its situation will not admit of any additional buildings, the streets are very close, and much crowded. One of the streets resembles Thames-street in London, where pitch, tar, cordage, and sails are to be sold, and where ships come to load and unload their merchandize. The town is very well fortified, and is one of the principal places in England for trade; for here centers the cloth trade from Leeds, Wakefield, and Hallifax; the lead from Derbyshire, butter from most parts of Yorkshire, cheese from Cheshire, Warwickshire, and Staffordshire, and corn from many counties. In return for these, are imported all kinds of goods, not only from other parts of England, but from foreign countries, where the merchants of Hull have great credit. The town contains two parish churches, and several meeting-houses of the dissenters. Among the other public buildings are the Trinity-house, for the relief of seamen, their wives or widows; an exchange for transacting of business among the merchants, and a town-hall. The bridge over the river Hull is of stone, it consists of fourteen arches, and makes a noble appearance. The town, with some contiguous lands, forms a county of itself, governed by a mayor, sheriff, twelve aldermen, &c. They have a sword of state, a cap of maintenance, as marks of their power on land, and an oar of lignum vitæ, to denote their jurisdiction of admiralty, which they enjoy upon the river Humber.

Leeds is seated in the West-Riding of Yorkshire, one hundred and eighty-two miles from London, and stands on the banks of the river Aire, over which it has a handsome stone bridge, which was formerly capacious enough for holding on it the cloth-market; but the trade being much increased, the cloth is now sold in the High-street, beginning at the Bridge-foot. The method in which this branch of trade is transacted, is so extraordinary, as to deserve particular notice. Early on Tuesdays and Saturdays, a great number of tressels are ranged, and covered with boards in the street, at six in
summer,

summer, and seven in winter: The market-bell gives the signal to the clothiers in the several inns, to bring out their cloth, which is done with such expedition, and so little disturbance, that strangers are amazed, to see in a few minutes all the counters covered with pieces of cloth, and the owner standing behind within the treffels. When the bell ceases ringing, the chapmen enter the market, and suit their patterns; the price is asked and bid in a very low voice, and a very few words determine a bargain. Thus, twenty thousand pounds worth of cloth is often sold in about an hour's time. At half an hour after eight the bell rings again, upon which the buyers, sellers, cloth and treffels all disappear, and by nine the market is left clear to the linen-draper, hardware-men, shoemakers, &c. Here is also a great demand for white cloths, which are sold in a magnificent hall. The Guild-hall is also a noble building, adorned with a fine statue of queen Anne. Here are three churches, only one of which is parochial; this is St. Peter's, which has the ceiling finely painted in fresco, by Parmantier: the subject is, giving the law to Moses. The town is governed by a mayor, twelve aldermen, and twenty four assistants. The great trade of Leeds occasioned the river Aire to be made navigable, by which means a communication is opened by water with Wakefield, York, and Hull, to which places, besides its woollen manufactures and other goods exported to Holland, Hamburg, &c. Leeds has the advantage of furnishing York with coals. This town gives title of duke to the noble family of Osborne.

Hallifax, a very considerable town in the West-Riding of Yorkshire, one hundred and ninety-nine miles from London. This is an instance of the immense advantage of our woollen manufactures, it being formerly an inconsiderable village, and has still but one parish; but it is near twelve miles in diameter, and has more parishioners than any other parish in England; for it contains twelve chapels of ease, a number of meeting-houses, and upwards of twelve thousand inhabitants. The houses are built of stone, and formed into good streets. When a person leaves the town, the rest of the parish resembles a continued village, every house having its tenter-ground, with a piece of cloth, shalloon, or kersey, upon it. The women card, spin, and wind: the men weave, and work at dressing or dying the cloth, and throughout the whole parish, there appears such chearful industry, and the good effects of it are so visible, that it affords a very sensible pleasure to all who have any benevolence for mankind in general, or concern for their country in particular. It has been computed, that in the articles of shalloons alone, not less than one hundred thousand pieces are annually made in this one parish only. This town gives title of earl to the family of Montague Dunk.

Scarborough, a town in the North-Riding of Yorkshire, two hundred and four miles to the north of London. Its situation is perfectly romantic, it being built on the top of a steep rock, bending in the form of a crescent to the main ocean, of which you have almost an unbounded prospect from all parts. The summit of this mountain contains no less than eighteen or twenty acres of meadow ground, and on the upper part stood a castle. The town which is populous, is almost encompassed by the sea, and walled where it does not join to the castle, or is not more strongly defended by the sea; and it has one of the best harbours in the kingdom. This town is justly celebrated for its spaw waters, on which account it is much resorted to by the nobility and gentry, who have occasioned many new buildings to be erected. There are now good accommodations for great numbers, even of the highest quality, and there are here assemblies and public balls, in rooms built for that purpose. The spring was under the cliff, part of which fell down in December 1737, and the water was lost; but in clearing away the ruins to rebuild the wharff, it was, to the great joy of the town, recovered. The inhabitants catch prodigious quantities of fish of all sorts, and have some foreign trade. This town gives the title of earl to the noble family of Saunderson.

S E C T. XLI.

Of the Bishopric of Durham; its Name, the Manner in which it became a County Palatine, its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives, Air, Soil, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THE bishopric of Durham received its name from its chief town, called by the Saxons Deorham, or Dunholm, to express its situation on a hill surrounded by a river. On the conversion of the kingdom of the Northumbrians, of which this was a part, this county was bestowed on St. Cuthbert, bishop of Lindisfarn, and his successors for ever. This grant was ratified both by the Danes and Normans, with the addition of several privileges, particularly that of being a county palatine, enjoying the same prerogatives within, as the king did without its bounds, with respect to forfeitures, &c. Thus it was a kind of royalty subordinate to the crown.

It is bounded on the north by the river Tyne, which parts it from Northumberland; on the east by the German ocean; on the south by the Tees, which divides it from Yorkshire; and on the west by Westmoreland and Cumberland. It extends thirty-five miles in length, and thirty-four in breadth. It is in the diocese of its own name, and contains nine market-towns, fifty-nine vicarages, one hundred and thirteen parishes, near two hundred and thirty villages, about fifteen thousand nine hundred and eighty houses, and ninety-six thousand nine hundred inhabitants; but sends only four members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for the city of Durham.

The air of this county is wholesome, and though very sharp in the western parts, is milder towards the sea, whose warm vapours mitigate the severity of the winter seasons. The soil is very different, the western side being mountainous and barren, while the eastern and southern parts nearly resemble the south of England, and consist of beautiful meadows, rich pastures, woods, and corn-fields. The inhabitants have their industry rewarded by the immense quantities of coals, lead, and iron, found in the bowels of the earth.

The principal rivers are the Weare, which rises in the western part, and after several turnings falls into the sea at Sunderland. The Tees, which rises within three miles of the head of the Weare, and forms the boundary between this county and Yorkshire. The Tyne, of which we shall give a description in treating of Northumberland.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Durham is pleasantly and commodiously situated on an easy ascent, and almost surrounded by the river Weare, over which are two large stone bridges, two hundred and sixty-two miles from London. It is encompassed by a wall, and has a castle, seated on the highest part of the hill, now used for the bishop's palace. It contains six parish-churches, besides the cathedral, and is governed by a mayor, twelve aldermen, twelve common-councilmen, a recorder, a town-clerk, &c. Its pleasant and healthful situation makes it much frequented by the neighbouring gentry, who, with the prebendaries of the cathedral, make the city look extremely chearful, and money circulate better than could otherwise be expected where there is little or no trade. The cathedral somewhat resembles Westminster abbey, and adjoining to it are the houses of the dean and prebendaries. The bishop, as count palatine, appoints all officers of justice; and, before his prerogatives were abridged by Henry VIII. had a court of chancery and common-pleas; issued out writs in his own name, and coined money. He is still sheriff paramount, and his deputy is not obliged, like other sheriffs, to account with the exchequer, but only with the bishop. The earldom of Sedberg is still annexed to the bishopric, which is esteemed one of the best in England; and as the country about Rome is called St. Peter's patrimony, so that about Durham is called St. Cuthbert's.

Sunderland, a sea-port town, two hundred and sixty-four miles from London, stands in a peninsula almost surrounded by the sea. It is a well built, thriving, and populous

populous town, inhabited by many rich merchants and tradesmen. Its port is capable of containing many hundred sail of ships at one time, and from thence are loaded and sent great numbers of ships with coals, salt, glass, and other merchandize, as well to different places in this kingdom, as to foreign parts. It has a very fine church, with a dome at the east end, under which is the altar, placed beneath a canopy of inlaid work, supported in front by two fluted columns of the Corinthian order. There is here a bathing-house, and a taste for politeness and elegance has been introduced into the town.

Darlington is a pretty large town, two hundred and forty-three miles from London. It is seated in a flat, on the river Skern, which falls into the Tees, and is remarkable for its dirty situation, and its beautiful church, which has a high spire, rising up in the midst of it. It has a good stone bridge of considerable length, over little or no water. However, it is a place of good resort, the market is large and convenient, and is particularly celebrated for its huckabacks, which are made no where else in England, and of which, as well as other linen cloth, it sends up large quantities to London. The water of the Skern is esteemed so good for bleaching, that linen has been sent hither from Scotland to bleach.

At Oxenhall near this town are three deep pits called Hell Kettles, full of water, and which have occasioned many fabulous stories among the country people, who imagine they have no bottom. The most probable opinion is, that they are old coal-pits, rendered useless by the water rising in them.

S E C T. XLII.

Of Northumberland; its Name, Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives in Parliament, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THIS county received its name from its being situated to the north of the Humber. In the Saxon heptarchy it was a part of the kingdom of the Northumbrians, which contained not only the county now called Northumberland, but also Yorkshire, Lancashire, Durham, Cumberland, and Westmoreland. It is seated in the extremity of England next to Scotland, and is bounded on the east by the German ocean; on the south by the bishopric of Durham and Cumberland; on the west by Cumberland; and on the north-west by Scotland, from which it is separated by the river Tweed. It extends seventy-four miles in length from north to south, and forty-five in breadth from east to west.

Northumberland contains twelve market-towns, nine vicarages, four hundred and sixty parishes, about twenty-two thousand seven hundred and forty houses, and a hundred and twenty-six thousand four hundred inhabitants. It is in the diocese of Durham, and sends eight members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for each of the following boroughs, Newcastle upon Tyne, Morpeth, and Berwick upon Tweed.

The air of this county is not so cold as might be imagined from the latitude in which it lies; for its situation between two seas in the narrowest part of England gives it the advantage of having the cold moderated by the vapours of each, and for this reason the snow seldom lies long in Northumberland, except on the tops of high hills. The air is extremely healthful, and the people, who generally live to a great age, are seldom afflicted with sickness. The soil is various, the eastern part, which is fruitful, having very good wheat and most sorts of corn, and has rich meadows on the banks of the rivers; but the western part is generally barren, it being mostly heathy and mountainous. The south-east part abounds with pit coal, of which six hundred thousand chaldrons are computed to be annually shipped from thence for London. There are also large quantities of lead and timber. This county gives title of earl to the noble and ancient family of Percy.

The rivers cause the country to be well watered, and afford great plenty of salmon and trout. The principal of these are the Tyne, the Tweed, and the Cocket; the

former has two arms rising at a great distance from each other, but are united a little above Hexham. South Tyne rises in the north-east edge of Cumberland, but soon entering Northumberland runs northward, and at length bends towards the east. North Tyne has its source in the western part of Northumberland, called Tyne-Dale, then running to the south-east it joins South Tyne near Hexham, from whence it runs eastward by Newcastle into the German ocean. The Tweed is the boundary between this county and Scotland, in which it rises, and having entered Northumberland, pursues its course to the north-east, till it reaches the German ocean at Berwick.

We shall now describe the principal places in this county.

Newcastle upon Tyne, the largest town of Northumberland, stands two hundred and seventy-six miles from London: it is a large and populous town situated between the Picts wall and the Tyne, which is here a fine and deep river, so that ships of a middling burthen may safely come up to the town, though the large colliers are stationed at Shields; and it is so secure an haven, that vessels, when they have passed Tynemouth-bar, are in no danger either from storms or shallows. It is defended by Clifford's fort, which effectually commands all vessels that enter the river. The town may be considered as divided into two parts, of which Gateshead, on Durham side, is one, and both are joined by a bridge of seven arches, on which is a street of houses. The situation of the town is very uneven; it rises on the north bank of the river, where the streets upon the ascent are exceeding steep. Most of the houses are built with stone; but some of them are of timber, and the rest of brick. Through this town went part of that wall which extended from sea to sea, and was built by the Romans to defend the Britons, after they had drawn off all their chosen youth to fill their armies, against the incursions of the Picts. The liberty of the town and the power of the corporation extend no farther than the gate upon the bridge, which some years ago put a stop to a terrible fire, which would otherwise, perhaps have burnt the whole street of houses on that side of the bridge, as it did those beyond it. On the east side of this gate are carved the arms of the bishop of Durham, and on the west side those of the town of Newcastle. The town is defended by an exceeding strong wall, in which are seven gates, and as many turrets, with several cazemates bomb-proof. The castle, which is old and ruinous, over-looks the whole town.

The greatest inconveniencies of Newcastle are its situation on the declivity of two hills, and the buildings being very close and old, which render it improper for those who seek a residence of pleasure; but then, as the river which runs between the two hills renders it a place of great trade, these inconveniencies are abundantly recompensed.

There is here a very noble exchange, and the wall of the town, running from it parallel with the river, leaves a spacious piece of ground before it, between the water and the wall, which being well wharfed and faced with free-stone, forms the longest and largest quay for landing goods, that is to be seen in England, except that at Yarmouth in Norfolk. Here are four parish churches, besides one at Gateshead, and likewise several meeting-houses. St. Nicholas's church stands on the top of a high hill, and has a lofty steeple of curious architecture. There is a great descent from it, and a stream of water in time of drought runs down from a noble conduit, that stands far up in the town, and is of great use to the inhabitants near it. Among the other public buildings is a mansion house for the mayor, who dwells in it during his mayoralty, with his officers and attendants, at the town's expence, who allow him, in order to keep up his state, six hundred pounds for the year. Here is also a hall for the surgeons to meet in, and a large hospital, built by the contribution of the keel-men, for the maintenance of the poor of their fraternity, and several charitable foundations. The town is almost surrounded with coal-pits, which furnish such immense quantities of coals, that several thousand ships are annually loaded with

with them, and they have some manufactures, owing to the plenty of this valuable kind of fuel, particularly the making of hard ware, and salt, which last is indeed performed at Shields, seven miles below the town; but the coals are brought chiefly from thence, and the quantity consumed in these salt works is so great, that a prodigious cloud of smoke rises over the hills, and is so thick, that it is said it may be seen at sixteen miles distance. Ships are also built here to perfection, as to strength and firmness; and there are here a considerable number of merchants, who trade to Holland, Hamburg, Norway, and the Baltic. This town gives title of duke to the noble family of Holles.

Berwick, is pleasantly situated on the south side of an easy declivity, on the Scots coast of the river Tweed, about half a mile distant from its conflux with the sea, and three hundred and thirty-nine miles from London. It is regularly fortified with bastions, flanks, and a ditch, on the north and east; and on the south and west with high walls well built, and planted with cannon, to which the river serves as a moat. The houses make a good appearance, and the town-house is a handsome structure, with a lofty turret, in which is a ring of eight bells. Here is a very stately bridge of sixteen arches over the Tweed. The church, built by the protector Cromwell, is a neat building; but has neither spire nor bells. The barracks form a regular square, and will conveniently contain two regiments of foot. The town is governed by a mayor, a recorder, a town-clerk, and four bailiffs.

Corn and eggs are shipped from this place for London and other ports; but the principal trade consists of the salmon which is taken in the Tweed, and esteemed the best in the kingdom, great quantities of which, being pickled, are put up in vessels called kits, and shipped off for London, where they are called Newcastle salmon. During the months of June and July the best salmon may be bought at Berwick for one penny per pound. Considerable quantities of the smaller fish are sent alive to London in vessels called smacks, built for that purpose, they having a well in the middle, bored full of holes for the free passage of the sea water, and in which the fish live without injury.

This town is particularly mentioned in all laws, proclamations, &c. that comprehend both England and Scotland, as if it was in neither of these countries.

Alnwick is a populous and well built town, seated on the north side of a hill near the river Aln, over which is a stone bridge, at the distance of three hundred and ten miles from London. It has a large town-house, where the quarter-sessions and county courts are held, and the members of parliament elected. It has three gates which are almost entire, and shew that it was formerly surrounded by a wall, and is defended by an old stately Gothic castle, the seat of the earls of Northumberland.

About seven miles to the south-east of Alnwick stands Warkworth, a pleasant village which gives title to the eldest son of the earl of Northumberland; and near it is a remarkable cave, called the Hermitage, cut out of the solid rock. The roof is arched, and the sides adorned with pillars in the Gothic taste. It is divided into two apartments of the same dimensions, one of which seems to have been a lodging-room, and the other a chapel. At the east end of the chapel is an altar, with a cross cut in the rock above it; and in the window the figure of a woman in a recumbent posture at full length. At one end of this figure is another, which seems to be weeping over it, and at the other a bull's head.

The highest mountain in this county, or perhaps in all England, is that of Cheviot, made famous by the old ballad of Chevy Chase. The top, to those who are below, seems to terminate in a point; but has a level plain about a mile and a half in circumference, with a large pool of water in the midst of it. From hence, in clear weather, is an extensive prospect of near fifty miles on every side.

S E C T. XLIII.

Of Cumberland; its Name, Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Places.

ACCORDING to some authors, this county was originally called Cumbria, which name was at length changed to Cumberland. It is bounded on the north by Scotland; on the east by Northumberland, part of the bishopric of Durham, and Westmoreland; on the south by Lancashire; and on the west by the Irish sea. It extends seventy-five miles in length, and twenty-seven in breadth. Cumberland is divided into five wards, and contains one city, fourteen market-towns, ninety parishes, thirty-seven vicarages, near four hundred and forty-seven villages, about fourteen thousand eight hundred and twenty houses, and eighty-eight thousand nine hundred inhabitants. It lies partly in the diocese of Chester, and partly in that of Carlisle, and sends six members to parliament, two for the county, two for Carlisle, and two for Cockermouth.

The air is cold and piercing, yet less than might be expected from its being situated so far to the north. The mountains feed large flocks of sheep, whose flesh is particularly sweet and good, and the valleys produce corn, &c. This country is generally admired for the pleasant prospects it affords; but these would be more beautiful could trees be brought to thrive here better than they generally do. The principal commodities produced by this county are coal, lead, copper, lapis calaminaris, black-lead, a mineral almost peculiar to this county, which contains more than is sufficient to supply all Europe; wild-fowl, salmon, pearls, &c. The last are found in muscles at the mouth of a brook, called the Irt, which discharges itself into the sea a little to the north of Ravenglass.

This county abounds with rivers and lakes, called by the inhabitants meers; of the former the Eden takes its rise from Ulles Water, and after a course of about thirty miles to the northward turns to the west, and falls into Solway frith. This river is remarkable for a small delicious fish called char. The Derwent runs through the middle of the county, and discharges itself into the Irish sea. This river abounds with salmon.

The chief towns in this county are the following:

Carlisle, a city of great antiquity, is seated at the confluence of several small rivers, which almost encompass it: the river Peterill running on the east, Cauda on the west, and Eden on the north, which soon after falls into the sea. It stands three hundred and one miles from London, and is surrounded with walls, and defended by a castle, which stands on the west side. The houses are well built, and the cathedral is a venerable Gothic pile; besides which there is another church called St. Cuthbert's. The city has three gates, called Scots-gate, Irish-gate, and English-gate; and the walls are so thick, that three men may walk a-breast on them, within the parapet. Over the Eden is a bridge that leads towards Scotland, which is not above six miles off. The city is very small, but has a good trade in fustians. It has suffered the fate of most frontier towns, and has been taken, retaken, burnt, and destroyed several times by the Scots, Danes, and Norwegians; and lay once in ruins for near two hundred years, till it was rebuilt by William Rufus. In 1745 this city was taken by the rebels, and soon after retaken by his late royal highness William duke of Cumberland. It is under the government of a mayor, twelve aldermen, &c. and here begins the remains of the famous wall which the emperor Severus built instead of Hadrian's dyke, or rampart, and which crossed the north end of this county and extended through the southern part of Northumberland, ending at the German ocean, near the mouth of the river Tyne, in order to prevent the Picts invading England. This city gives title of earl to the noble family of Howard.

Whitehaven is seated on a creek of the sea, on the north end of a great hill, where is a quarry of a hard white

white stone, which gives name to the place; and which, with the help of a great stone wall, secures the harbour into which small barks may enter. It stands forty miles to the south-west of Carlisle, and two hundred and eighty-nine north-west of London; and, by the encouragement of the Lowther family, has risen from being a small place to be a very considerable one, it being about one-third bigger than the city of Carlisle, and contains three times the number of inhabitants, who are all well lodged, and embarked in profitable employments; so that there is here a continual scene of industry, and business is carried on with great dispatch, without hurry or confusion. They have a plentiful and commodious market, and the adjacent country is well cultivated and strewed with neat and pleasant houses. There is here a custom-house, and the port is well secured by numerous and costly works. The coal-trade is so increased of late, that it is the most eminent port in England for it, next to Newcastle, for the city of Dublin, and all the towns of Ireland on that coast, with some parts of Scotland and the Isle of Man, are principally supplied from hence; and the late Sir James Lowther was said to have sent from hence to Ireland annually as many coals as brought him in near twenty thousand pounds per annum.

The coal in the mines near this place has several times been set on fire by the fulminating damp, and has continued burning for many months till large streams of water were conducted into the mines, and suffered to fill those parts where the coal was on fire. But more mines have been ruined by inundations from springs bursting into them.

In order to describe these wonders of nature and art, the reader may suppose, says our author, that he has entered the mines at an opening at the bottom of a hill, and has already passed through a long adit hewn in the rock, and arched over with brick, which is the principal road into them for men and horses; and which, by a steep descent, leads down to the lowest vein of coal. Being arrived at the coal he still descends by ways less steep till, after a journey of a mile and a half, he arrives at the profoundest part of the mine. The greatest part of this descent is through spacious galleries, which continually intersect other galleries, all the coal being cut away, except large pillars, which in deep parts of the mine are three yards high, and about twelve yards square at the base; such great strength being required to support the ponderous roof. Those who descend into these mines find them most close and sultry in the middle parts that are most remote from the pits and adits, and perceive them to grow cooler the nearer they approach to those pits and adits that are sunk to the deepest parts of the mines; down which pits large streams of fresh air are made to descend, and up which the water is drawn by means of fire-engines. These mines are sunk to the depth of a hundred and thirty fathoms, and are extended under the sea to places where there is above them sufficient depths of water for ships of large burthen. These are the deepest coal-mines that have been hitherto wrought, and perhaps the miners have not in any other part of the globe penetrated to so great a depth below the surface of the sea; the very mines in Hungary, Peru, &c. being situated in mountainous countries, where the surface of the earth is elevated to a great height above the level of the ocean.

Penrith, or Perith, is a pretty large well built place, seated under a hill called Perith Fell, two hundred and eighty-two miles from London; it has a very good market for all sorts of commodities and cattle; the market-house is convenient and spacious, and the church is a large and very handsome structure. The town is built of red stone, whence it received its name Penrith, which in British signifies a red hill.

This having been a frontier county, the ancient seats of the nobility and gentry are, for the most part, built in the form of castles. We shall here describe Corby-castle, which did lately, if it does not still, belong to Mr. Howard, a descendant of the family of the dukes of Norfolk, and which we chuse, as it will give us an opportunity of describing the natural beauties of this county, as they are here improved by art.

Corby-castle is seated four or five miles to the south-east of Carlisle, and is a neat but plain stone building. The entrance to the house is by a large square court, on the right hand of which are the gardens, and on the left offices for the servants and stabling for horses. It is plentifully watered by springs in several large reservoirs made about the house, which stands near the precipice of a rock, which on the back part is about a hundred feet high. In this rock is cut a regular pair of stairs about six feet wide, with all their ornaments down to the bottom. As you descend these stairs, you pass by several rooms hewn out of the rock, of about sixteen feet square, which have no other furniture than tables and seats made out of the stone. At the bottom of these stairs you ascend another pair about ten feet high, which leads to a terrace made in the form of a semi-circle, by the side of which runs the river Eden. The terrace presents a fine view of another part of the rock of equal height with the former; from the top of which falls a most beautiful cataract. It is at least a hundred feet high, and the water is broken by the pointed ridges of the rock into so many forms, and flies about in so delightfully rude a manner, as affords a surprising instance of the power of art in embellishing nature. From this terrace you have a view of half a mile long of the river on the right hand, and a hanging grove of trees, just as nature has placed them, on the left; and at the end of the walk is a small banquetting-room, with a portico in the front, facing the walk. On the other side of the river, opposite the house, are the remains of an old castle, under which is an hermit's cave.

S E C T. XLIV.

Of Westmoreland; its Name, Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THIS county probably received its name from its western situation, and the meers or lakes it contains. It is bounded on the north and north-west by Cumberland, on the north-east and east by the bishopric of Durham and Yorkshire, on the south-east by Yorkshire, and on the south and south-west by Lancashire. Its extent from north to south is about forty miles, and its breadth from east to west twenty-one. It is generally divided into the baronies of Kendal and Westmoreland: the former is very mountainous, but the latter is a large champaign country. These are the only principal divisions of this county, which contains eight market-towns, twenty-six parishes, two hundred and twenty villages, above six thousand five hundred houses, and thirty-nine thousand inhabitants. It lies partly in the diocese of Chester, and partly in that of Carlisle. The earl of Thanet is hereditary sheriff of the county, which sends only four members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for the borough of Appleby. Westmoreland gives the title of earl to the noble family of Fane.

The air is clear, sharp, and salubrious, the natives being seldom troubled with diseases; but generally live to a good old age. The soil is various, that on the mountains is very barren, while that in the valleys is fertile, producing good corn and grass, especially in the meadows near the rivers. In the hilly parts on the western borders it is generally believed there are vast quantities of copper ore, and veins of gold; some mines of copper are worked, but most of the ore lies so deep, that it will not answer the expence.

The principal rivers are the Eden, the Lune, and the Kan. The Eden, which rises in the eastern borders, runs mostly northward, and having received eight small rivers, enters Cumberland. The Lune rises within a few miles of the Eden, and after running a little way to the eastward, turns toward the south, and enters Lancashire. The Kan, or Can, flows from a lake called Kan, or Kent-meer, and running mostly southward, after it has passed Kendal, which takes its name from this river, falls into the Irish sea at the south-west point of the county.

county. These rivers run in rocky channels, and are generally swift limpid streams, well stored with excellent trouts.

Among the mountains in the south part of the county, on the borders of Cumberland lies, Winander-meer, said to be the greatest lake in England, and to be so called by the Saxons from its winding banks. It is about ten miles in length, and paved as it were at bottom with one continued rock. In some parts it is of a vast depth, and is well stored with chare-fish, which is rarely found, except among the Alps. The Ulles-water is a lake also well stocked with fish, and has likewise some chares; but not in such plenty as the former. Both Cumberland and this county lay claim to this lake.

The chief towns in this county are the following:

Appleby is seated on the river Eden, by which it is almost surrounded, two hundred and eighty miles from London. It is a very ancient place but is much decayed, and chiefly consists of only one broad street of mean houses. This is esteemed the county town, and here the assizes are held in the town-hall. At the upper end of the Broad-street is a castle, which was formerly the goal for malefactors, and is surrounded with the river and with a ditch. At the lower end of the town are the church and a school. It is governed by a mayor, a recorder, twelve aldermen, a common council, and sergeants at mace.

Kendal is seated in a valley among hills, on the west side of the river Kan or Kent, two hundred and fifty-six miles from London, and is a rich and populous town which has two bridges of stone, and another of wood, over the river, and at a small distance are the ruins of a castle. The church is a handsome structure, supported by five rows of handsome pillars, and has two chapels of ease. A free school stands on the side of the church-yard and is well endowed, having exhibitions to Queen's college in Oxford. The town consists of several streets neatly paved, one of which is very long, and has a bridge in the middle. The market is plentifully supplied with all kinds of provisions, and with woollen yarn, and the town is famous for its manufacture of cottons, druggets, hats, and stockings.

Lonsdale, or Kirby Lonsdale, is a large well built town, seated on the river Lone, two hundred and thirty-one miles to the north-north-west of London, and has a handsome stone bridge with a stately church, and a fine church-yard, from which and from the banks of the river is a fine prospect of the mountains at a great distance, and of the beautiful course of the river Lone, in a valley far beneath. This town has a good trade in cloth.

S E C T. XLV.

Of Lancashire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives in Parliament, and Rivers. A concise Account of the curious Canals forming by the Duke of Bridgewater, for extending the Navigation within Land through this and the neighbouring Counties. Of the principal Towns of Lancashire, a remarkable Cave, and other Objects of Curiosity.

THIS county receives its name from Lancaster its county town. It is bounded on the north by Westmoreland and Cumberland; on the east by Yorkshire, on the south by Cheshire; and on the west by the Irish sea. It extends seventy miles in length, and thirty-five in breadth; it is divided into five hundreds, and contains twelve vicarages, twenty-seven market towns, sixty-one parishes, eight hundred and ninety-four villages, about forty-three thousand houses, and two hundred and sixty thousand inhabitants. It lies in the diocese of Chester, and sends fourteen members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for each of the following boroughs, Lancaster, Liverpool, Preston, Wigan, Clithero, and Newton.

The air here is in general very healthful, the inhabitants often living to a great age. The soil may be considered under three different classes; the hilly parts are

stony and barren; the level grounds bear crops of wheat and barley, and there are here also moss ground, which affords little else but turf and fir-trees, that are frequently found lying under the surface. The chief commodities of this county are great plenty of all sorts of provisions; pit coal, of which they have a species called cannel-coal, which far exceeds all other, not only in making a clear fire, but by its being capable of being manufactured into candlesticks, cups, standishes, snuff-boxes, &c. and of being polished so as to represent a beautiful black marble. The manufactures of this county are woollen and cotton cloths of various kinds, tickings, and cotton velvets, for which Manchester is particularly famous.

The principal rivers are the Mersey, which parts Cheshire and this county, and the Ribble which rises in Yorkshire, and enters this county at Clithero, running south-west by Preston into the Irish sea. Besides these there are many lesser streams.

The navigation made by his grace the duke of Bridgewater in this county, is highly worthy of notice. This was begun so lately as about six years ago, and bears vessels of sixty tons burthen, and is carried over two rivers the Muxy and the Irwell. The fough, or adit, which was necessary to be made, in order to drain the water from the coal mines, is rendered navigable for boats of six or seven tons burden, and forms a kind of subterraneous lake, which runs about a mile and a half under ground, and communicates with the canal. This lake which leads to the head of the mines, is arched over with brick, and is just wide enough for the passage of the boats: at the mouth of it are two folding doors, which are closed so soon as you enter, and you then proceed by candle-light, which casts a livid gloom, serving only to make darkness visible.

But this dismal gloom is rendered still more awful by the solemn echo of this subterraneous lake, which returns various and discordant sounds. One while you are struck with the grating noise of engines, which by a curious contrivance let down the coals into the boats: Then again you hear the shock of an explosion, occasioned by the blowing up the hard rock, which will not yield to any other force than that of gun-powder. The next minute your ears are saluted by the songs of merriment from either sex, who thus beguile their labours in the mine.

You have no sooner reached the head of the works, than a new scene opens to your view. There you behold men and women almost in the primitive state of nature, toiling in different capacities, by the glimmering of a dim taper: some digging coal out of the bowels of the earth; some again loading it in little waggons made for the purpose; others drawing those waggons to the boats.

When we behold, says the ingenious gentleman from whose letter we have borrowed this account, a part of our species deprived of sun-shine, the common inheritance of mankind, and buried in a dismal and confined cavern, our feelings prompt us to pity their condition; but when we observe the lively ray of cheerfulness break forth in this scene of darkness and distress; when we behold the glow of health in the midst of damp and suffocation; we then cease to pity them, and begin to examine ourselves: we then discover that our enjoyments above ground serve only to multiply our wants; and are convinced of the truth of that maxim, which assures us, that happiness is every where, or no where.

This navigation has already been of great benefit to the town and neighbourhood of Manchester, by reducing the price of coals to one half less than was usually paid; the poor, in particular, reap vast benefit from it, as coals are retailed to them in such small quantities as one hundred weight, at the rate of three pence half-penny. It has likewise afforded great improvement to the lands through which it have been cut, by means of the subterraneous drains which has been made to convey the waters under the canal. When the navigation shall be extended to Liverpool, whither it is expected to be carried in about four or five years, the towns and neighbourhood of Liverpool and Manchester will have the benefit

fit of boats passing every day between the two places, and of saving half the expence of the water-carriage they now pay.

The principal places in this county are the following.

Lancaster, the county town, is seated near the mouth of the river Lune, two hundred and thirty-three miles from London, and is an ancient, neat, and handsome town; but its port is decayed, and incapable of receiving ships of any considerable burthen. The bridge has five arches and is strong and handsome. The castle is now the county goal, in which the assizes are held, and upon its top at one corner, is a square tower called John of Gaynt's chair, from whence you have a delightful prospect of the adjacent country, and of the course of the river Lune; but more especially towards the sea, where you have an extensive view over it to the Isle of Man. There is a handsome square of neat buildings near the castle; but the town has little trade, and is but thinly inhabited. It has only one church, and is governed by a mayor, &c.

About five miles from Lancaster is a remarkable cave called Dunald Mill-hole. In the middle of a large common a brook, near as big as the New-River, after turning a corn-mill just at the entrance of the cave, runs into its mouth by several beautiful cascades, continuing its course two miles under a large mountain, and at last makes its appearance again near Carnford, a village in the road to Kendal. The entrance of this subterraneous channel has something pleasingly terrible: from the mill at the top you descend about ten yards perpendicular by means of chinks in the rock, and clumps of trees: the passage is then almost parallel to the horizon leading to the right, a little winding, till you have some hundreds of yards thick of rocks and minerals above your head. "In this manner, says our author, we proceeded, sometimes through vaults, so capacious that we could neither see the roof or sides, and sometimes on all four, still following the brook, which entertained us with a sort of harmony well suiting the place; for the different height of its falls were as so many keys of music, which being all conveyed to us by an amazing echo, greatly added to the majestic horror which surrounded us. In our return we were more particular in our observations. The falls from one rock to another broke the rays of our candles, so as to form the most romantic vibrations and appearances upon the variegated roof. The sides too are not less remarkable for their fine colouring; the damps, the creeping vegetables, and the seams in the marble and limestone parts of the rocks, form as many tints as are seen in the rainbow, and are covered with a perpetual varnish from the just weeping springs that trickle from the roof. When we arrived at the mouth, and once more beheld the chearing day-light, I could not but admire the uncouth manner in which nature has thrown together the huge rocks which compose the arch over the entrance; but, as if conscious of its rudeness, she has clothed it with trees and shrubs of the most various and beautiful verdure, which bend downwards, and with their leaves cover all the rugged parts of the rock."

Manchester, a very large and populous town, is seated between the rivers Irk and Irwell, upon a rocky hill, a hundred and sixty-six miles to the north-north-west of London, and is a place of great antiquity. It carries on a very extensive trade in cottons, tickings, velvets, and a number of other manufactures distinguished by the name of Manchester goods; and has increased so much of late years, that though it is neither a city, borough, nor corporation, is supposed to contain upwards of fifty thousand inhabitants. It has a collegiate church, which has a choir of excellent workmanship, and two modern churches, one finished in 1723, and an act passed for building another in 1753. These are very handsome structures. This town also boasts its college, hospital, free-school, and library. The college was founded by Thomas West, lord Delawar, in 1421; it is incorporated by the name of the warden and fellows of Christ's church, in Manchester, and consists of a warden, four fel-

lows, two chaplains, four singing-men, and four choristers. The hospital was founded for forty boys; but its revenue is so much improved, that it at present maintains sixty. The library is well supplied with books, and has a revenue for buying others, and a competent maintenance for the librarian. The free-school has been also much improved. Manchester has likewise many meeting-houses of Dissenters, and a handsome town-house; some new streets have been lately built with great elegance. The chief magistrate is a constable, or headborough. This town gives title of duke to the ancient and noble family of Montagu.

Liverpool, or Leverpoole, is commodiously seated on the river Mersey, a hundred and eighty-five miles from London, in the fifty-third degree twenty-two minutes north latitude, and in the second degree thirty minutes west Longitude, where it has an excellent harbour, ships being admitted into a noble wet dock, secured by large flood-gates. It is much increased and beautified within these few years, and, next to London and Bristol, has the greatest trade of any town in England; and will probably soon, if it has not already exceeded the latter. Here is a handsome town-house, supported by twelve stone pillars and arches, and under it is the exchange for merchants. The houses are generally new and built with brick. It has also three or four churches, which are very noble structures, and one of them has the fronts of the galleries, the pulpit and the altar entirely of mahogany. There are here also several meeting-houses for Dissenters, one of which is built in a circular form, and those who meet there have printed forms of prayer different from those of the church of England, a peculiarity that is in no other dissenting meeting-house in this kingdom; but will probably be imitated by other congregations. The town is governed by a mayor and aldermen. It has a good free-school, a very noble charity-school, supported by the generous contributions of the inhabitants, for fifty boys and twelve girls, who are maintained with cloaths, meat, and lodging. Here are also several alms-houses for the support of sailors widows and indigent persons.

Warrington is a large market-town seated on the river Mersey, a hundred and eighty-two miles from London. It contains two churches, several meeting-houses, and a Romish chapel; and is a large handsome place, whose market is well supplied with corn, cattle, and fish. In this town has been lately founded an academy upon a noble and extensive plan, for the education of youth for the learned professions. Here is a stone bridge over the river, which leads into Cheshire. In this town and the neighbouring villages sail-cloth is made for the royal navy. Here are also copper-works, sugar-houses, and glass-houses, which furnish the industrious with the means of obtaining a comfortable subsistence; and on the banks of the Mersey, which, by means of weirs and locks, is made navigable to Manchester, are paper-mills, gunpowder-mills, oil-mills, iron forges, and flitting-mills.

Preston, a large fine town seated on the river Ribble, two hundred and eleven miles from London. Though it has no manufacture, yet as it has a court of chancery, and other officers of justice for the county palatine of Lancaster, it is full of gentlemen, attorneys, proctors, and notaries. It is a clean, neat, and gay place, to which the gentry many miles round resort in winter, and have assemblies, balls, &c. hence it is vulgarly called Proud Preston. It has a large market-place, and the streets are open, wide, and well paved. On the neighbouring common are frequent horse-races. Near it the duke of Hamilton, who came to rescue Charles I. from imprisonment, was defeated in 1648; as were also the English rebels under general Foster, on the twelfth of November, 1715.

Wigan, a large well built town, seated on the river Douglas, a hundred and ninety-five miles from London, is inhabited by shop-keepers of almost all kinds, and has been noted for its manufacture of coverlets, rugs, and blankets.

Within a mile and a half of this town, says Dr. Gibson, bishop of London, is a well, which at first sight does not appear to be a spring, but rather rain-water.

There

There is nothing about it that seems extraordinary; but, upon emptying it, there presently breaks out a sulphureous vapour, which makes the water bubble up as if it boiled; a candle being put to it, it presently takes fire, and burns like brandy; the flame in a calm season will continue a whole day; by the heat of which you may boil eggs, meat, &c. though the water itself be cold: but by the bubbling the water does not increase; it being only kept in motion by the sudden halitus of the vapours breaking out. The same water taken out of the well will not burn.

S E C T. XLVI.

Of Cheshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

C HESHIRE is separated on the north from Lancashire by the river Mersey, but just at the north-east point it borders on Yorkshire; on the east it is bounded by Derbyshire; on the south-east by Staffordshire; on the south by Shropshire; on the west by Denbighshire and Flintshire, from which it is separated by the Dee; and on the north-west it is washed by the Irish sea, into which projects a peninsula about sixteen miles in length, and seven in breadth, formed by the mouths of the Mersey and the Dee.

The whole county extends fifty miles in length and thirty-three in breadth, and is divided into seven hundreds, in which are contained thirteen market-towns, twenty vicarages, eighty-six parishes, six hundred and seventy villages, about twenty-four thousand one hundred houses, and a hundred and sixty-four thousand three hundred inhabitants. It lies in the diocese of Chester, and sends only four members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for the city of Chester.

As this, as well as Lancashire, is a county palatine, it has a distinct government, which is administered by a chamberlain, a judge special, called chief-justice of Cheshire, a puisny judge, &c.

The air is temperately cold and very healthy; for the generality of the inhabitants live to a good old age. It is very rich in pasture and corn-land; but there are several heaths upon which horses and sheep feed. The country is generally level, and the extensive pastures with which it abounds feed a great number of cows, whose milk is peculiarly rich, and of which is made the excellent cheese well known by the name of Cheshire; and such quantities are made of it, that London alone is said to take annually fourteen thousand tons of it: vast quantities are also sent to Bristol, York, Scotland, Ireland, &c. However, a considerable quantity of what commonly goes by the name of Cheshire cheese is made in Shropshire, Staffordshire, and Lancashire. This county also produces excellent salt, mill-stones little inferior to those of France, fowl, fish, and metals.

The principal rivers of Cheshire are the Mersey, which runs from the north-east, and is the boundary between this county and Lancashire; the Wevel, which rises in Shropshire, and, after running about eighteen miles from south to north, turns to the westward, and discharges itself into the mouth of the Mersey: the Dee, which rises from two fountains in Wales, enters this county at Grafton, and running almost due north to Chester discharges itself by a very wide and extended mouth into the Irish sea. It abounds with fine salmon and trout. The principal towns in Cheshire are the following:

Chester is a very ancient city, a hundred and eighty-two miles north-west of London. It is of a quadrangular form, and the walls which surround it are two miles in circumference, affording a pleasant walk, with very agreeable prospects. The city is square, and the streets which cross each other at right angles are bounded by four gates, which answer the four cardinal points, of which the east gate in particular is very stately. It is remarkable that all the principal streets have a kind of piazza over the ground-floor, in which are the tradesmen's shops: these afford shelter from the rain, and at

the end of every street is a flight of steps to ascend to the piazza. Here is a strong castle on the south side of the city, in which is the county-hall, where all causes belonging to the county palatine are determined. The exchange is a neat building, supported by columns thirteen feet high, each of one stone, and over it is the city-hall. Here is a strong stone bridge over the Dee, which extends into Wales, and by it is a handsome water-house. Chester has ten parish-churches, besides the cathedral, which is a pile venerable for its antiquity; but is in no extraordinary condition. It is governed by a mayor, two sheriffs, and twenty-four aldermen. It was formerly a harbour for ships; but such vast quantities of sand have been thrown up by the sea, that the river would hardly float a small bark up to the city. Great pains have, however, been taken to remedy this inconvenience, and the inhabitants have cut a canal of near ten miles in length at a very great expence, through which ships of considerable burthen may come to Chester. This city gives title of earl to his royal highness the prince of Wales.

Nantwich, or Namptwich, is seated on the banks of the river Wever, which runs through the middle of it, and is a large town, a hundred and sixty-two miles from London. The parish church is a spacious and beautiful structure, with a steeple in the middle of it. The town is well built, and the streets make a handsome appearance. The inhabitants are rich, and carry on a good trade, particularly in salt and cheese; the latter exceeding all that is made in the county from the excellency of the soil. Here are salt springs which lie on the banks of a fresh water stream, of which they make great quantities of white salt. The water brought from the salt springs to the wich-houses, as they are called, by troughs, are received into large casks set in the ground; from hence it is put into the leads, and a fire made for keeping it warm, during which women with wooden rakes gather it as it settles to the bottom. After this it is put into salt-barrows, a kind of wicker-baskets, in the shape of a sugar-loaf reversed, that the water may drop from it and leave the salt dry.

Middlewich, which stands between Nantwich and Northwich, likewise takes its name from its wich-houses, and is also a large market-town, with a spacious church: it is seated on the river Croke, a hundred and fifty-six miles from London; has two excellent salt springs, and is chiefly noted for making salt.

Northwich is likewise famous for the same springs, and is seated a hundred and fifty-nine miles from London. About the end of the last century was discovered on the south side of the town rock-salt, which they still continue to dig up and send in great lumps to the maritime ports, where it is dissolved and made into common salt. The salt mines here are very curious; they descend into them by a bucket a hundred and fifty feet below the surface of the earth, where the mine looks like a cathedral, supported by rows of pillars, and the roof that resembles crystal all of the same rock, transparent and glittering from the numerous candles of the workmen labouring with their pick-axes, in digging it away. This rock-work extends several acres. The church of Northwich is a handsome building, with a fine roof and a semi-circular choir.

Macclesfield is a large handsome town, seated at the edge of a forest of the same name, near the river Bollin, a hundred and fifty-one miles from London: it has a good church, with a high spire, and a college adjoining to it, and also a good free-school. It has manufactures of hat-bands, twist, and mohair-buttons; and some years ago several small silk-mills have been erected here after the model of that of Derby. This town gives title of earl to the noble family of Parker.

We have now gone through our description of England; but, before we proceed to Wales, shall give an account of the Isle of Man, which lies opposite to the coast of Westmoreland and Lancashire.

S E C T. XLVII.

The Isle of MAN.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, and Produce. The Manners, Language, and Government of the Inhabitants; their Religion and Trade; with a concise Description of the little Islands situated on its Coast.

THE Isle of Man, which Cæsar calls Mona, is situated between England and Ireland, at almost an equal distance from each, and lies between the fifty-third degree fifty-three minutes and the fifty-fourth degree twenty-five minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree thirty minutes west longitude. It is about thirty miles in length from north to south; in the widest part not above fifteen broad nor less than eight in the narrowest. It is entirely surrounded with rocks, and consequently has a very dangerous coast.

The soil is very different; the limestone ground to the south is as good as any in England; but the mountains are cold and less fruitful. These mountains extend in a ridge almost the whole length of the island, and supply the inhabitants quite round with exceeding good water and excellent peat for fuel. Snafield, the highest of these mountains, rises at least five hundred and eighty yards above the level of the sea, and from thence is a fine prospect of England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales.

The air is cold and sharp in winter; but where they have shelter it is as mild as in Lancashire, the frosts being short, and the snow never lying long on the ground, especially near the sea. They have no coal-pits; but good quarries of black marble, and other stones for building. They have likewise mines of lead, copper, and iron. The orchards and gardens produce as good fruit, roots, and vegetables, as any in the neighbouring countries.

The horned cattle are generally less than those of England, and the gentlemen have good draught and saddle horses; but there is a very small sort bred in the mountains three feet some inches high, which are very handsome, and run with great swiftness. Here is also a breed of small swine, which run wild in the mountains; these and the wild sheep are esteemed excellent meat. They have no badgers, foxes, otters, moles, hedgehogs, snakes, or any other noxious animals.

The number of inhabitants, besides strangers, amount to about twenty thousand. They are an orderly civilized people, very charitable to the poor, and hospitable to strangers. Their language, which is called the Manks, is a dialect of that spoken in the western isles of Scotland, with a mixture of some Greek, Latin, and Welsh words.

In their habit and manner of living they imitate the English, only the poorer sort wear a kind of sandals made of untanned leather, they being cross-laced from the toe to the instep. Oat-cakes are their common bread. They have mills both for grinding of corn or fulling of cloth. Their staple commodities are wool, hides, and tallow; and they are extremely well situated for a foreign trade.

The island is, in civil concerns, divided into six sheadings, and every sheading has its proper coroner, who is in the nature of a sheriff, and is intrusted with the peace of his district, secures criminals, and brings them to justice. The legislative power is lodged in twenty-four keys, so called from their unlocking, as it were, or solving the difficulties of the law. These represent the commons, and join with the lords court in making all new laws, and with the deemsters or judges in settling and determining the meaning of the ancient laws and customs in all difficult cases. The deemsters are two in number, these are judges in cases of common law, and of life and death; but such controversies as are too trivial to be brought before a court, are dispatched at their houses.

The bishop of Man is suffragan to the archbishop of York, and styled bishop of Sodor and Man; the former being a bishopric in the western island of Jona, or St. Columbus, commonly called Columb-kyle; but the

bishop is a baron of the isle, and has his own courts for his temporalities, in which one of the deemsters sits as judge; but he has no seat in the house of lords. The religion and worship is exactly the same with that of the church of England. The clergy meet in convocation at least once a year, on Thursday in Whitsun-week, and they are dignified with the title of Sir before their Christian names. There are here seventeen parish-churches, and four chapels; with four market-towns.

Douglas is the richest and most populous town of the island. The harbour for ships of tolerable burthen is extremely safe, and has a fine mole which runs out into the sea, which renders this one of the best harbours in any part of the three kingdoms.

The island has been successively inhabited by the Britons, Scotch, and Norwegians; but at last became subject to England, about the close of the reign of king Edward I. or the beginning of that of Edward II. King Henry IV. granted the island, together with the patronage of the bishopric, to Sir John Stanley, and his heirs, in which family it continued, till by marriage it came from the earl of Derby to the duke of Athol, in Scotland, who was styled king in Man.

Its trade was very great before the year 1726; but the late lord Derby farming out his customs to foreigners, the insolence of those farmers drew on the island the resentment of the government of England, who by an act of parliament deprived the inhabitants of a fair trade with this kingdom. This naturally introduced a clandestine commerce, which they carried on with England and Ireland with prodigious success, and an immense quantity of foreign goods was annually run into both kingdoms, till the government, in 1765, thought proper to put an entire stop to it, by purchasing of the duke of Athol the customs of the island, and permitting a free trade with England.

On the little isle of Peele, on the west side of Man, is a town of the same name, with a fortified castle.

Before the south promontory of Man, is a little island called the Calf of Man: it is about three miles in circuit, and separated from Man by a channel about two furlongs broad. At one time of the year it abounds with puffins, and also with a species of ducks and drakes, by the English called barnacles, and by the Scots clakes and soland geese. The puffins 'tis said, breed in the holes of the rabbits, which for that time leave them to these strangers. The old ones, says our author, leave the young ones all day, and fly to the sea, and returning late at night with their prey, disgorge it into the stomachs of their young; by which means they become almost an entire lump of fat. In August, they are hunted as it is called, and no less than five thousand of these young ones are generally taken every year; these are mostly eaten on the island, but many of them are pickled, and sent abroad as presents. About the rocks of this island also breed an incredible number of all sorts of sea fowl.

S E C T. XLVIII.

Of WALES.

Of this Country in general; with an Account of Flintshire; its Situation, Extent, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

WE are now come to Wales, an extensive and mountainous country, separated from England by a range of almost inaccessible mountains, which to the ancient inhabitants of Britain seemed formed by nature as bulwarks for the defence of liberty. Thither therefore those Britains retired, who, finding resistance ineffectual, disdained to submit to the Romans, and thither they were followed by their countrymen, who were afterwards unable to oppose the victorious arms of the Saxons. Thus these barren mountains became the asylum of liberty, and were inhabited by the brave, who for the sake of that invaluable blessing, liberty, preferred them to their native possessions in the fertile plains of England. By this means they have preserved their race, who still speak the same language, have the same tempers and dispositions

dispositions, and laugh at a pedigree that can be traced no higher than William the Conqueror.

The Saxons gave the country the name of Wallia, and the people that of Welsh, terms by which they used to denote nations and countries, that appeared to them strange and unknown. Hence the people themselves, who are unacquainted with the English, know not that their country is called Wales, or themselves or their language termed Welsh; but instead of Wales use the word Cycary, or the antient country, and call the language Cymraeg. However, people in affluent circumstances, and those who keep inns on the public roads, generally speak English.

It was anciently bounded on all sides by the Severn and Dee, till the Saxons made themselves masters of all the plain country over these rivers, and Offa, king of Mercia, made a great ditch, as the boundary between his kingdom and Wales. The kings of England also, after the conquest, obliged the inhabitants to retire farther westward, and to secure themselves among the mountains. They enjoyed their own laws, lived under their own princes, and maintained their liberties against all the attempts of the English, till in 1282, Llewellyn ap Griffith, prince of Wales, lost his life, in a battle obtained by Edward I. and afterwards sending his queen, who was pregnant, to Caernarvon, where she was safely delivered, summoned a meeting of the Welsh lords, and proffered them the young child, a native of their own country, for their lord and governor, they readily swore obedience to him, and since that time the king's eldest son has been created prince of Wales.

This country is at present divided into twelve counties, which, beginning at the north-east are Flintshire, Denbighshire, Caernarvon, Anglesey, Merionethshire, and Montgomeryshire, called North-Wales; Radnorshire, Cardiganhire, Pembrokehire, Caermarthenshire, Brecknockshire, and Glamorganhire, termed South-Wales.

Flintshire, is bounded on the North by an arm of the sea, which is properly the mouth of the river Dee; on the east by Cheshire, on the south by Shropshire, and on the south-west and west by Denbighshire. It is twenty-nine miles in length, and eighteen in breadth, and is divided into five hundreds, in which are one market-town, twenty-eight parishes, about five thousand four hundred houses, and thirty-two thousand four hundred inhabitants. The greatest part of this county lies in the diocese of St. Asaph, and the rest belongs to that of Chester. It sends two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for Flint.

The air is cold but healthful, it is full of hills, intermixed with a few valleys, which are very fruitful, producing some wheat, and great plenty of rye. The cows, though small, yield a great quantity of milk, in proportion to their size, and are excellent beef. The mountains are well stored with lead, coal, and mill-stones. This county also produces good butter, cheese, and honey, of which last the natives make metheglin, a wholesome liquor, much used in these parts.

The principal rivers are the Clwyd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Sevlion, the Elwy, and the Alen, which furnish Flintshire with great quantities of fish.

The principal towns in this county are the following.

St. Asaph, an episcopal city, called by the Welsh Lhan Elwy, as being situated at the confluence of the river Elwy with the Clwyd, obtained its English name from Asaph, a devout man, who was bishop of this place. The town though seated in a pleasant vale, and the see of a bishop, is a poor ill built place, even without a weekly market; and the cathedral is far from being an elegant structure: the town has a bridge over each of the rivers above mentioned.

Flint is situated near the river Dee, where is a small harbour, one hundred and ninety-four miles from London; but notwithstanding its advantageous situation for trade, it is a mean place, without any market. The assizes are generally held here, and the town is governed by a mayor, who is styled governor of the castle, which now lies in ruins.

Holywell, a town seated twelve miles to the east of St. Asaph, and two hundred and twelve to the north-

west of London, is famous for St. Winifred's-well, which is one of the finest springs in the world. It pours out such a quantity of a water, that running in the middle of the town down the side of a hill, it is made use of by every house as it passes, after which it turns several mills. Over the spring, where there is a handsome bath, is a neat chapel, which stands upon pillars, and on the windows are painted the history of St. Winifred's life. About the well grow some mosses, which people foolishly imagine to be St. Winifred's hair. And as she is reputed a virgin martyr, who they tell you being ravished and murdered, was interred here, on which this water sprung out of her body when buried, the well is much frequented by popish pilgrims out of devotion, as well as by those who come to bathe in it, for medicinal purposes. Almost all the houses of the town are either let into lodgings, or public houses, and the Romish priests who attend here are very numerous, and appear in disguise.

Caerwis, the only market-town in the county, is seated five miles to the east of St. Asaph, on an ascent, but is a small place not worthy of a particular description.

S E C T. XLIX.

Of Denbighshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

DENBIGHSHIRE, is bounded on the east by Flintshire and Shropshire, on the south by Merionethshire, on the west by Caernarvonshire, and on the north by the Irish sea. It extends thirty-nine miles in length, and fifteen in breadth. This county is divided into twelve hundreds, which contain four market-towns, fifty-seven parishes, about six thousand four hundred houses, and thirty-eight thousand four hundred inhabitants. It is partly in the diocese of St. Asaph; but the greatest part of the vale of Clwyd is in the diocese of Bangor. It sends two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for the borough of Denbigh.

The air of this county is very wholesome, but sharp, it being continually agitated by the winds which blow over the snowy tops of the mountains. The soil is various; for the famous vale of Clwyd is a fruitful, pleasant, and delightful spot, said to be equalled by few places in Europe, and takes up so great a part of the county, that it extends near seventeen miles from north to south, and from east to west about five. The east side of the county is not very fertile, and the west is in a manner entirely barren. The inhabitants generally live to a great age, and those who dwell in the above vale are remarkable for retaining great vivacity to the longest period of life. The chief commodities this county affords are lead, horned cattle, sheep, goats, fish, and fowl.

The valleys are well watered by rivers; the Clwyd rises in the middle of the county, and taking a compass to the south-east, then turns to the northward, and having entered Flintshire falls into the Irish sea. The Elwy rises in the south-west edge of the county, and runs chiefly to the north and north-east, till it enters Flintshire, immediately after which it falls into the Clwyd. The Dee enters this county from Merionethshire, and becomes the boundary between this county and Cheshire. The Conway is the boundary between Denbighshire and Caernarvonshire.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Denbigh, the county town, is seated on the side of a rocky hill on a branch of the river Clwyd, twenty-seven miles to the west of Chester, and two hundred and nine to the north-west of London. It was formerly walled round, and secured by a castle, thought to be impregnable from its advantageous situation. It gives title of earl to the noble family of Fielding; it is governed by an alderman, two bailiffs, twenty-five capital burgesses, &c. Its market on Wednesdays is plentifully supplied with corn, cattle, and other provisions. The town is pretty large and populous, and a considerable trade is carried on by the tanners and glovers.

Wrexham, which is esteemed the largest town in North Wales, is seated on a river that falls into the Dee, and has

has been much extolled on account of its church, the steeple of which has been much admired. It is indeed adorned with imagery; but the work is mean, and the statues without fancy or spirit; and as the stone is of a red and crumbling kind, it is greatly disfigured by time. The church is large; but they are much mistaken who pretend that it is one of the finest in England. The town is well built and populous; and, besides the church, there are two large meeting-houses, in one of which, it is said, they preach in Welsh one part of the day, and in English the other. There is here a considerable manufacture of flannel, which is sent in large quantities from hence to London.

Ruthen is seated in the vale of Clwyd, ten miles to the south-east of Denbigh, and a hundred and ninety-nine north-west of London, and had once a large castle, which is now in ruins; it is a pretty large corporation town, well inhabited, and has an hospital and a free-school.

S E C T. L.

Of Caernarvonshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Air, Soil, Produce, Mountains, Rivers, and principal Towns.

CAERNARVONSHIRE, or Carnarvonshire, called by the Welsh Sir Gaernarvon, is bounded on the north by the Irish sea, on the east by Denbighshire, on the south-east by Merionethshire, and on the west and south-west by Anglesey and the Irish sea; extending fifteen miles in length, and thirteen in breadth. This county is divided into ten hundreds, in which are six market-towns, sixty-eight parishes, about two thousand seven hundred and seventy houses, and upwards of sixteen thousand inhabitants. It is seated in the diocese of Bangor, and sends only two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for Caernarvon.

The air is cold and piercing, which may be attributed to the snow, which, on many of the mountains, lie for nine or ten months in the year. The soil is particularly stony, and rises in vast mountains one above another, from whence this county has not been improperly called the English Alps. The highest mountain, which is called Snowdon-hill, is boggy on the top, and has two lakes that abound with fish. The sheep which feed on the sides of this mountain yield the sweetest mutton in Wales. The most remarkable mountain, next to that of Snowdon-hill, is Penman Mawr, which hangs perpendicularly over the sea at so vast a height, that few spectators would be able to look down the dreadful steep. On the side next the sea is a road cut out of the side of the rock, about six or seven feet wide, which winds up a steep ascent, defended on one side by a slight wall, in some parts about a yard high, and in others by only a bank, that scarce rises a foot above the road. The sea is seen dashing its waves forty fathoms below, and the mountain rises as much above the traveller's head. This, dangerous and tremendous as it must appear, is the high road to Holy-head, over which the lord lieutenant of Ireland passes in his way to that port. Indeed the author of *The Tour through Great Britain*, says, there is no danger, it being every where defended by a wall; and another author says, it is breast high, but they are both mistaken. This county is also remarkable for the great number of its lakes; and the continuator of Camden says, that there are here no less than fifty or sixty of them. Between the hills are fruitful and pleasant valleys, whose beauties are much heightened by the rude prospects and dreary wastes, with which they are encompassed. The principal commodities are the cattle, including sheep and goats, wood, and plenty of fish both from the lakes and rivers, and lead, which is found in the mountains.

The principal river is the Conway, which parts Caernarvonshire from Denbighshire. It rises from a lake where the three counties of Caernarvonshire, Denbighshire, and Merionethshire join, and running northward falls into the Irish sea at Aberconway. Here are many other smaller rivers, dispersed in various parts of the country. The chief towns are the following:

Bangor is seated thirty-six miles to the west of St. Asaph, and two hundred and thirty-six to the north-west of London: though the see of a bishop, it is an old mean looking place; yet was so considerable in ancient times, that it was called Bangor the Great, and was defended by a strong castle. It has a market on Wednesdays, and its principal buildings are the cathedral and the bishop's palace. The cathedral is by some thought to be the most ancient in Britain; but it now makes a very mean appearance: there is here also a free-school. The town is governed by the bishop's steward, who holds the courts.

Caernarvon borders on the sea, by which, and two rivers, it is surrounded on all sides, except the east: it stands seven miles to the south-west of Bangor, and two hundred and fifty-one to the north-west of London. It had a strong castle, which is now in ruins, and has one parish-church; the houses and streets are tolerably handsome. The constable of the castle is always mayor of the town by his patent; besides whom there is always an alderman, two bailiffs, a town-clerk, &c. It was built by king Edward I. to secure a passage into the isle of Anglesey, and here was born king Edward II. the first English prince of Wales; here was likewise established the chancery and exchequer for North Wales.

Aberconway, or Conway, is seated at the mouth of the river Conway, fifteen miles to the north-west of Denbigh, and two hundred and nine from London. It is a large walled town, with a castle, and the houses are tolerably well built. Near the town corn, timber, and oak-bark, are in great plenty; and they clear out at the custom-house from eleven to twelve thousand bushels of grain every year. A vast body of marcasite is found up the river, of which copperas is made; and it is thought that there are veins of copper ore near it. This town was formerly famous for a pearl-fishery; but though there are still plenty of pearl muscles, they are neglected. Here is one church, in which they preach one Sunday in English, and the other in Welsh; it has a remarkable epitaph to the following purpose: "Here lieth the body of Nicholas Hookes, of Conway, gent. who was the one and fortieth child of his father, William Hookes, Esq; by Alice his mother, and the father of twenty-seven children. He died the twentieth day of March, 1637."

S E C T. LI.

Of the Isle of Anglesey; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THE isle of Anglesey, or Anglesea, the most western county of North Wales, was called by the ancients Mona, and was the seat of the Druids; but being reduced by the English in the reign of Edward I. it received the name of Anglesey, or the English Island. It is surrounded on all sides by the Irish sea, except on the south-east, where it is divided from Britain by a narrow freight called Meneu, which in some places may be passed on foot at low water. Its extent from Beaumaris on the east to Holyhead on the west is twenty-four miles, and from Abermana's ferry on the south to Llanbaderig on the north, where broadest, is about seventeen.

It is divided into six hundreds, in which are two market-towns, two chaces, seventy-four parishes, eighteen hundred and forty houses, and upwards of twelve thousand persons. According to Camden it formerly contained three hundred and sixty-three villages. It lies in the diocese of Bangor, and sends two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for Beaumaris.

It in general enjoys a pretty good air, except when it happens to be covered with the fogs and exhalations that arise from the sea, which are apt to occasion agues, especially in autumn. The soil of Anglesey is much more fertile than one would imagine from its stony, rocky, and mountainous bottom. It particularly abounds in wheat, which is said to be the best in all Wales, and likewise in cattle, fowl, and fish. From the mountains are dug mill-stones, and grindstones. Near Kemylyn

harbour

harbour is a quarry of a beautiful marble, among which is found the asbestos, called here salamanders wool; it is a substance like flax, and will bear a common fire without being consumed. Not far from this is a yellow sulphureous copper ore, and about three miles to the eastward is a vein of stony ochre of various colours, as red, yellow, and blue.

The principal rivers are the Brant, the Alow, and the Keveny. The first has its source on the east side of the island, and runs mostly southward, till it falls into the Meneu. The Alow also rises in this county, and, after several windings, falls into the Irish sea. The Keveny issues from the high hills to the north of Coydana, and falls into the sea, on the south-west side of the island.

Among the antiquities of this island are two circles of stones, like those of Stone-henge on Salisbury-plain. This island gives the title of earl to the family of Annesley.

Among the other popish customs still retained in North Wales, it is here usual, after morning service on Sunday, for the people of a whole parish to go to foot-ball; and when the afternoon service is done they go to the ale-house, which is frequently kept by the parson of the parish, and there they play at all sorts of games.

The principal place in this island is

Beaumaris, the county town, where all the public affairs of the island are transacted. It is seated on the east side of Anglesey, nine miles to the north of Bangor, and two hundred and forty-one north-west of London. It was built by king Edward III. to secure his conquests here, who for that purpose began a castle; but it does not appear that it ever was finished. The town receives its name from its standing in a fine moorish plain. It is at present a populous place, in which the sessions and county goal are kept. It has a good harbour for shipping; and as it lies in the direct road to Holyhead, this contributes to its trade, by the passengers who go through it in order to set sail for Ireland; but, notwithstanding its harbour, it has little or no foreign trade. It principally consists of two handsome streets, and has a church, in which are some fine monuments. The market, which is on Wednesdays and Saturdays, is well furnished with provisions. The corporation consists of a mayor, a recorder, two bailiffs, who are also justices of the peace, and twenty-one burgesses.

Holyhead is seated twenty-four miles to the west of Beaumaris, and lies opposite to Dublin: from hence is the shortest and safest passage over St. George's channel, it being the most westerly point of Anglesey. It is a little island of itself, joined to Anglesey by a stone bridge. It has a village called in the Welsh Kaer Gybi, which consists of a few straggling thatched houses, built on the rock; yet several of them have good accommodations for travellers. The packet boats from Dublin arrive here three times a week, if the wind permits.

On the rocks grow the herb of which is made kelp, a fixed salt used in making glass and in alum-works. In the neighbourhood is a large vein of white fuller's-earth, and another of yellow, which might be of use to fullers. Large flocks of puffins are often seen here; they all come in one night, and depart in the same manner.

S E C T. LII.

Of Merionethshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

MERIONETHSHIRE is bounded on the north by Caernarvonshire and Denbighshire; on the east by Montgomeryshire; on the west by St. George's Channel, or the Irish sea; and on the south by the river Dyffi, which parts it from Cardiganshire; it extending forty-seven miles in length, and twenty-five in breadth.

This county is divided into six hundreds, in which are five market-towns, thirty-seven parishes, about two thousand five hundred and ninety houses, and seventeen thousand one hundred inhabitants. It lies in the diocese of Bangor, and sends one member to parliament, namely, a knight for the shire.

The air of Merionethshire is very sharp in winter, on account of its many high barren mountains. The soil is as bad as any in Wales, it being very rocky and mountainous. However, this county feeds large flocks of sheep, many goats, and large herds of horned cattle; which find pretty good pasture in the valleys. Besides these, among their other commodities may be reckoned Welsh cotton, deer, fowl, fish, and especially herrings, which are taken on this coast in great plenty.

Some learned authors mention a surprising phenomenon, which they tell us this part of the country has sometimes fatally experienced; this is a livid vapour arising from the sea, which spreading itself on the land sets fire to all combustibles in its way, as barns, stacks of hay and corn; after which the grass and herbage being all blasted by this pestilential exhalation, a great mortality of cattle, sheep, horses, &c. generally ensued; but on firing a gun, upon seeing it approach, it is easily dispersed. See the Philosophical Transactions, and a description of it in Camden's Addenda.

This county is watered by several rivers, the principal of which are the Dee, the Avon, and the Drurydh. The Dee has two spring-heads in the eastern part of the county, which being united, is supposed to run through the lake called Pimble-meer, without mixing its waters with those of the lake; at least the fish seem not to mingle; for it is said, that though the Dee abounds with salmon, none are ever taken in the lake out of the stream of the river; nor does the Dee carry off any gwiniads, a fish peculiar to the lake, which resembles the whiting, but tastes like a trout. This river, after leaving the lake, runs by a north-east course into Denbighshire. The Avon rises in Berose-wood, on the east side of the county, and running mostly south-west, falls into St. George's Channel. The Drurydh issues from a lake in the north of Merionethshire, and running to the south-west, also falls into the Irish sea.

Harlech, the principal town in this county, is seated on a steep rock on the sea-shore, and is but a poor place, though it is the county town. It had formerly a strong handsome castle, which had a garrison for king Charles I. in the civil wars, on which account it was afterwards demolished by the parliament. The town is governed by a mayor, and has a weekly market on Saturdays.

Dolgelly is seated at the foot of a great rock called Cader Idris, which is extremely high, a hundred and eighty-seven miles to the north-west of London, and is washed by the river Avon. It is but an ordinary town, and yet has not only a market on Tuesdays, but a considerable manufacture of Welsh cottons.

S E C T. LIII.

Of Montgomeryshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Air, Soil, Rivers, and principal Places.

MONTGOMERYSHIRE, the last county in North Wales, is called by the Welsh Sir Trevalwyn, and is bounded on the north by Merionethshire and Denbighshire; on the north-east and east by Shropshire; on the south by Radnorshire and Cardiganshire; and on the west by the last-mentioned county and part of Merionethshire. It extends thirty-five miles in length, and thirty-four in breadth. This county is divided into seven hundreds, and contains six market-towns, sixty-eight parishes, about five thousand six hundred and sixty houses, and thirty-three thousand nine hundred and sixty inhabitants. It lies in the three several dioceses of St. Asaph, Bangor, and Hereford; but sends only two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for the town of Montgomery.

The air is pleasant and salubrious: but this county being extremely mountainous, is not very fertile, except in the vallies, which afford some corn, and plenty of pasture; however, the south, south-east, and north east parts being much more level, are extremely fruitful, especially a pleasant vale through which the Severn glides in beautiful meanders. This county has long been famous for an excellent breed of horses, which are larger

here than in any other part of Wales. The county likewise abounds in horned cattle, fowl, fish, and corn.

It is watered by several small streams which fall into the Severn, a river that is the principal beauty of this county: its source is a small lake on the vast mountain of Plinlymmon, and in its course receives so many small streams, that it becomes navigable before it leaves the county. The rivers Rhydel and Wye have their sources on the same mountain: but these last soon leave Montgomeryshire. The Tanat rises towards the north-west side of the county, and running eastward, forms part of the northern boundary between Montgomeryshire and Denbighshire; falling into the Severn at the north-east point of the county. The Turch rises on the west side of Montgomeryshire, and running eastward till it reaches the foot of Mount Golway, turns to the north, and, after receiving the Wurway, falls into the Tanat.

Montgomery, the county town, is pleasantly seated in a fertile soil, and a healthful air, on the ascent of a hill, twenty-four miles to the south of Shrewsbury, and about a hundred and sixty-eight to the north-west of London; it had once a castle, which was demolished in the civil wars; but it at present contains only about a hundred houses, and has a market on Tuesdays.

Welshpool is seated in a rich vale on the bank of the Severn, seven miles to the north of Montgomery, and a hundred seventy-six to the north-west of London. It is the largest and best town of the county, and has a very good trade. The market is considerable for cattle, provisions and flannels. The castle, now called Powis-court, is built of a reddish stone, and is a large stately structure.

S E C T. LIV.

Of Radnorshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

WE now come to South Wales, and shall begin with Radnorshire, called by the Welsh Sir Vaes y Ved. It is bounded on the north by Montgomeryshire, on the east by Shropshire and Herefordshire, on the south and south-west by Brecknockshire, and on the west by Cardiganshire; extending thirty miles in length, and twenty-five in breadth.

This county is divided into six hundreds, in which are contained four market-towns, fifty-two parishes, about three thousand one hundred and sixty houses, and eighteen thousand nine hundred and sixty inhabitants. It is seated in the diocese of Hereford, and sends two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for the town of Radnor.

The air of this county is in winter cold and piercing. The soil in general is but indifferent; yet some places produce corn, particularly the eastern and southern parts; but in the northern and western, which are mountainous, the land is chiefly stocked with horned cattle, sheep, and goats.

With respect to the rivers of Radnorshire; besides the Tame, or Temd, which, on the north-east, divides this county from Shropshire, and the Wye, which waters the west side, it has the Ithon, which rises in the northern borders of the county, forming its winding course to the southward, and, after having received several rivulets, falls into the Wye. Several other small rivers rise in the middle of the county, and run into Shropshire and Herefordshire; by which means this county is supplied with plenty of fish.

The principal towns in this county are the following:

Radnor, the county town, is seated near the spring-head of the little river Somergil, a hundred and forty-nine miles to the west-north-west of London. It stands in a pleasant valley at the foot of a hill, where a castle formerly stood, which was destroyed by Owen Glendour, when, upon the deposition of Richard II. he assumed the title of prince of Wales. The town is governed by a bailiff and twenty-five burgesses, and has a court of pleas for all actions, without being limited to any par-

ticular sum; yet the assizes are not held here, nor has the town a market.

Presteign is seated in a rich and pleasant valley, a hundred and forty-nine miles from London, and is a handsome town, with regular well built streets. It has several convenient inns, and its market is remarkable for barley, of which a great deal of malt is made. Here the assizes are held, and the county jail is kept.

S E C T. LV.

Of Cardiganshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Air, Soil, and principal Towns.

CARDIGANSHIRE, called by the Welsh Sir Aberteivy, is bounded on the north by a small part of Merionethshire and Montgomeryshire, on the east by Radnorshire and Brecknockshire, on the south by Carmarthenshire and a small part of Pembrokehire, and on the west by Cardigan bay in St. George's Channel. It extends forty-two miles in length and twenty in breadth, and is divided into five hundreds, which contain four market-towns, sixty-four parishes, about three thousand one hundred and sixty houses, and thirty-five thousand three hundred inhabitants. It lies in the diocese of St. David's, and sends two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for the town of Cardigan.

The air is milder here than in most part of Wales. To the south and west are plains fruitful in corn; but the northern and eastern parts are a continued ridge of mountains, which, compared with the rest, are bleak and barren: yet in the worst parts of this county there are pastures in which are bred flocks of sheep, and large herds of cattle. Here is also plenty of tame and wild fowl: also near the rivers are found great numbers of otters. In the valleys are several lakes, and this country is well supplied with sea and river fish. However, coals and other fuel are scarce; but the mountains abound with veins of lead and silver ore; a ton of which last will yield seventy or eighty ounces of silver. The mines have been worked several times to great advantage; and particularly Sir Hugh Middleton is said to have cleared two thousand pounds a month, for several years together, which enabled him to bring the New River water to London: however, some private adventurers have attempted to work them, but have failed for want of a sufficient capital.

The principal rivers are the Teivy, which rises from a lake of the same name, at the foot of the mountains on the eastern edge of Cardiganshire: at first it wanders, lost, as it were, among the rocks and stones with which this part of the country abounds, till beginning to have a regular channel, it runs to the south-west, and falls into St. George's channel below Cardigan. This river is famous for its great plenty of excellent salmon, and for its abounding with otters. The Rydal has its spring on the south-west side of Plinlymmon mountain, and runs south and south-west, till it falls into St. George's channel, jointly with the Istwyth, which rises beyond the lead mines on the north-east side of Cardiganshire.

Cardigan, the principal town, is called by the Welch, Aberteivy, from its being situated at the mouth of the Teivy, it is seated one hundred and ninety eight miles to the west-north-west of London, and is a large, ancient, and populous borough, with a good stone bridge over the river leading into Pembrokehire. The tide flows up to the town, and the chief trade of the inhabitants is to Ireland, to which, and other parts, they export lead. Cardigan was once defended by walls and a castle, but they are in ruins. It gives title of earl to a branch of the noble family of Montagu. The town is governed by a mayor and aldermen; here the county business is transacted, and the assizes held. The church is a handsome structure, as is also the town-hall.

Aberistwyth, a populous town seated on the river Rydal, near the place where it falls into the mouth of the river Istwyth, thirty miles to the north-east of Cardigan, and one hundred and ninety-nine to the west-north-west of London. It is but a poor town, consisting

consisting of about a hundred houses; yet has a considerable market on Mondays. It had formerly a castle and walls; but they have long since been decayed.

S E C T. LVI.

Of Pembrokeshire, its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

PEMBROKESHIRE, called by the Welch Penbroshire, is bounded on the north-east by Cardiganshire; on the east by Caermarthenshire; on the south by the mouth of Bristol channel; and on the west and north by St. George's channel; extending thirty-seven miles in length and eighteen in breadth.

This county is divided into seven hundreds, which contains one city, nine market towns, one hundred and forty three parishes; about four thousand three hundred houses, and twenty-five thousand nine hundred inhabitants. It lies in the diocese of St. David's, and sends three members to parliament, one for the county, one for Haverford-west, and another for Pembroke.

The air is better than is generally experienced in countries so much exposed to the sea. The soil is fertile: its few mountains, which are chiefly in the north-east part, yield pretty good pasture for cattle, and the parts near the sea afford plenty of good corn, and rich meadows. It likewise abounds in goats, and fowl, particularly in excellent falcons, in fish, and in pit-coal.

It is well watered with rivers; for besides the Teivy, which parts it from Caermarthenshire, are the Clethy, which rises at the foot of Wrenywaur hill, and running southward, joins the Dougledye. This last has its source near the middle of the county, and running towards the south-west, joins the Cledhewen, after which, turning towards the south-west, and passing by Haverford-west, it at length receives the Clethy, and at last falls into Milford-haven.

The principal places in this county are, St. David's, a city which stands on the most western promontory of all Wales, two hundred and seventy miles from London. It was not at first an episcopal see; but afterwards in the reign of king Arthur, became the metropolitan of all the churches in Wales, and thus continued till the reign of Henry I. when it became suffragan to the see of Canterbury. It was once a considerable city defended by walls; but these are demolished, and it is at present a small town thinly inhabited, without so much as a market. The cathedral is the remains of a venerable building; the west end which contains the choir, is still in good repair; but the east end has suffered so much from time and neglect, that the roof has fallen in.

From the point of land on which St. David's stands, may be distinguished in a clear day, the coast of Ireland, though it is near forty miles distant. Before this point lie several dangerous rocks called the Bishop and his Clerks, on which many ships have been lost. Near these is a little island named Ramsey, two miles in length, and a mile and a half in breadth.

Haverford-west is commodiously seated on the river Dougledye, over which is a stone bridge, fifteen miles south-by-east of St. David's, and two hundred and sixty-nine miles to the westward of London: is a large handsome place, with several good houses, and contains three parish churches, among which St. Mary's is a neat building, with a high spire. There is also a fourth church in the out parts. Haverford has a considerable trade and several ships belonging to it. It had formerly a wall and a castle, which are now demolished. The assizes and county jail are kept here, and it is governed by a mayor, alderman, and twenty-four common council; it has also a sheriff, a town clerk, two bailiffs, serjeants at mace, and other officers. The town and neighbourhood abound with gentry, who in politeness emulate Caermarthen, as that now does Haverford-west for trade and merchandize. There is here a free-school, a charity-school for boys and girls, and an alms-house.

Milford-haven, on which this town stands, is a large, safe, and most commodious harbour, capable of containing

a thousand ships at one time, without any danger of their running foul of each other. It has thirteen roads, sixteen creeks, and five bays, all of which have their particular names; and it has several years been improving and fortifying by order of the government, considerable sums having been granted by parliament for that purpose. The entrance into it may be known by three small islands on the north-west, all in sight, and the isle of Lundy on the south-east.

Pembroke, the county town, is commodiously seated on the innermost creek of Milford-haven, over two branches of which there are two handsome bridges. It stands two hundred and fourteen miles to the westward of London, and is surrounded with a wall which has three gates, and is also defended by a strong castle seated on a rock. It is well built and has two churches; as it is happily situated for commerce, the inhabitants carry on an extensive trade, and employ near two hundred ships on their own account; and besides merchants, several other considerable families reside there. It gives the title of earl to the noble family of Herbert, and is governed by a mayor and aldermen.

S E C T. LVII.

Of Caermarthenshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and a Description of Caermarthen.

CAERMARTHENSHIRE or Carmarthenshire is bounded on the north by Cardiganshire; on the east by Brecknockshire, and Glamorganshire; on the south by St. George's channel; and on the west by Pembrokeshire; extending forty-eight miles in length and twenty-five in breadth. It is divided into six hundreds, in which are contained eight market towns, one hundred and forty-five parishes, about five thousand three hundred and fifty houses, and seventeen thousand inhabitants. It lies in the diocese of St. David's, and sends two members to parliament, one for the county, and the other for the town of Caermarthen.

The air is generally esteemed salutary, and more mild in winter than in most of the neighbouring counties. As the land is less incumbered with rocks and mountains than the other parts of Wales, it is more fertile; it produces great plenty of corn and grass, and the rich meadows feed very fine cattle. This county also abounds in wood, pit coal, fowl, and fish, especially salmon, which is remarkably good here.

The principal rivers are the Toway, which rises in Cardiganshire, and entering the north-east side of this county, runs south and south-west, and at length falls into Bristol-channel. The Cotley rises near the north borders of Caermarthenshire, and running mostly southward joins the Toway. The Tave, or Teivy, rises in Cardiganshire, but soon becomes the boundary between that county and Caermarthenshire, till being joined by the little river Keach, it parts Cardiganshire and Pembrokeshire.

Caermarthen, or Carmarthen, the county town, is pleasantly seated, on the banks of the Toway, two hundred and fifty-one miles to the north west of London. The town is well built, populous, and daily encreasing. Hither the gentry of South Wales chiefly resort, invited by its pleasing situation, handsome buildings, and the plays and assemblies held here. It has a convenient quay for the lading and unlading of goods, and a handsome stone bridge over the river; but the inhabitants suffer from the sands thrown up by the sea in the mouth of the harbour. The town is governed by a mayor, two sheriffs, chosen out of the sixteen aldermen, a recorder, &c. who on solemn days appear in their scarlet gowns, with the sword, cap of maintenance, and two maces. It was once fortified with a wall and a strong castle, and at present gives title of marquis to the duke of Leeds, of the name of Osborne.

This was the birth-place of Merlin, the ancient British prophet, who flourished in 480, and about a mile from the town, by the road side, almost opposite to the bishop of St. David's palace, is Merlin's grove. The people

people in and about this town are reckoned the wealthiest and politest in all Wales.

S E C T. LVIII.

Of Brecknockshire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Divisions, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THIS county is called by the Welsh Breckiniauc, which the English have changed to Brecknock. The Welch name has been derived by some authors from Brechimus, a British prince famous for his twenty-four daughters, who, from the sanctity of their lives, were after their death esteemed saints. It is bounded on the north by Radnorshire, on the east by Herefordshire, on the south by Glamorganshire, and on the west by Caermarthenshire and Cardiganhire, extending thirty-nine miles in length, and twenty-seven in breadth.

This county is divided into six hundreds, and contains four market-towns, sixty-one parishes, and about thirty-five thousand three hundred inhabitants. It lies in the diocese of St. David's, and sends two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for Brecknock.

The air of this county, except on the mountains, is remarkably mild. It is indeed extremely mountainous, which renders travelling through it so disagreeable and dangerous, that the English who ride through it, ludicrously, but not very improperly, call it Break-neckshire; however, towards Radnorshire it is somewhat more low and level. The air on the mountains is, during the winter, extremely sharp, but salubrious. The valleys produce plenty of corn, and from the mountains great herds of cows and oxen are brought to England; this county also produces goats, some venison, and plenty of fowl.

The principal rivers in Brecknockshire are, the Usk, which rises from a spring on the side of the Black-mountain, on the south-west borders of the county, and running first to the north, and then to the east, passes into Monmouthshire. The Wye is the north-east boundary between this county and Radnorshire, after which it enters Herefordshire. The Irvon rises among the mountains on the north-west, and running first to the southward, and then to the north-east, falls into the Wye. Both these and the smaller rivers, are well stored with fish, particularly the Usk and the Wye, which abound with salmon and trout.

We ought not here to omit Brecknock-meer, a lake in the middle of the county, between two and three miles over, so full of fish, that the inhabitants commonly say, that there are only two thirds of water to one of fish.

We shall now give a concise description of the chief towns of this county.

Brecon, or Brecknock, the capital of the county, is called by the Welch Aber-Hodney, it being seated at the confluence of the Hodney and the Usk, one hundred and sixty-one miles to the westward of London. It is an ancient and large town, containing three churches, one of which is collegiate, and stands at the west end. The houses are well built, it has a good stone bridge, and it had formerly a wall with three gates, and a stately castle. The assizes are kept here, and it has a pretty good trade in woollen manufactures. It has a market on Saturdays, which is well supplied with corn, cattle, and provisions.

It is governed by two bailiffs, fifteen aldermen, two chamberlains, two constables, and a town-clerk.

Bealt, Bealth, or Builth, is pleasantly seated in a woody country, on the banks of the river Wye, sixteen miles to the north of Brecknock, and has a wooden bridge over the river, leading into Radnorshire. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in the stocking manufacture. The market is well supplied with cattle on Mondays, and on Saturdays with corn, and all sorts of provisions.

Hay, called by the Welch, Tregelly, is seated on the Wye, near the borders of Herefordshire, one hundred and thirty-four miles to the westward of London, and is a pretty good town, with a market on Mondays, well supplied with provisions.

S E C T. LIX.

Of Glamorganshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

GLAMORGANSHIRE, the last county in Wales we have now to describe, is bounded on the north by Brecknockshire, on the east by Monmouthshire, on the south by Bristol-channel, and on the west by that channel and Caermarthenshire, extending twenty-seven miles in length, and twenty-five in breadth.

It is divided into ten hundreds, in which are contained nine market-towns, one hundred and eighteen parishes, twenty-five castles, about ten thousand houses, and fifty-eight thousand inhabitants. It lies in the diocese of Landaff, and sends two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for the town of Cardiff.

On the north side of this county, where it is mountainous, the long continuance of the snow renders the air sharp; but the country being more level on the south side, it is milder, more populous, and bears very large crops of corn, with very sweet grass; whence it is called the Garden of Wales. Cattle abound in all parts, there being fruitful valleys among the mountains, that yield very good pasture. Its other commodities are lead, coals, butter, and fish.

The principal rivers of this county are the Avon, which rises among the mountains in the north of Glamorganshire, and falls into Bristol-channel. The Rumney, which rises in Brecknockshire, but soon entering this county, is the boundary between it and Monmouthshire, and falls into the mouth of the Severn. The Taff, Taffe, or Tave, which also rises in Brecknockshire, and runs near the eastern side of Glamorganshire, to the mouth of the Severn. The Ogmore rises from a spring in the northern borders of this county, and running to the southward, through the middle of Glamorganshire, falls into Bristol-channel. The Tavye rises at the foot of the Black-mountain in Brecknockshire, and entering this county at the north-west, runs mostly southward, till it enters Bristol-channel at Swansey. These, with the many rivulets running into them, render this county so fertile, and at the same time supply the inhabitants with great variety of fish.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Landaff, is seated on an ascent, by the river Tave, near Cardiff, one hundred and sixty-three miles to the west of London: but though it is the see of a bishop, and is therefore stiled a city, it has not so much as a market. The cathedral is however, a neat ancient building.

Cardiff, or Caerdiff, is seated on the river Tave, two miles to the south of Landaff, and is a handsome, populous trading town. It has a castle, a wall, and four gates, with a bridge over the river. The neighbouring country is fruitful, and four miles below the town is a commodious haven in Bristol-channel, from which small vessels may come up to the bridge. It contains two parishes, and about three hundred houses, formed into broad paved streets. The constable of the castle is chief magistrate, and called mayor, besides whom there are a recorder, twelve aldermen, twelve common-council, two serjeants at mace, and eight constables. Here the assizes and sessions for the county are held. The town carries on a considerable trade with Bristol.

Caerfilly, or Caerphilly, is seated between the rivers Tave and Rumney, five miles to the north of Landaff. It stands in a moorish ground among the hills; and the many Roman coins dug up here, render it probable that the walls were built by the Romans. The castle is one of the noblest pieces of ruins in the whole island. It was larger than any castle in England, that of Windsor excepted; and from what remains of it, was extremely beautiful. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, but the other over-hangs its basis more than nine feet, and is as great a curiosity as the leaning tower of Pisa in Italy.

Neath, is seated on a river of the same name, over which there is a bridge, one hundred and ninety-five miles

miles to the westward of London. It is an ancient and pretty large town, governed by a portreve, who is sworn in by the deputy constable of the castle of Neath. Small vessels come to this town to load coals, which are here in great plenty. On the other side of the river are the ruins of a fine monastery; but a large structure belonging to it is kept in good repair.

Swansey is a sea-port town, commodiously seated on the sea-shore, near the mouth of the river Tavye, in the fifty-first degree forty minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree five minutes west longitude. It is a large, clean, and well built town, governed by a portreve, a chief, twelve aldermen, two chamberlains, and sixty or seventy common-council-men. The streets are broad and paved, and it has two churches, and an old castle. It has the best trade of any town in the county, especial-

ly for coals, which are sent by sea to Somersetshire, Devonshire, Cornwall, and even to Ireland; a hundred sail of ships being often seen here at a time loading of coals. Mineral waters were some years ago discovered at Swansey, which are said to be of great efficacy in fluxes, hæmorrhages, diabetes, palsies, rheumatisms, and other distempers.

Among the many antiquities of Glamorganshire, one of the most singular is in the western part of the county called Gower, where, on a mountain named Kevyn-Bryn, is a stone of an immense size, computed to weigh near twenty ton, laid upon several others by way of supporters. They are all of the mill-stone sort, and though the upper one is of such a prodigious size, several tons have been broke off for mill-stones. It is commonly known by the name of Arthur's stone.

C H A P. XXX.

OF NORTH BRITAIN, or SCOTLAND, with its Islands.

S E C T. I.

Its Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, Air, Soil, Produce, Lakes, and Rivers.

SCOTLAND, which since the Union has been called North-Britain, is the northern part of this Island, which in the fifth of queen Anne, in 1707, was by the consent of the parliaments of both kingdoms united to England; and they being thus joined, the whole island is stiled Great-Britain.

Thus all the northern part of this island beyond the counties of Cumberland and Northumberland, belongs to Scotland, together with a multitude of islands, which amount to about three hundred; but some of them are very inconsiderable. This country is bounded on all sides by the ocean, except on the south, where it is separated from England, beginning at the east, by the river Tweed, Cheviot-hills, the river Ersk, and Solway Frith. It is generally reckoned to extend three hundred and eighty miles in length, from Aldermouth-head, near the isle of Mull, to Buchaness, and one hundred and ninety in breadth, where broadest. The coast is much indented, and the land in several places nearly cut through by bays, gulphs, and rivers, the first of which form excellent harbours, and the latter abound with fresh water fish.

North-Britain, exclusive of its islands, lies between the fifty-fourth degree forty minutes, and the fifty-eighth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and between the first degree thirty minutes, and the sixth degree west longitude. The longest day is upwards of eighteen hours, and the shortest five hours forty-five minutes: but the brightness of the northern lights in a great measure remedy the inconvenience of the short days of winter.

The air is very temperate, and not half so cold as might be imagined from its being seated so far to the north. This, as in England, is owing to the warm vapours and moderate breezes that continually come from the sea; which also serve to purify the air, and put it in such a constant agitation, as preserves the inhabitants from any remarkable epidemic diseases.

Great part of the country, particularly towards the north and west, is mountainous, and covered with heath; this is called the Highlands, but these in several places yield good pasture: between the higher grounds are many rich valleys, which produce corn and cattle. Indeed the south parts of Scotland are far preferable to the north parts of England, and there are every where all things necessary for human life; and not only sufficient for the inhabitants, but also to export. They do not want wheat, but the grain mostly cultivated is oats, as it will grow in the mountainous parts. The productions in

Scotland are in general much the same as in England. In the Lowlands there is little timber, but in the more northern parts there are forests of fir-trees, that might afford masts for the largest men of war; but it is difficult to bring them to the sea-side. There are also many large woods of oaks, ashes, and elms, fit for building, and abundance of fruit-trees in their gardens and orchards. The soil likewise in many places produces great plenty of hemp and flax. They have coal-pits, which afford excellent coal, great quantities of which are brought to London, where it is known by the name of Scotch-coal. This is their fuel in several parts; but in the Highlands they burn wood, and in other places turf, peat, heath, broom, and furze. They have likewise mines of lead, with quarries of free-stone, and the latter in such plenty, that most of the principal towns are built with nothing else.

The country abounds in flocks of sheep, many of which are sent into England, as is the greatest part of their wool. It has also great herds of cattle, which are generally black, except in corn soils, and these are much larger than those bred in other parts: but in general, their sheep and horned cattle are much smaller than those of England, and their flesh is very sweet. The Highlanders annually bring great numbers of them into the Lowlands, where some are fatted; but the bulk of them, with many of those bred in the Lowlands, are sent into several parts of England, especially to St. Faith's, near Norwich, where they turn to good account.

They have also many hogs, and an incredible number of goats, particularly in the north and the Highlands; the latter they eat themselves, but the hogs they for the most part pickle and export, as they likewise do great quantities of salt beef. In the southern parts there are no deer, except in gentlemen's parks; but every where else they are in great plenty.

They breed great numbers of horses, especially in Galloway and the Highlands. These, tho' small, are hardy and capable of great fatigue, and are therefore extremely proper for a mountainous country, which in many places will not admit of carriages and teams: these will thrive upon what would starve other horses. However, in many places of the Lowlands, they breed horses fit for coaches and other carriages, and for war.

Scotland has not only plenty of the domestic fowl common in other countries, but many other kinds, especially in the islands, where they are so numerous, that the inhabitants can neither consume nor vend half of them. Their fowl and eggs afford a considerable trade for food, and their feathers for bedding, and other uses. Their fat is likewise used by the inhabitants, not only in many cases where it is necessary, but likewise for physic.

Besides the fresh-water fish found in the lakes and rivers, several of the islands are frequented by whales; and cod, ling, haddock, sturgeon, turbot, mackerel, skate, sea-urchins, cat-fish, &c. are caught in great plenty on all their coasts. Lobsters, crabs, and oysters, are found in vast quantities on the Western Islands; and cockles, mussels, limpets, wilks, scallops, and spouts, are cast by the tide in such numbers on the isles, that the people cannot consume them.

In this country springs of clear and wholesome water are every where in plenty, not only on the sides, but on the tops of many of the mountains. These in their descent swell into pleasant rills, and augmenting their streams become rivers. Many of these meeting with hollow places in their passage, expand themselves into lakes, till finding a proper channel they resume their form of rivers, and, as the nature of the soil directs, sometimes expand themselves again and again, or continue their progress in the same form to the sea.

The most remarkable lochs or lakes in Scotland are Lochtay, Lochness, and Lochleven, which send forth rivers of the same name with themselves; Lochlomond, which sends forth the river Lomond; and Lochiern, from which flows the river Iern. There is a lake in Straitherrach, which never freezes, however severe the frost, till February, and then in one night it freezes all over, and if it continues two nights, the ice grows very thick. Another lake at a place called Glencanich, is seated on a high ground between the tops of two mountains, and it is remarkable that the middle of this lake is always frozen throughout the summer, notwithstanding the strong reflection of the sun-beams from the mountains, which melts the ice at the sides of the lake. Round the lake the ground has a constant verdure, as if it enjoyed a perpetual spring; and by feeding on that grass, cattle grow sooner fat than any where else.

In Linlithgowshire is a lake called Lochcoat, from whence a stream runs under a neighbouring mountain, and after it has pursued its course about two hundred paces, issues with great force from a spring about three feet broad, when it forms a stream that turns a mill.

The capital rivers, particularly the Forth, Clyde, Tay, and Ness, &c. divide the country into peninsulas; these running so far within land as to be intercepted only by a small isthmus, or neck of land. These and the other rivers, which are very numerous, will be particularly treated of in our description of the countries through which they pass.

SECT. II.

Of the Government, Religion, Fisheries, and Trade of North Britain.

THE parliament of Scotland being now mingled with that of Great-Britain, there are sixteen peers chosen out of the nobility who represent that body, and forty-five members who represent the following shires and districts.

The shires which since the Union send one member each to parliament, are, 1. Aberdeen, 2. Aire, 3. Argyle, 4. Bamff, 5. Berwick, 6. Bute and Caithness, by turns, 7. Clackmannam, 8. Dumbarton, 9. Dumfries, 10. Edinburgh, 11. Elgin, 12. Fife, 13. Forfar, 14. Haddington, 15. Inverness, 16. Kincardine, 17. Kircudbright, 18. Lanerk, 19. Linlithgow, 20. Nairn, 21. Orkney and Zetland, 22. Peebles, 23. Perth, 24. Renfrew, 25. Ross, 26. Roxburgh, 27. Selkirk, 28. Stirling, 29. Sutherland, and 30. Wigton.

Besides these there are the following fifteen districts of royal burghs, which alternately send one member to parliament. 1. Aire, Irwin, Rothsay, Inverary, and Campbell-town. 2. Bamff, Elgin, Cullen, Kintore, and Inverury. 3. The city of Edinburgh. 4. Forreß, Nairn, Inverness, and Fortrose. 5. Pittenweem, East-Anstruther, West-Anstruther, Craile, and Kilrennie. 6. Inverkeithing, Stirling, Dumferling, Culroß, and Queensferry. 7. Brunt-island, Dysert, Kirkaldy, and Kinghorn. 8. Dundee, Perth, St. Andrew's, Cowpar, and Forfar. 9. Montrose, Aberdeen, Brechin, Aberbro-

thock, and Inverbervey. 10. Kircudbright, Dumfries, Lochmaban, Annan, and Sanquhar. 11. Lanerk, Linlithgow, Selkirk, and Peebles. 12. Renfrew, Glasgow, Ruglen, and Dumbarton. 13. Dingwall, Tayne, Dornock, Weik, and Kirkwall. 14. Jedburgh, Haddington, Dunbar, North-Berwick, and Lauder. 15. Wigton, Whithorn, New-Galloway, and Stranroer.

The courts of civil judicature in Scotland are,

The college of justice, commonly called the session, which consists of a president, and fourteen fixed senators or judges, called ordinary lords of session, with two extraordinary lords. Under these are seven clerks of session, and six inferior officers. Before this court are tried at stated times, all civil causes, which they determine by acts of parliament, and the custom of the nation; and where these are defective, they decide according to the civil law, and the rules of equity. There lies no appeal from this court but to the parliament; and the presence of nine judges is required to make their decrees valid.

The justiciary, usually called the justice or criminal court, consists of five lords of the session, the justice-general, and justice-clerk. These are joined by a pannel of fifteen out of forty-five, cited like juries in England, by whom all causes of a criminal nature are tried. They hold assizes all over the kingdom twice every year, and from thence are called lords of the circuit.

The court of exchequer, which is like that of England, and consists of a chief and four other barons, &c.

The court of chancery. The officers of state are, the keeper of the seal, the lord privy-seal, the lord clerk-register, and the lord advocate.

Besides the above national judges, every county or shire has a chief magistrate or his deputy, who is ordinary judge in all civil and criminal causes; but, in most cases, an appeal lies from this magistrate to the session and court of justiciary. The sheriff is in effect the supreme justice of peace, to whom the law principally intrusts the securing the quiet and tranquility of that part of the kingdom of which he is sheriff. Bailiffs, stewards, and constables, in their respective districts, have the same liberty as sheriffs in their shires.

There are two sorts of burghs, namely royal burghs, and burghs of barony, each of which is a corporation, and holds courts, though none but the royal burghs send members to parliament. The royal burghs are one entire body, governed by one general court, called, The Convention of Burrows, which is generally held every year at Edinburgh, and has cognizance of every thing relating to the trade and interest of all the burghs in general. As to the burghs of barony, every one that holds a barony of the crown, has a court, in which lesser causes, both civil and criminal, are tried.

The court of admiralty is a supreme court, in which all maritime causes, crimes, trespasses, quarrels, &c. may be tried before the lord high admiral's judge, for he himself never judges; he forms his decisions on the civil law, and the customs of Scotland.

There are also in Scotland what are called commissariot courts, which are a kind of ecclesiastical courts, in which causes are tried by commissaries. The principal of these is at Edinburgh. The four commissaries of that metropolis particularly try causes of matrimony and adultery, in order to a plenary divorce, so that the innocent person may marry, as if the offending party were naturally dead.

The established religion is called the Presbyterian; it being a church government by pastors, teachers, elders, and deacons. The ecclesiastical courts are the four following:

I. The General Assembly, which is the highest ecclesiastical court in the kingdom, meets annually in May, and sits about ten days. A lord commissioner, who is always a nobleman of the first quality, presides here, as a representative of the king's person. All the members are annually elected, and the moderator of the last year's assembly opens the new sessions with a sermon.

II. The Provincial Synod, which is composed of the members of several adjacent presbyteries, meets twice a year, at a principal place within the bounds, and is opened by a sermon. Their business is to receive correspondents;

respondents from the neighbouring synods, who are a check upon one another; to determine appeals from the presbyteries within their district; and to enquire into and censure the behaviour of the presbyteries themselves. They have likewise power to remove a minister from one place to another: but appeals lie from this synod to the general assembly.

The Presbytery, which consists of a minister and one elder from five to ten or more neighbouring parishes, who, being assembled, chuse one of the ministers to be præses, or moderator. Here are tried appeals from the Kirk-session; and here they inspect into the behaviour of the ministers and elders within their respective bounds. They supply vacant parishes, ordain pastors, examine and license school-masters and young students for probationary preachers; and judge when or on whom to inflict the greater excommunication.

IV. The Kirk-Session consists of the minister, elders, and deacons in each parish, who consider the affairs of the parish as a religious society. They judge in all lesser matters esteemed scandalous, can suspend from the communion, and regulate every thing relating to public worship and the poor.

The number of kirks or churches in Scotland amounts to about nine hundred and fifty, besides a few chapels, which make up sixty-eight presbyteries, included in thirteen provincial synods.

The law of Scotland has provided against pluralities, and throughout the whole country there are no benefices worth less than fifty pound sterling per annum; which in that country is a good maintenance, nor any that exceed a hundred and fifty pounds a year.

There are here however several sects of dissenters from the established worship, the principal of which are the Episcopalians, who use the form of prayer of the church of England: but the nonjurors among these are not permitted to have public meeting-houses, but are only suffered to preach and read the divine service to very small congregations; while those who take the oaths, and pray for his majesty in express terms, have meeting-houses. There are also the Erskinites and Gibbonites, so called from the ministers of those names, who have broke off from the church of Scotland, and upon that account they are also called Seceders. There are likewise Mountaineers, thus named from their preaching in the open fields, and on the mountains; these are also called Covenanters.

From the government and religion of North-Britain, we shall proceed to its trade. The Scots plaids are a manufacture in which they exceed all other nations, both as to colour and fineness; they have likewise manufactures of various other woollen stuffs; but the principal articles are linen cloth, which is greatly encouraged and improved; cambricks, muslins, striped, flowered, and plain. The salt of Scotland, which is principally made in what they call pans or caldrons, is said to be better and stronger than that of Shields and Newcastle, and cures fish to greater advantage; whence it is so valued abroad, that great quantities of it are annually exported to Norway, Germany, and the Baltic.

The fisheries of Scotland are very considerable, and of great advantage to the people, particularly that of salmon, cod, and herrings, all of which employ a vast number of hands, and are barrelled and exported in great quantities to the continent. Indeed Scotland has the advantage of catching herrings sooner, and curing them at a less expence than England: their situation for exporting them is likewise extremely commodious, so that they can be sooner at market than the Dutch; those belonging to the Glasgow merchants sooner arriving on the coasts of Spain, Portugal, and up the Streights, as the merchants of Dundee, Aberdeen, &c. can sooner reach the Baltic.

As it was agreed at the Union that the subjects of the united kingdom shall have free trade belonging to either, to be regulated as in England, the Scots merchants not only trade to all parts of Europe, but to our plantations in America; from whence they bring great quantities of tobacco, sugar, drugs, &c. and what they do not sell at home, export to the different countries of Europe.

In short, Scotland is said to have this advantage to boast, which neither England nor any nation in Europe

has, namely, that in every branch of its trade with other countries, the balance is on its side, that is, the Scots send out to every country more commodities than they receive back, and consequently the difference or overplus must be made good in specie.

We shall now refer our readers for a farther account of Scotland, to the beginning of the account we have given of Great Britain in general, and conclude this section with observing, that Scotland is divided into thirty-three shires, or counties; these are the shires of Berwick, Haddington, Edinburgh, Roxborough, Selkirk, Peebles, Lanerk, Dumfries, Wigtown, Aire, Dumbarton, Bute, Caithness, Renfrew, Sterling, Linlithgow, Perth, Kincardin, Aberdeen, Inverness, Nairne, Cromartie, Argyle, Fife, Forfar, Bamff, Kirkcudbright, Sutherland, Clacmanan, Kinross, Ross, Elgin, and Orkney.

SECT. III.

Of Berwickshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Soil, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS county received its name from Berwick upon Tweed, which once belonged to it; but it was originally termed the Mers, or March, from its being the boundary between England and Scotland. It lies to the south-east of all Scotland, and is bounded on the east by the North sea; on the south by the Tweed and Tiviot-dale; on the west by Tweedale, in Peebleshire; and on the north by East Lothian, in Haddingtonshire; extending about thirty miles in length, and containing two presbyteries, and thirty-five parish-churches.

This county is divided into three parts, namely, Mers, Lammermoor, and Lauderdale. The Mers is a pleasant low ground, open to the influence of the sun, and guarded from storms by Lammermoor; hence the soil is fruitful, abounding with corn and pulse, but especially hay.

Lammermoor is a tract of hills on the north side of the shire, above sixteen miles long, and at least six in breadth, which, though to appearance barren, feed multitudes of sheep and black cattle. In the summer season it is particularly noted for pasturage, and for affording plenty of moor-fowl, partridges, plover, dotterels, and other game.

Lauderdale is a tract lying on each side the water of Lauder, abounding in hills, woods, and pleasant valleys. It belongs to the crown, and is governed by a bailiff; which office is annexed to the noble family of Lauderdale.

In short, the shire of Berwick is in general very fertile in corn and grass. It abounds with black cattle, sheep, and horses. The most fruitful and populous parts are those that lie on the Tweed, and the lesser rivers White-water, Black-water, and the Eye. The fuel of the common people is turf and peat, but the gentry have coals from Northumberland.

As the duke of Richmond derives his title of earl of March from the marches or borders of Wales, so this county of the Mers, or March, the borders of Scotland, gives title of earl to the noble family of Douglas.

It is observable, that on entering the borders of Scotland, the first town you reach is almost as perfectly Scots, as if you were a hundred miles north of Edinburgh; and there is very little appearance of any thing English, either in the customs or habits of the people, or their way of living, eating, or behaviour: nor are there many English families to be found among them. On the contrary, in the towns of Northumberland and Cumberland, next to Scotland, there are abundance of Scotsmen, Scots customs, words, and habits.

We shall now describe the principal towns in this shire.

Duns, a burgh famous for giving birth to that celebrated schoolman John Duns Scotus, who was born in 1274, became the greatest scholar of that age, and was styled The subtle doctor. It is seated twelve miles to the west of Berwick upon Tweed, and is a pretty large populous town, which has the best trade of any in the county.

county. It stands on a rising ground in the center of the shire, and is the seat of a presbytery, to which belong eleven parishes. Its market is said to be the best in all Scotland for horses, cows, and sheep.

Coldingham stands near the coast, and is famous for an ancient abbey, built about the year 1100, the remains of which are used for a parish church. Ebba, its lady abbess, on there being a Danish invasion, slit her nose, cut off her upper lip, and persuaded all her nuns to do the same, that their deformity might prevent their being ravished by the Danes; upon which those barbarians were so exasperated, that they fired the nunnery, and burnt them all alive. This abbess was afterwards sainted, and a neighbouring promontory is from her called St. Ebba's-head, and by the sailors St. Tabbe's. In the adjacent moor there is not a hedge or tree to be seen for the space of eight miles.

Greenlaw, the chief burgh of the shire belonging to the earl of Marchmont, stands about five miles from Duns; and in its neighbourhood that nobleman has a fine seat.

Lauder, an ancient royal burgh, the capital of Lauderdale, is pleasantly seated on a river of the same name, which runs through it, twenty-two miles to the south of Edinburgh. It has a bridge over the river, is the seat of the commissariat, and has a good market.

From the long valley of this name on both sides the river Lauder, the family of Maitland takes the title of earl; and there is a stately seat on the river, in the neighbourhood of the town, called Lauderforth, which belongs to the earl of Lauderdale.

S E C T. IV.

Of Haddington, or East Lothian; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Places.

THIS shire is bounded on the north and east by the Firth; on the south by the hills of Lammermoor, in Berwickshire; and on the west by Mid Lothian, or Edinburghshire. According to some authors it is only thirteen, and according to others twenty-two miles in length, and twelve in breadth.

East Lothian produces corn of all sorts, and has plenty of grass, coal, and limestone, with some considerable woods. It feeds a great number of sheep, especially about the hills of Lammermoor and by West Lammerlaw; and from the west part to the sea it abounds with rabbits. A great deal of salt is made here, and there was a considerable manufacture of broad-cloth made by English workmen, and with English wool; but after the Union the English clothiers poured in such quantities of cloth, that they underfold the Scots, and thus the manufacture was dropt; yet the people employ themselves in spinning, dying, weaving, &c. Here are several convenient harbours, with the advantage of some fishing-towns; and particularly there is every year a herring fishery after Lammas at Dunbar, where they take enough both for home consumption and exportation.

The principal towns in this shire are Haddington and Dunbar.

Haddington, or Hadina, the shire town, is a royal burgh, pleasantly seated on the Tyne, over which it has a handsome bridge with three large arches. It stands eighteen miles to the west of Edinburgh, and is pretty large, well built, with some very good houses; the streets are well paved; it has a good market, and is the seat of a presbytery, consisting of sixteen parishes. Here are the remains of an ancient nunnery, and of a good church built of hewn stone, to which adjoins the chapel of the family of Lauderdale, with theirs and other very noble tombs, but the choir of the church is pulled down. This town gives title of earl to a branch of the noble family of Hamilton, which has large possessions and fine seats in the neighbourhood. No place in Scotland is surrounded with more little towns and houses of the nobility and gentry than this; among which Yester, the mansion-house of the earl of Tweeddale, deserves particular notice.

There is here a noble plantation of fir-trees, which is said to take up six thousand acres. The park itself is about six miles round, and encompassed by a very handsome wall. This noble palace stands about half a mile from the park-gate, to which you go by a paved coach-way through a thicket. The building is of free-stone, a hundred and twenty feet in front, and sixty feet deep, with a pavilion or wing. The offices under ground are very noble and vaulted, with paved galleries of communication. There is an ascent to the house of six or eight steps, which lead to a large hall thirty-six feet high; behind it is a saloon from the garden of the same height, and at the top is a gallery for music, which opens into both, exactly as at Blenheim-house, near Woodstock. The rooms of state, which run on each side of this saloon fronting the garden, are very noble and of an exact symmetry. A mathematical stone staircase, with an iron balustrade, leads up to the apartments above.

The garden behind the house is very spacious, rising up by an easy ascent to the park. In the middle of the parterre is a handsome basin with a jet-d'eau, and four good statues, one at each corner. There are abundance of ever-greens, and green slopes; and to the west of the garden, on an artificial mount, is a pleasant summer-house. The green-house joins the pavilion to the west, as does the laundry to the east. A pretty large stream runs by the house, and from its murmuring as it passes through the thick groves in the park, gives the whole a very rural appearance. By the river side is a pretty bowling-green. The coach-houses, stables, and hen-house are at a distance in the park, as is the custom at the seats of the nobility in Scotland: for every nobleman's house has what is called the Mains, where their labourers, grooms, and every body belonging to the stables and poultry reside.

Dunbar, a royal burgh, is seated on the south side of the mouth of the river Firth, where is a good harbour, twenty-five miles to the east of Edinburgh. The town is handsome and well built; the houses, as in most of the principal towns, being all of stone covered with slate. It has been defended by a strong wall, which is now decayed; and on the opposite side of the haven are the ruins of a castle, almost covered with the sea at high tide: it was once remarkably strong, and was the seat of the earls of March, afterwards stiled earls of Dunbar. This fortress was often won by the English, and as often recovered by the Scots; but was demolished in 1656 by order of the commonwealth, to prevent its affording a retreat for the royalists. The port is very considerable, and of great advantage to all ships in the river, in case of stress of weather. The inhabitants have here a very considerable herring-fishery, and also one for whales.

Between the town and the great road stands a pleasant and agreeable seat of the duke of Roxborough, called Broxmouth. It is seated in the middle of a fine park, planted with large groves of trees between the building and the sea, and consists of a body and two wings, between which is a fine paved court; before the building is a good avenue, and behind is a spacious parterre adorned with statues.

From the town of Dunbar to Edinburgh the country may be reckoned as fruitful, rich, and pleasant, as any in Scotland, or indeed as most in England. The sea is on the east at a moderate distance, and the hills on the west are still farther off; these feed large flocks of sheep, and have many open roads over them leading towards England.

S E C T. V.

Of Mid-Lothian, or Edinburghshire; its Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a Description of Edinburgh, and of the other Places worthy of Notice; with an Account of the Island of Bass, and of the Solan Geese which resort thither.

THIS is the principal county in North Britain, both on account of its fertility and its containing the capital. It is bounded on the east by East Lothian for thirteen miles together; on the south-east by Berwickshire

shire for about four miles; on the south by the shire of Selkirk and Tweedale, in Peeblesshire, for thirteen miles; on the south-west by Lanerkshire for six or seven miles, and by the same on the west for two miles; on the north-west by Linlithgowshire for fourteen miles; and on the north by the Frith, or Forth, for eight miles: extending about twenty-one miles in length, and in some places sixteen or seventeen in breadth; but in others not above five or six.

Mid-Lothian is so fertile that it yields a great deal of corn of all sorts, with good pasture for cattle, and is provided with all necessities in abundance, particularly coals, limestone, and a kind of soft black marble; and near the water of Leith, some miles distance from Edinburgh, is a copper mine.

Edinburgh, the metropolis of North Britain, is situated in the fifty-fifth degree fifty-seven minutes north latitude, and in the second-degree fifty-five minutes west longitude; fifty-four miles west-north-west of Berwick upon Tweed, seventy-two north of Carlisle, two hundred and one north-north-west of York, and three hundred and ninety-three miles north-north-west of London. It is a city and county of itself, and was formerly the royal seat of the kings of Scotland. In this city also the parliaments were held, as are still the supreme courts of judicature. It stands two miles to the south of the port of Leith, and is seated upon the side of a high hill, or rather a narrow ridge. At the extremity of the east end of the city is the palace of Holy-Rood-house; leaving which a little to the left, you come through a populous suburb to the entrance, called the Water-port, and from hence proceeding to the west, the street goes on in a straight line, through the whole city, to the castle, extending above a mile in length; and is, perhaps, the largest, longest, and finest street for buildings and the number of its inhabitants in the world. From the gate of the palace, which stands on a level with the plain country, the street begins gradually to ascend; but is no where steep; yet the ascent being continued so far, the upper part must necessarily be very high; for the castle, which stands at the extremity west, as the palace does east, has on every side, except on that which joins it to the city, very steep and frightful precipices. The street is extremely well paved; but the ridge or top of the ascent is so narrow, that the street and the row of houses on each side take up the whole breadth; so that which way soever you turn, you immediately go down a steep descent; and these side lanes are called wynds. The houses are very large, and some of them so lofty, especially in the High-street, that five or six stories are but an ordinary height. Most of the houses being parted into tenements, they have as many landlords as stories. The fronting of houses with timber is now prohibited, on account of the many fires that have happened; and about eighty years ago the inhabitants were at the expence of bringing one of the best springs in Scotland into the city, by leaden pipes laid from a hill at three miles distance.

We shall now consider more particularly the buildings of the city. The royal palace, called Holy-Rood-house, from its being originally an abbey of that name, was first converted into a palace by king James V. and rebuilt by king Charles II. all but two towers on the north side of the entrance. It is a magnificent stone building in the form of a square, adorned with the several orders of architecture, and divided into four courts. The entrance is very grand, and over the gate is a large apartment, which the duke of Hamilton claims as hereditary keeper of the palace. Within this entrance is a large irregular court, where are coach-houses and stables. The entrance from the great outer court is adorned with columns, which support a cupola in the form of an imperial crown, balustraded on each side at the top. The inner court is very magnificent, and has piazzas all round, which lead into very noble apartments, richly furnished; among which is a gallery said to be adorned with the pictures of all the kings of Scotland, from Fergus their first king, three hundred and twenty years before the birth of Christ, to the Revolution. This palace is encompassed by beautiful gardens.

From the palace-gate westward the street is called Canongate, from the canons of the abbey formerly re-

siding there. This is a kind of suburb, in which are several magnificent houses of the nobility, with spacious gardens behind them. The city is parted from this suburb by the Netherbow-port, or gate, which was rebuilt in 1716, and adorned on both sides with towers, and a spire at the top. The city is enclosed on all sides, except towards the north, with a wall, where it is secured by a lake; and has six gates besides that just mentioned.

The great church, which was the cathedral, is a large and stately structure, in the form of a cross, now divided into four churches; here also the magistrates assemble, and the judges in their habits in time of session. In a large chapel in the south-west part of this church the general assembly hold their sessions, as does also the commission of the assembly, in the interval between the general meetings. This structure is adorned with a very high steeple, the summit of which resembles an imperial crown. Here they have a set of bells which are not rung as in England, for that is a manner of ringing unknown in this country; but all manner of tunes are played very musically upon them, and the city gives a man a yearly salary for playing upon them, from twelve to one every day, Sundays and holidays excepted. The four churches in this structure, with the rest, and the chapel in the cathedral, make twelve in all. There are also about twenty meeting-houses of the episcopal party.

On the south side of the great church is a square of very fine buildings, called the Parliament-close; the west and south sides of which are mostly taken up with the parliament-house, the several courts of justice, the council-chamber, the exchequer, the public registers, the court for the royal burghs, the lawyer's library, the post-office, &c. The east and part of the south side is built into private dwellings, which are magnificent and lofty, they being seven stories high to the front of the square; and the hill they stand on having a very steep descent, some of them are backwards no less than fourteen stories high. In the middle of this square is an equestrian statue of king Charles II.

The castle, which, as hath been already said, is seated at the west end of the city, is inaccessible on the north, west, and south; and the entrance from the city is defended by a round battery, and an out-work at the foot of it. In this structure is a royal palace, magnificently built with hewn-stone, in which are kept the regalia and the records of state. Here also is the magazine for the arms and ammunition of the public; and there are deep vaults in the rock, which are said to be bomb-proof. It is furnished with water by two wells in the rock; and has a chapel for the use of the garrison. The governor is always a person of the first quality, and general of the forces; and both he, the lieutenant-governor, foot-major, and other officers, have very handsome apartments. From the castle is a delightful prospect over the city and neighbouring country.

Near the Potter-row-port stands the college, or university, which consists of three courts, two lower and one higher, equal to the other two. These courts are encompassed with neat buildings, for the use of those students who choose to lodge in them; for they do not reside together nor live in common, but only attend their classes at certain hours. The public schools are large and commodious, with accommodations for the students, handsome dwellings for the professors, and fine gardens for their recreation. This university was founded in 1580 by king James VI. who established there a primate, or principal, a professor of divinity, four regents, or masters of philosophy, a professor of philology, and a regent of humanity. In 1640 the town added a professor of mathematics; to which have been lately added professors of ecclesiastical history, civil law, theoretical and practical medicine, chemistry, &c. They have a good library; which is kept in great order, the books given by its benefactors are kept by themselves, and over them is the donor's name in letters of gold; and above the books hang the pictures of several princes, with the most eminent reformers at home and abroad. Here is also a noble museum, in which is contained a prodigious number of curiosities both of art and nature. Under the library is a royal printing house, where they are chiefly employed in printing Bibles.

The physicians, who were incorporated in 1682 by king Charles II. have their college in Fountain-clofe, near the Netherbow. They are deservedly esteemed for their learning and abilities, in which they are at least equal to the physicians of any other country. They have a noble museum, called from its founder, Sir Andrew Balfour, M. D. Museum Balfourianum; and on the north side of the city they have a neat physic garden, containing some thousand exotic plants.

On the south side of the city is a large building belonging to the surgeons and apothecaries, in which is a spacious hall hung round with the pictures of all the eminent surgeons of Edinburgh that have flourished since this building was founded. They have a theatre for dissections, and a museum, in which are the skeletons of uncommon animals, a mummy, and other curiosities.

In this city are several hospitals, the chief of which is Heriot's, a large and beautiful building, said to be the most magnificent of the kind in the world. It is an exact square, with piazzas all round the inside. At the corners are square towers, adorned with little turrets. This is a nursery for an indefinite number of the sons of freemen, who are maintained, cloathed, and educated in useful learning, till they are fit to be put out apprentice, or to go to the university, where they are allowed handsome salaries. The gardens, which consist of a flower-garden, kitchen-garden, and orchard, are kept in great order, and, with the house, contain between nine and ten acres.

There are here also St. Thomas's hospital, in which old decayed citizens and their widows are maintained, and have their own chaplain; and a maiden hospital, a neat building close to the college, founded and endowed for the relief and education of the female orphans of decayed freemen. Another hospital of the same kind has been lately founded by the tradesmen and artificers of Edinburgh.

A royal infirmary has likewise been erected here, after the example of those of London, Bath, &c. by the liberal contribution of many well disposed persons; to this work the proprietors of quarries contributed stone and lime, the merchants timber, the farmers engaged to carry materials gratis, and even the journeymen masons and labourers contributed a certain portion of their labour.

The city is governed by a provost, whose office is much the same with that of the lord mayor of London; four bailiffs, who, besides the power of aldermen in the government of the city, have that of sheriffs; there is also a common-council, which usually consists of twenty-five persons, but on extraordinary occasions of thirty-eight. All these are chosen annually; and the provost, dean of guild, and treasurer, are to be merchants; or if any inferior tradesman be chosen, he must quit his trade, and not return to it without leave of the magistrates and town-council.

There are fourteen incorporated trades, each of which has its deacon, or master of the company; these are the surgeons, goldsmiths, skinners, farriers, hammermen, wrights, masons, taylor, bakers, butchers, cordwainers, weavers, wakers, or fullers, and bonnet-makers. But none of the merchants or traders are to make any by-laws, without the consent of the magistrates and town-council, except to choose their own deacons at the appointed time, to make persons free of their trade, or to try their work.

The trained-bands of the city consist of sixteen companies; besides which they have a standing company of town-guards.

There is in Edinburgh a very useful kind of black-guard boys, who attend at taverns, coffee-houses, and other places to go on errands, and know every body of any note in the town. Though they are in rags, and lie every night in the streets, or upon the stairs of the houses, yet they are considerably trusted, and seldom prove unfaithful. They are subject to a kind of magistrate, called the constable of the cawdies, who generally punishes them for any neglect or misdemeanor by a fine of ale or brandy; but sometimes corporally. Most of them are very acute, and execute whatever employment is assigned them with great speed and address.

Now leaving Edinburgh, we shall take a view of the other places in this county most worthy of notice.

Leith, which is the port of Edinburgh, is a large flourishing town in the fifty-fifth degree fifty-eight minutes north latitude, and in the second degree fifty-nine minutes west longitude, two miles to the north of Edinburgh. It lies on the firth of Forth, upon a river called the Water of Leith, which falls into the firth on the west side of the town. The river runs through the middle of the town, and over it is a stately stone bridge of one large arch, to which ships of burthen may come, and at high-water lay their sides close to the shore. Here is a very fine quay, well wharfed with stone, and fenced with piles. At the mouth of the harbour is a very long and well built pier, which runs out a great way beyond the land, and prevents the entrance of the harbour being filled with sand. It is also secured by strong ranges of piles, or counter-piers; and a beacon or mast is set up at low-water mark, for the convenience of navigation. The buildings on the south side opposite to the water are very lofty and handsome, they being generally about six stories high, with large sash windows. Here are commodious cellars and ware-houses for laying up goods, the merchants of Edinburgh having the bulk of all their commodities here in order to be ready for carriage either by land or sea: so that Leith is very properly called the ware-house, as well as the port of the city. Here are likewise glass-houses and saw-mills.

North Leith, which lies on the other side of the harbour, has docks for building and repairing of ships; with the ruins of a citadel built by Oliver Cromwell, and in part demolished by Charles II. The citizens of Edinburgh often come to Leith in coaches, or a-foot, for a walk on the mole, or other recreations; and at the numerous inns are good accommodations, at a reasonable rate.

Dalkeith is a pretty large and pleasant town, defended by a castle; it stands at the confluence of the two rivers Esk, six miles to the south-east of Edinburgh, and is the seat of a presbytery that contains ten parishes. Here is a noble palace built by the late duchess of Buccleugh; this is said to be the model of that which belonged to king William at Loo, in Guelderland, only this is of stone and that of brick. It stands on a rising ground by the North Esk, and commands the view of a large park, beautified with a canal and water-works. The front is adorned with columns of the Corinthian order, and it has a double wing at each end. Between the palace and park is a spacious court, surrounded with iron balustrades between pillars of free-stone. The grand staircase of the house is supported by marble columns, and every stair curiously inlaid with walnut-tree. This staircase leads into a noble room adorned with the pictures of all the beauties of the age, at whole length, in pannels. The offices of the palace join to the town.

We shall conclude this section with a description of the island of Bass, which stands within the Forth, about a mile from the south shore, forty-five miles to the east of Edinburgh. It is about a mile round, and is on every side a steep rock, it being only accessible by one at a time. It rises high above the sea in the form of a cone. At the top was a fort mounted with cannon; but since the Revolution it has been neglected. In the lower part the force of the tide has worn a hole almost through.

This rock is resorted to in May and June by incredible flocks of fowls, and then the surface of it is almost covered with their nests, eggs, and young birds. The best tasted of these different sorts of wild-fowl is the Solan geese. Before these birds come it is said they send some before to fix their mansions, for which reason they are called scouts. The inhabitants take care not to disturb them till they have built their nests, after which no noise will fright them. They lay but one egg in a year, and fix it so dexterously to the rock by one end, that if it be removed it is impossible to fix it again. They are said to hatch it with their foot, and scarce leave it till that be done. They are of an ash colour, but the old ones are all white. Their neck resembles that of the crane, and they have a strong sharp bill, between three and four inches long, which they strike through their prey with such

such violence, that it often sticks so fast in a board baited with a herring, that being unable to pull it out again, they are taken. They leave this place in September, but whither they retire in winter is unknown. People make great profit of the young ones, which are taken from their nests by a man let down the rock with a rope. When they come to be as big as ordinary geese they are very good meat, and yield a considerable profit by their flesh and feathers, which are used for beds.

S E C T. V.

Of the Shire of Roxburgh, Rosburgh, or Teviotdale; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Face of the Country, Produce, and principal Places.

THIS is a sheriffdom hereditary in the family of Douglas, by the title of sheriff of Teviotdale, it being thus called from the river Teviot running through it. It is bounded on the east by Northumberland, on the south-east by part of Cumberland, on the south and south-west by Anandale, and on the west by Tweeddale; extending thirty miles in length from east to west, and fifteen in breadth. It is divided into Teviotdale, Liddesdale, and Eusdale, or Eskdale, and has three presbyteries, to which belong twenty-five parishes; and, with the Mers, makes up a provincial synod of six presbyteries and seventy-one parishes.

This district has many mountains, of which the most famous is Cockraw, from whence runs a chain of hills westward, dividing Scotland from England, and in many places impassable; some of them are very high, but furnished with excellent grass, and have plenty of lime and free-stone. In short, this country produces good corn, particularly oats, great quantities of which are sent from hence to England: it has also excellent pasturage, and abounds with large black cattle, sheep, and horses.

The principal towns in this shire are Kelso and Jedburgh.

Kelso, which is a burgh of barony, is a large and very handsome town, pleasantly seated by the river Tweed on the borders of England, two hundred and fifty-six miles to the north-north-west of London. It is the seat of a presbytery, and a great thorough-fare from Edinburgh to Newcastle. It has the best trade of any town in this part of the country, and has a very good market kept in a large square of handsome houses: it has also some good streets, and a parish-church, that is the remains of an abbey of Cistercian monks. The duke of Roxburgh, who is stiled lord of the town, has a house in it, and a noble seat called Fleurs, with pleasant gardens, near the influx of the Teviot into the Tweed.

Jedburgh is a royal burgh, seated near the confluence of the Tefy and the Jed, from whence it takes its name, thirty miles from Edinburgh. It is a pretty large town, well inhabited, and the seat of a presbytery. It has a handsome church and town-hall, where the sheriff keeps his courts; with a good market for corn and cattle. It gives title of lord to the eldest son of the marquis of Lothian; and many persons of quality have seats in its neighbourhood.

The town of Roxburgh, which gives title of duke to the chief of the noble family of Ker, was antiently a royal burgh; but in the wars between England and Scotland its castle was razed, the town ruined, and its royalty transmitted to Jedburgh.

Melrofs, or Mailrofs, stands on the Tweed about nine miles from Jedburgh, and is the seat of a presbytery and a royalty belonging to the earl of Haddington. An abbey was founded here in 1136, and possessed by the Bernardine monks, and appears by its ruins to have been one of the noblest abbeys in Europe: the window over the great gate of the abbey, which is still intire, is larger than that of York minster, and round the top are the statues of our Saviour and the twelve apostles. The choir of the church, which is still visible, is a hundred and forty feet long.

S E C T. VI.

Of the Shire of Selkirk; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and a concise Description of the Town of Selkirk.

THIS county is bounded on the north by Tweeddale; in Peebleshire, and Mid-Lothian; on the east and south by Teviotdale, in Roxburghshire; on the west by Teviotdale, and part of Anandale, in the shire of Dumfries. According to Cambden its diameter is sixteen miles every way; but, according to others, it extends twenty-two miles in length, and only ten where broadest.

This county is also called the sheriffdom of Ettrick forest, from the river Ettrick, which runs through it, and is one of the principal rivers in the country; its other rivers most worthy of notice are the Yarrow and the Gallo-water.

The hills in Selkirkshire feed great herds of black cattle and flocks of sheep, with which the inhabitants carry on a good trade to England, and the meadows on the banks of the rivers produce corn and hay. It is said that in Glangebar-water in this county, and in other places, pieces of gold have been found in the shape of birds eyes and eggs. Here are several gentlemen's seats, and the chief families are the Pringles, Scots, and Kers.

Selkirk, which gives name to the shire, is a royal burgh on the banks of the river Ettrick, thirty-three miles to the south of Edinburgh, and gives title of earl to a branch of the noble family of Hamilton. It is the seat of a presbytery, which has eleven parishes under its jurisdiction, and here the sheriff keeps his court. The town has a handsome parish-church, a weekly market, and several fairs. The chief employment of the inhabitants is the making of boots and shoes.

In this shire are likewise Philiphaugh and Gallafields, each of which has a weekly market.

S E C T. VII.

Of Peebleshire, or Tweeddale; its Situation, Extent, Air, Mountains, Lakes, and Rivers; with a Description of the Town of Peebles.

THE shire of Peebles is called also Tweeddale, from the river Tweed, which rises at a place called Tweed's-cross, and runs from west to east through this country. Peebleshire is bounded on the east by the shire of Selkirk; on the south by Anandale, in the shire of Dumfries; on the west by Clydsdale; and on the north by Mid-Lothian; extending about twenty-eight miles in length, and eighteen where broadest. It contains seventeen parish-churches, which are all included in the presbytery of Peebles.

It enjoys a temperate and clear air. It is generally swelled with hills, many of which are as verdant as the downs of Sussex, and intermixed with pleasant vallies, fruitful in corn and grass. The chief mountain here is Braidalb, from whence may be seen the seas on both sides of the island. This shire has plenty of limestone; the grain is chiefly oats and barley: the inhabitants have black cattle, milk, cheese, and butter. The sheep feed in vast flocks on the hills, and are much prized both for their flesh and wool.

Several rivers which fall into the Tweed supply the country with plenty of salmon; and a lake, called the West Water-loch, so abounds with eels, and other fish, in the month of August, that, during the west wind, they are said to enter the river Yarrow, which runs from the lake, in such shoals, that they are ready to overturn the people who go in to catch them. There is another lake called Lochgenen, from its being seated on a hill named Genen, and from it a river runs that falls from a precipice into Anandale, the height of two hundred and fifty paces, so that fish are frequently killed by the fall of the water.

The only town of note here is Peebles, a royal burgh and market-town, seated in a very pleasant plain on the banks

banks of the Tweed, over which it has a stone bridge of five arches, and near a river of its own name, upon which it has two bridges. It stands twenty-two miles to the south of Edinburgh, and was formerly remarkable for its three churches, three gates, three streets, and three bridges; but the town is at present small, not very well built or inhabited, though it has some good houses, as well as a handsome parish-church, and is the seat of a presbytery.

S E C T. VIII.

Of the Shire of Lanerk, or Clydsdale; its Name, Situation, Extent, Divisions, Rivers, and Produce; with a particular Description of the City of Glasgow, and the other Places worthy of Notice.

THIS shire, which is called Lanerk from its shire town, and Clydsdale from the river Clyde, is bounded on the east by the shire of Linlithgow; on the south-east by Anandale; on the south by Dumfriesshire; on the south-west by that of Aire; on the north-west by that of Renfrew; on the north by that of Dumbarton; and on the north-east by Shropshire. It is generally reckoned forty miles in length, about twenty-four where broadest, and sixteen in the narrowest part. It is divided into two wards, the Upper and Nether ward; the one called the shire of Lanerk, and the other the barony of Glasgow: the one hilly, heathy, and fit for pasture; and the other level, and proper for corn.

The river Clyde, which runs through this shire into its own firth, arises in Errick-hill, in the Upper ward; and from the same hill rise the river Anan, which runs into the Irish sea, and the Tweed, which near the mouth of the firth falls into the German ocean.

This is a pleasant fruitful country, and, though in some places mountainous and in others woody, is well inhabited, especially near the Clyde. It abounds with coal and limestone, and has some profitable lead mines; gold has also been found in great quantities, though it does not appear that any of that valuable metal is ever found at present; and abundance of lapis-lazuli is dug up there, particularly in Crawford-moor.

The principal places in this shire are the following:

Glasgow, the second city in Scotland, is pleasantly seated on the side of a hill sloping to the river Clyde, in the fifty-fifth degree thirty two minutes north lat. and in the fourth degree five minutes west longitude, thirty-five miles to the west of Edinburgh. It has a noble and beautiful stone bridge over the river, which sometimes overflows its banks; and as one third of the city lies in a flat next the river, it is then overflowed. In the centre of Glasgow is the Tolbooth or town-house, a very magnificent structure of hewn stone, lately rebuilt, with noble apartments for the magistrates, and a very lofty tower, with bells which chime every hour. From this town house and the adjacent market place run the four principal streets of the city in the form of a cross, dividing the city into four equal parts, each adorned with several public buildings, and each said to be larger and finer than any one street in London; the houses being uniformly built of free stone, six stories high, and some more: they are for the most part adorned with columns of the Doric order, have beautiful piazzas, and are well fashioned. From the centre the whole city may be seen; and the streets are spacious, straight, and well paved.

In the higher part of the city, and at the end of one of the streets, stands the cathedral, a vast pile dedicated to St. Mungo, who was bishop here about the year 560. It is divided into two churches, one over the other, called the upper and lower; and its several rows of pillars and exceeding high towers, with the tall spire, the highest in Scotland, rising from one of the towers, shew the extraordinary skill of the architect. Here are five other very good churches, all of them neatly built, with handsome steeples. Besides these places of worship there are convenient apartments for the meeting of the presbytery, which consists of nineteen parishes, and for the provincial synod, which consists of 127.

Near the cathedral is a ruinous castle, which in the time of Episcopacy was the palace of the archbishop, who was lord of the city, and gave it its first charter. It is fenced in with a very high wall of hewn stone, and has a fine prospect of the whole city.

The glory of the city is its university, which indeed consists of only one college; but it is by far the best, the most spacious, and the finest built in Scotland. It consists of two large squares of noble and lofty stone buildings, adorned with a high tower, and many fine turrets, and is separated from the rest of the town by a very high wall. The front towards the city is a noble piece of architecture. This university was founded by king James I. in 1453. By the first foundation it was under the government of a rector, a dean of the faculty, a principal or warden, who was to teach theology, three professors of philosophy, and afterwards some of the clergy taught the civil and canon law. King James VI. granted it a new charter, and in 1617 established a principal, three professors of philosophy called regents, four pursers, a steward or surveyor to furnish the table, &c. and several of the succeeding kings ratified its privileges, and were benefactors to the university. The library is furnished with many curious printed books and valuable manuscripts. The precincts of the college are enlarged by some acres of ground, purchased by the king and parliament; these are converted into well planted walks and gardens, one of which is for medicinal plants. The university makes use of the same arms as the city, which are a salmon with a gold ring in its mouth; an oak, with a red bird upon it, and a bell. The scholars wear scarlet gowns, and here lodge in the college, which at Edinburgh they do not. The principal, regents, and masters, have all handsome apartments, and good salaries.

Though the river is navigable for small vessels up to the town; yet New-Glasgow at the mouth of the Clyde, is the harbour for all those that are of considerable burthen, it having a good quay and a custom house for all the coast; ships are also laid up here and refitted, and the goods are brought from thence to the city in lighters. The merchants of Glasgow annually send about fifty ships to Virginia, New England, and other English colonies in America. They have also a very considerable trade in herrings, which they export to Spain and Portugal. The city has likewise a manufacture of plaids and muslins. It gives title of earl to the honourable family of Boyle; and in this city has been lately erected a noble foundation under the name of the Glasgow charitable marine society, in order to provide for such seamen as shall become old and disabled in the merchants service, and to afford relief to their widows and children.

Hamilton is seated near the confluence of the Avon and Clyde, eleven miles to the south-west of Glasgow, and is a well built town, with a bridge over the Avon, and a handsome parish church. It is larger than most of the royal burghs, and the houses, which are built with free stone, are supported on pillars: but its principal ornament is the noble seat of the duke of Hamilton, which has a magnificent front intirely of free stone, adorned with different orders of architecture, and very deep wings. The apartments are truly noble, and the pictures, furniture, and other decorations, are exquisitely fine. The offices of this structure join the town; it has a very beautiful garden, consisting of seven terrace walks down to the river side; with a wood on the opposite side. In some of the walks are grottos and banquetting houses. The great park is about seven miles in compass, and well planted with lofty oaks, firs, pines, &c. It is walled round with stone, and stocked with deer. The lesser park is also well planted with trees.

Lanerk is a royal burgh in the division called the Upper ward; it is situated on the Clyde, nine miles to the south-west of Hamilton, and is the seat of a presbytery which consists of thirteen parishes.

It has a remarkable bridge, built by the inhabitants at a great expence; but was subject to such frequent repairs on account of the rapid current of the water, that they have been obliged to obtain an act for making all who pass over it pay a small toll.

A little below the town the river Douglas falls into the Clyde, and gives the name of Douglasdale to the lands near it. In a vale near this river stood a very old castle, which had been the paternal seat of the family of Douglas for above a thousand years: but though the apartments were very fine, the frequent additions to the building rendered the whole such an irregular mass, that at a distance it rather resembled a little town than a single structure; but in December 1758 this ancient castle was consumed by a fire which began in a room where nobody slept, and was got to such a height before it was discovered, that it was impossible to prevent its progress; whence the family, who were waked out of their sleep, with difficulty saved their lives, but most of the fine paintings and valuable furniture were destroyed.

S E C T. X.

Of Dumfries-shire, including Annandale and Nithsdale; its Situation, Extent, Rivers, Produce, and principal Towns.

DUMFRIES is bounded on the north by part of Clyddale, Tweeddale, and Teviotdale; on the west by Teviotdale, and Eskdale; on the south by Solway firth; and on the west by Galloway and Kyle; extending about thirty-five miles in length, and thirty-four in breadth.

Annandale, which signifies the dale or valley on the river Annan, lies in the east part of the shire between Nithsdale on the west, and Eskdale on the east; extending twenty-four miles in length, and fourteen in breadth. The river Annan runs through the middle of the shire, and falls into Solway firth, after a course of twenty-seven miles, in which it has received several small rivers, that run on both sides through pleasant woods and fruitful fields abounding with pasture. This division is a stewartry, that gives title of marquis to the family of Johnston.

Nithsdale, or Nidisdale, on the west side of Annandale, is so called from the Nith or Nid, which runs through it; it has both pasture and arable lands; for though it is encompassed on all sides with a ridge of rocks, the bottoms produce abundance of corn.

The river Nith or Nid issues out of a lake called Lochcure, and runs into Solway firth.

Nithsdale is divided into the Overward, which contains the parishes in the presbytery of Pent-pont; and the Netherward, containing those of Dumfries presbytery. Here were formerly woods and forests, which are now much exhausted; and pieces of gold have after great rains been found in some of the brooks.

Annand, the chief town of Annandale, was an ancient royal burgh and sea-port at the mouth of the Annan, where it falls into Solway-firth, seventy miles to the south of Edinburgh. It had once a castle and a pretty good trade; but being often taken by the English, and burnt to the ground in the reign of Edward VI. most of the merchants removed to Dumfries, and it has never since recovered itself. It has however a weekly market, with a handsome bridge over the river.

Dumfries, the chief town of Nithsdale, and the capital of the south-west part of the kingdom, is a pleasant and thriving place, whence it has been called the Liverpool of Scotland: it stands eight miles from the mouth of the Nith, in the fifty-fourth degree fifty minutes north lat. but the tide flowing up brings small ships quite up to the quay, and about four miles lower, the largest ships may ride in safety. It has spacious streets, with a stately church, and a castle, which, though old, is pretty strong. It has also four gates and a noble bridge of free stone over the river, leading to Galloway: this bridge has thirteen arches, and is esteemed the finest in Britain next to those of Westminster, London, and Rochester. In the middle of it is a gate which bounds the shire of Dumfries and the stewartry of Galloway. A street leads from it by an easy ascent to the castle, which is on the east side of the town, and commands a prospect of the town and the adjacent country; and from the castle a spacious high street runs by an easy descent to the church, which is half a mile distant. On each side of the high street are

good stone buildings, those on the north side having gardens next the river; and about the middle of it are the exchange and the town-house. It has likewise a large market place, with a noble cross. The town gives title of earl to the ancient family of Crichton. It is the seat of a presbytery, to which belong eighteen parishes, and is the place where the provincial synod meets, which consists of four presbyteries, that have under them fifty-four parishes.

The country round the town is very pleasant, and adorned with many seats of gentlemen, all finely planted with trees.

Drumlantic lies seventeen miles to the north of Dumfries; it has a weekly market, and gave title of earl to the duke of Queensberry, who has here a noble palace, adorned with twenty-eight turrets, grand avenues, gardens, and terrace walks, besides a stately stone bridge over the river Nith. Like Chatsworth in Derbyshire, it stands in a wild rocky country, and is environed with mountains. It is a square free-stone building, and has hanging gardens cut out of the rock down to the river, adorned with water-works and grottos, with a plantation of oaks six miles in length.

S E C T. XI.

Of the Stewartry of Kircudbright, or Lower Galloway; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS and the Stewartry of Orkney and Shetland differ only from the shires in the title of the chief officer, who is here called the steward, and in the other the sheriff. Galloway is divided into two parts; this stewartry, which is towards the east, being called Lower Galloway; and the westernmost Upper Galloway, or Wigtown. Lower Galloway begins at the middle of the bridge of Dumfries, and lies between Nithsdale on the east, and the water of Cree on the west; and is bounded on the north by a part of Kyle in the shire of Ayr; and by the Irish sea on the south. According to Templeman, it extends forty-three miles in length, and thirty-two in breadth.

The country seems one continued heath, except here and there a grove of trees; yet vast herds of small black cattle, and flocks of sheep, are grazed here, and sent in great numbers to England.

Kircudbright, which gives its name to this shire, stands in a bay at the mouth of the river Dee, eighty-three miles to the south-west of Edinburgh, and is an ancient royal burgh, the seat of a presbytery, to which belong sixteen parishes, and the place where the steward holds his courts. It has a weekly market, and a good salmon fishery on the river Dee, which rises in the mountains near Carrick; and it is so full of turnings and windings, that though it is not above seventy miles in a line, it runs near two hundred. It has a commodious harbour sufficient to hold all the British navy, and the largest first rates may cast anchor by the church-yard. It is also land-locked from all winds, which, together with the waves, are broke by Ross island at its mouth. The town stands in a perfect amphitheatre, like Trent on the confines of Italy: not surrounded with high mountains, but with a rocky and stony crust, which in this country is called crags; a distinction being here made between mountains, hills, and crags: the first are very high, rocky, and covered with heath; the hills are high, but not rocky, and covered with grass, which affords good pasture, and the crags are stony rocks, not high, and very thinly covered with grass. In the midst of this craggy country is seated this little town, which consists of tolerable good streets, and all the houses are built with stone: but neither its buildings, nor the manners, dress, or the countenance of the people resemble the English: the common sort wear bonnets instead of hats, and it is said, that though some of the townsmen have hats, they wear them only upon Sundays and extraordinary occasions. There is nothing of English gaiety, but a sedate gravity, which is visible in every face; and notwithstanding the excellence of their harbour, they have no notion of trade.

New Galloway is a royal burgh on the river Ken, fourteen miles from Kircudbright, with a good weekly market, well frequented for corn and other provisions; and it has a good salmon-fishery in a lake called Loch-ken, which abounds not only with salmon, but other fish: this lake is about five miles long, and in some places about a mile broad, containing several islands.

S E C T. XII.

Of Upper Galloway, or the Shire of Wigton; its Situation, Extent, and principal Towns.

UPPER Galloway extends from the water of Cree, which divides it on the east from Lower Galloway, to the point called the Mull of Galloway and the Irish sea. According to Templeman, it is thirty-seven miles in length, and twenty-six in breadth; but is much indented by Loch-rian on the north, and the bay of Glen-luce on the south.

This is a hilly country, more fit for breeding cattle than bearing corn. The inhabitants follow fishing, not only in the sea, but in the rivers and lakes that lie every where under the hills; in which, about the middle of September, they catch an infinite number of eels. Though the people have been censured for not applying to commerce, they having several good harbours on the coast, yet they are not idle, for they are great husbandmen and graziers; and, including horses, they annually send about fifty thousand head of cattle every year to England. Galloway had anciently its own princes, but it now gives title of earl to a branch of the family of Stuarts.

The principal towns of this shire are the following:

Wigton, a royal burgh, a market town, and the capital of the country, is seated near the mouth of a river, on a bay of its own name, ninety-five miles to the south-west of Edinburgh. This bay is eleven miles in length and breadth: it is a good port, which has a very narrow entrance. At this town the sheriff holds his courts, and it is the seat of a presbytery that consists of ten parishes. It gives title of earl to the chief of the ancient and noble family of Fleming.

Port-Patrick is a market town beyond the river Loffie, a hundred and ten miles to the south-west of Edinburgh, and has a safe harbour called the Rine or Beak of Galloway. It lies opposite to Donaghadee, in Ireland, and is a dirty poor place, where the packet-boats go for Belfast, and other ports of that kingdom, to which coast it is but a short passage, and of which there is a full view all the way: but little use is made of the harbour, except for the packet-boats and a few fishing vessels. A neighbouring hill affords a plain view of Ireland to the south-west; of the coast of Cumberland and the Isle of Man to the south-east; with the Isle of Ilay and the Mull of Kintyre to the north-west.

S E C T. XIII.

Of the Shire of Aire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Produce, and principal Towns.

THE shire of Aire is bounded on the north by that of Renfrew; on the south by Galloway; on the east by Clydsdale; and on the west by the frith of Clyde. It is divided into Carrick, Kyle, and Cunningham, which are esteemed the three great baileries, and are thus called from their being governed by bailiffs. According to Templeman, there are seven hundred and ninety-five square miles in the baileries of Kyle and Carrick, and two hundred and twenty-nine in the division called Cunningham.

In this county is a considerable lake called Dun, six miles long, and two broad, with an island in it, upon which is an old house called Castle-Dun. Upon the water Dun, or Dawn, issuing from this lake, is a bridge of one arch ninety feet wide, which is much wider than the Rialto at Venice, or the middle arch of the great bridge at York.

We shall begin with Carrick, which is bounded on the north by Kyle, on the east by Kyle and Galloway, on the south by the latter alone, and on the west by the Frith of Clyde; extending thirty-two miles along the frontiers of Galloway, where it is longest, from east to west, and twenty-five, where broadest, from north to south.

The land is here more fruitful and better cultivated than that of Galloway, and is less mountainous; but has not so many cattle, especially sheep and horses. It gives one of the titles of honour to the prince of Wales.

The chief rivers of this district are the Stineher and the Girven, which abound with salmon and other fish. Here are also many lakes and woods. Though there is no considerable port in this part of the country, the people towards the coast are great fishermen, and are employed by the merchants of Glasgow and other places to catch herrings for them.

The principal town in the earldom of Carrick is Bargeny, which has a market, and gives title of lord to a branch of the family of Hamilton.

Kyle is separated from Carrick by the river Dun, and from Cunningham by the Irwin; it has Cunningham on the north; part of Clydsdale on the east; Nithsdale, Carrick, and part of Galloway on the south; and the frith of Clyde on the west; extending thirty-four miles from east to west, and twenty-six from north to south. It is divided by the river Aire into two shewtries: that on the south side as far as the river Dun is called King's Kyle, and is under the jurisdiction of a sheriff; and Kyle Stuart, which is under the prince of Wales.

The river Aire has the longest course of any in the county; its banks are adorned with woods, castles, and gentlemen's seats; and the river, after running (besides its many turnings and windings) twenty-four miles from east to west, falls into the sea.

Aire, the chief town of this division, and the capital of the whole country, is seated at the mouth of the river of its own name, sixty-five miles to the south-west of Edinburgh. It has a good harbour near the frith of Clyde, and is well situated for trade. It is an ancient town distinguished by its privileges, its jurisdiction extending sixty-four miles from the mouth of the Clyde to the borders of Galloway. The river turns several mills in the middle of the New Town; this is joined to the Old Town, which stands on the south side of the river, by a stone bridge of four arches. The Old Town is seated in a sandy plain, amidst pleasant fertile fields, with delightful greens, that afford a good prospect winter and summer. It was formerly reckoned next to Glasgow, the principal market town in the west of Scotland, and has a stately church. It is the seat of a presbytery, to which belong twenty-eight parishes, and, with Glasgow, constitutes a provincial synod: but its trade is said to be much decayed.

Cunningham, the last division of this county, is bounded on the east by Renfrew and Clydsdale, on the south by Kyle, and on the west and north by the frith of Clyde. Its greatest length from the south-east to the north-west is about twenty-nine miles, and its greatest breadth from east to west about twelve. It is divided from Kyle by the river Irwin, and is a much finer country and less mountainous than that.

Irwin is the best town of this district; it stands at the mouth of the river of the same name, sixty-three miles to the south-west of Edinburgh; but its port is so shallow, and so choaked up with sand, that it is only capable of receiving small vessels: yet it has much more business than Aire, and consists of two pretty good streets, with well built houses, and a quay from whence the inhabitants carry on a coal trade to Dublin. There is a handsome stone bridge over the river; and in 1736 an act was passed for restoring the harbour, and repairing the town-house, church, jail, &c. This town gives title of viscount to the family of Ingram. On the twenty-sixth of November, 1740, there was here such a storm of thunder and lightning, that the people who were not struck down by the lightning fell to the ground, apprehending that the day of general judgment was come.

S E C T. XIV.

Of the Shire of Renfrew, or Reinfraw; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS county is called the barony by way of eminence; it having given the title of baron to the prince of Scotland before the Union, as it does now, together with Snowden, to his royal highness the prince of Wales. It is bounded on the south by Cunningham, on the east by Lanerksire, on the north by Lenox, and on the south by the shire of Dumbarton; it extending, according to Templeman, thirty miles from north to south, and thirteen where broadest from east to west.

That part of the county next to the Clyde is fruitful and pleasant, with only a few small eminences; but that to the south, south-west, and west, is more barren and mountainous: it abounds with all necessaries, enjoys a healthful air, and at the same time the convenience of the frith of the Clyde, in which there is very safe riding upon all the coast, has much improved these parts, which are populous, and adorned with many gentlemen's seats. It is watered by several small rivers, the chief of which are the White-cart and the Black-cart, which unite their streams before they fall into the Clyde.

The principal towns of this county are the following:

Renfrew, the shire town, and a royal burgh, is seated on a branch of the Clyde, called the Cathcart, forty-six miles to the west of Edinburgh. It is a small but ancient town, where the sheriff holds his courts.

Pasley, or Paslay, is seated on the river White-cart, six miles to the west of Glasgow, where is a pearl-fishery; and though no royal burgh, is much bigger than Renfrew, and is the seat of a presbytery composed of sixteen parishes. Here is a bridge over the Cart, and there are still to be seen the remains of an abbey founded in the year 1160: the remains of which, together with its church, gardens, orchard, and a little deer-park, are enclosed by a stone wall, about a mile in compass.

On a high ground in the lands stiled New-yards, at a small distance from Pasley, is a spring famous for its ebbing and flowing with the tide.

Greenock, a handsome well built town on the firth of the Clyde, twenty-six miles to the west of the Clyde, has a good road for ships that come into and go out of Glasgow. It is the chief place in the west of Scotland for the herring-fishery; and the merchants of Glasgow, who are concerned in it, employ the vessels of the inhabitants for catching and curing the fish, and for carrying them abroad to market afterwards. Here are many rich trading families, and the town is noted for good seamen and excellent pilots.

S E C T. XV.

Of Dumbartonshire, or Lenox; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS county, which lies on the other side of the Clyde above Glasgow, runs far north among a cluster of hills, and is bounded on the south by the firth and river of Clyde; on the east by Menteith and Sterlingshire, it being separated from the latter by the water of Blane; on the north by the Grampian-hills; on the north-west by Argyleshire; and on the west by the lake called Loch-long, and a water of the same name that falls into it. According to the editor of Camden, it extends only twenty-four miles in length, and twenty in breadth; but Mr. Templeman makes it forty-one miles long, and twenty-seven broad. Its bounds were formerly larger than they are at present, especially on the east side; and it has now only twelve parishes.

The lower part of Dumbartonshire, which lies to the east, is very fruitful in corn, especially towards the rivers; and the upper, which is hilly, is fit for pasture, especially at the beginning of the Grampian-hills, and feeds numerous flocks of sheep. It has also a noble herring-fishery in two bays, named Loch-long and Loch-fyn, that break into it from the mouth of the Clyde.

Levinia, the Latin name for Lenox, is derived from the river Levin, which runs from Loch-lomond into the Clyde. This loch, or lake, spreads between the mountains, twenty-four miles in length, and eight in breadth; though at the narrowest part it is but two. It abounds with fish, particularly with a delicious sort of the eel kind, called pollac, that is said to be peculiar to this lake, whence its banks are lined with the cottages of fishermen. It contains thirty islands, three of which have churches, and many of the rest are inhabited, particularly Inchmurin, which is fruitful in corn and grass, and abounds with deer. Several of them are called floating islands: these are said to be artificial, and formed of beams fastened together and covered with earth and turf; upon some of these are forts, into which the natives used to retire in time of war. The shire of Lenox, together with the town of Richmond in York-shire, give the title of duke to the family of Lenox, descended from king Charles II.

Dumbarton, the principal town of this shire, from which it takes its name, is seated at the confluence of the Leven and the Clyde, fifteen miles to the north-west of Glasgow, and was once considerable for its trade, which is now much decayed; but is still remarkable for its castle, which is thought to be one of the strongest in Europe; it being seated on the top of a craggy rock, very steep on all sides, except to the Clyde. It has only one narrow steep ascent, where steps are cut out of the rock, passable by only one man at a time. The river Leven on the west, and the Clyde on the south, serve it for ditches; and to the westward lies a morass, which is overflowed by every tide. As this is at one of the great strong passes between the low country and the highlands, a governor and a garrison are constantly kept in it.

S E C T. XVI.

Of the Shire of Bute and Caithness; their Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Places.

THE shire of Bute contains Bute and Arran, two of the Western islands, and is now joined with Caithness in sending one member to the parliament of Great Britain alternately.

These islands are tolerably fertile, and their produce much the same as that of the other Western islands. They lie in the firth of Clyde, and have Argyleshire on the north; Cantyre on the west; and Renfrew, Cunningham, and Kyle on the east. The island of Bute, which is about twelve miles in length, and five in breadth, with an area of twenty-seven miles, is separated on the north by two narrow freights from Argyleshire, and on the west from the isle of Arran; it lies six miles to the west of the coast of Cunningham, and but half a mile from Argyleshire.

The northern parts of this island are mountainous, but afford good pastures and some wood. The others produce oats, barley, and peas. The island has a quarry of red stone. It enjoys a healthful air, and its inhabitants live to a great age. There is a considerable herring and cod-fishery on the coast. The earl of Mont-Stuart is its chief proprietor and heretable coroner.

The chief town of the shire is Rothsay, which stands near the middle of the island, on the east side, seventy miles to the west of Edinburgh; the inhabitants subsist chiefly by fishing and agriculture. It is a royal burgh, and has two forts, one called the castle of Rothsay, the other the castle of Kermes.

The isle of Arran lies about four miles from the south part of the isle of Bute, and six to the east of Cantyre, extending, according to the General Atlas, twenty-four miles from north to south, and nine, where broadest, from east to west; but Mr. Mackay, a native of the island, in his journey through it, says it is but twelve in circuit. The air is cold and moist, but cleared by frequent breezes from the mountains. The island is fruitful in grain, and has good pastures. The middle of the island is mountainous, and the highest part, called Capra, abounds with deer. Here are many horses and black cattle, both of a middling size, with abundance of small sheep and goats,

land and sea fowl. Here are also found fullers-earth, and crystal. On the coast are several caves, one of which is large enough to hold a hundred men; and at the farther end of it is a pillar cut out of the rock, with a deer and a double hilted sword carved upon it; and the natives pretend that Fune Machkowie, a giant, who distinguished himself by his great exploits, lodged in these caves with his attendants. A minister sometimes preaches in one of them to such as live at a distance from the church. Here are many large stones, from six to fifteen feet high, set up on end, some singly, and others in a circular form, supposed to have been the remains of pagan temples, or of places for administering justice.

This island has several rivers which abound with salmon, as the sea all round does with cod, herrings, ling, whittings, and shell-fish. But the adjacent sea is tempestuous and dangerous, especially when a strong south or south-west wind blows.

The inhabitants are generally of a brown complexion, healthy, vigorous, and ingenious. In the island are five churches, with several castles; among which the most noted is Brodich, a pleasant summer seat at the north-east corner of the island. These, and almost the whole island, belong to a branch of the noble family of Hamilton.

The shire of Weik, or Caithness, though united in some measure to Bute, by sending a member alternately to parliament, is as far distant from the islands just described as possible, it being seated in the north-east extremity of Scotland: it has therefore the Northern ocean on the east, Strathnaver and Sutherland on the south and south-west, and on the north is divided from the Orkney islands by Pentland frith. It comprehends all the country beyond the river Ness and the lake into which it flows, and extends thirty-five miles from north to south.

The land is much indented by the many windings and breakings of the shore, and the whole coast, except the bays, consists of high rocks and many promontories. The sea is here very dangerous, especially in calm weather, except at stated times, on account of the many vortexes, owing to the repulse of the tides from the shore, and their passage between the Orkney islands. The inland country is mountainous; but towards the coast it is low, and produces corn enough both for the natives and for exportation; but the soil being moist and clayey, their harvest is late, and the corn not so good as that of Ross and Sutherland. There is plenty of pasture in the fields and valleys, with good fowling and hunting on the mountains, and fishing in the lakes and rivers, as well as the sea. In the forests of Moravins and Berridale is great plenty of red deer and roebucks, and many cows, goats, and sheep. In several parts are copper, iron, and lead ore; but the inhabitants chiefly subsist by grazing and fishing.

This county is populous, and has many little towns and villages, with a presbytery of twelve parishes, and gives title of earl to a branch of the ancient and noble family of Sinclair; but the earl of Braidalbin, who has a great estate in the county, is hereditary sheriff.

Provisions, especially corn, cattle, and fish, are so plentiful here, that this is said to be the cheapest market in the world, and that a man can live better here for fifty pound a year, than he can in the south of Scotland for two hundred: but the firing is turf, for want of coals. The rocks on the coast are much frequented by eagles, hawks, maws, herons, and other fowl of various kinds, like those of the Orkney and Shetland islands; and the people take the young fowls from their nests by a hook and line. There is a particular sort called snowfleets, which resort to this country in February by thousands in a flight, and go away in April. They are of about the size of a sparrow, but exceeding fat and delicious eating. They have also great plenty of moor fowls and plovers.

The inhabitants are so industrious, that in some places, where there is no harbour or bay, but a continued hard rugged rock, they have procured harbours by art and dint of labour, and made passages in many places by forming steps or stairs from the top of the rock to the bottom, where their fishing boats lie; and at the top of the rock have their houses, to which they carry up their fish, and there salt and dry them for the market.

The principal towns in this county are Wick, or Weik, and Thurso.

Weik, from whence this is called the shire of Weik, is a royal burgh, and market town, where the courts are kept. It stands on the east side of the county at the mouth of Murray frith, where it falls into the north sea; but it is not much frequented.

Thurso lies opposite to it on the west side of the county, about twelve or fourteen miles from Weik, and is so defended by the promontory called Holborn-head, that it is a secure place for ships to ride in. It is more populous, and better built than Weik, and has the best church in the shire. A small river called the water of Thurso, runs by the east side of the town, in which is a good fishery for salmon, which keep in this river all the year; so that they are to be had in winter by breaking the ice.

S E C T. XVII.

Of Sterlingshire, or Striveling; its Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a Description of the Towns of Sterling and Falkirk.

THIS country is bounded on the west by part of Lenox and Clyddale; on the north by Menteith; on the south and south-east by Lothian; extending twenty miles in length and twelve in breadth.

The south part is mountainous; but that which lies upon the Forth is very fertile, and also abounds with coal. The produce of this shire consists of corn, grass, black cattle, sheep, and horses; besides salmon and other fish, with which it is supplied by the rivers. The Forth, which is the most famous, though not the largest river in Scotland, rises near the foot of the mount Lomond, and runs from west to east into the Firth of Edinburgh.

Sterling, the capital of the county, to which it also gives name, stands thirty miles to the north-west of Edinburgh, upon the descent of a deep rock, at the foot of which runs the Forth; and takes its name from the Saxon word *ster*, which signifies a hill, and *lin*, a water.

The situation of Sterling is much like that of Edinburgh, with a castle on an eminence, and the town extending up the ascent, with a principal street that is large and handsome. It is inclosed with a wall, except towards the north, where it is washed by the river Forth, over which is a bridge of hewn stone, with an iron gate, and four stately arches, to which ships come up at full tide, and a little below it is the haven. The castle is strengthened on every side with batteries and ramparts, and has a considerable number of great guns for defending the passage of the bridge: for in times of trouble the chief magazine of the nation is usually conveyed hither, it lying upon a considerable pass between the north and south parts of Scotland, and almost in the centre of the kingdom. It is indeed the only place to which people can come from all parts of the nation, except from the islands, without crossing some bay or frith of the sea, which has rendered it of such importance, that it is always kept in a good condition, and the garrison generally consists of two hundred men, besides officers. It has six rooms of state, which are extremely noble, from their extraordinary height, length, and breadth, adorned with fine carved work on the wainscot and ceiling. At the top of it the late earl of Mar made a very convenient apartment of twelve rooms on one floor, for the governor's lodgings. It has a large park walled round; but it has little or no wood in it. This castle has been the residence of the kings of Scotland, at which time parliaments were frequently held in it.

Sterling has a spacious church in the upper part of the town, which has a very high tower. It has also a spacious market place and a handsome town-house. Opposite to it is the late earl of Mar's fine palace, on the top of the hill: the duke of Argyle has also a fine seat near the castle, from whence to the bottom of the town, it is above half a mile, all upon the descent, with good houses. As Sterling stands in a commodious situation for commerce, so it has one way a fine prospect of Edinburgh frith and castle, and of the mountains of Argyleshire

shire and Dumbartonshire another, as well as of the various windings of the Forth. It is the seat of a presbytery, which consists of twelve churches, and has a considerable manufacture of serges. Joining to the church is a neat hospital for decayed merchants. It was founded by James Cowen, merchant, and richly endowed. His statue as big as life is at the top of the gate, and in the garden of the hospital is a pleasant bowling-green.

Falkirk is a handsome ancient town, seated on the south side of the Forth, eight miles to the south of Sterling, and is a clean market town, noted for being the place where the rebels defeated the king's forces on the 17th of January, 1746.

S E C T. XVIII.

Of Linlithgow, or West-Lothian; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns; with a concise Account of the Roman Wall built across this Part of Scotland.

WEST-Lothian is bounded on the north by the Forth; on the east and south by Mid-Lothian; on the west by part of Clydesdale; and on the north-west by Stirlingshire; extending about fourteen miles in length, and thirteen in breadth.

It is in general a pleasant country, and abounds with corn and pastures, coal, limestone, and salt; with great plenty of fish, with which it is supplied by the sea and rivers. In the reign of king James VI. a mine was discovered here which yielded a great deal of silver.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Linlithgow, from which the shire takes its name, is situated on the side of a lake, sixteen miles to the west of Edinburgh, and is remarkable for its ancient palace, seated on an island in the midst of the lake, which has an ascent of several steps in the form of an amphitheatre. The palace was magnificently built of hewn stone by several kings, and completed by James VI. The porch bears the name and arms of King James V. incircled with the orders of the Garter, St. Andrew, St. Michael, and the Golden Fleece, of all which James V. was a companion. In the inner court, which is larger than that of Hampton Court, is a fountain adorned with several statues, and at each of the four corners a tower, with fine apartments. Adjoining the palace is St. Michael's church, a noble structure with a lofty steeple.

In the town is also a quadrangular court adorned with a curious fountain: on the south side is the Tolbooth or town-house, neatly built of hewn stone, with a very high steeple, in which are bells and a very fine clock. In this structure the sheriff and magistrates of the town keep their courts. This place is the seat of a presbytery consisting of nineteen parishes. There is a large street half a mile in length, from the one end of the town to the other, adorned with handsome buildings, from each side of which several lanes open a passage to pleasant gardens.

The lake itself is a mile in length and a quarter of a mile over, and abounds with perch and other sort of fish; and on the north side is a park belonging to the palace.

The town has the appearance of great trade, with a harbour for ships near the castle of Blackness, where is a large custom-house, with other houses for the use of merchants. Here is a manufacture of linen, which the water of this lake is reckoned so extraordinary for bleaching, that a great deal of it is brought from other parts hither to be bleached.

Blackness is a strong castle in a peninsula on the coast. It belongs to the crown, and has been often used for a prison of state; but is at present neglected, and is said to resemble at a distance a great ship unrigged.

Queen's-Ferry is a royal burgh on the south side of the river Forth, ten miles to the west of Edinburgh, where the queens of Scotland generally embarked when they went to their palaces on the other side of the Forth; and it is now a common passage at all times of tide from Lothian to Fife.

Severus's or Adrian's wall, which extended across this part of Scotland, began at the Forth near Queen's Ferry, and extended thirty-six Scots miles to Dumbarton at the firth of Clyde, for covering the provincial Britons against the incursions of the Picts. It was built with stone ten feet thick, and had watch-towers within call of one another, where centinels kept watch day and night; it had also a court of guard to lodge a sufficient number of soldiers against any sudden alarms, and strong forts able to receive a whole army; with a good ditch of twelve feet wide before it.

S E C T. XIX.

Of the Shire of Perth; its Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, Divisions, and principal Towns.

THIS is a large, plentiful, and rich country, bounded on the east by Angus; on the south-east by Kinross-shire and Fife; on the south by Clackmannan-shire, Stirlingshire, and the river and firth of Forth; on the west and south-west by Argyleshire, Lenox, and Dumbartonshire; on the north-west and north by Lochaber and Badenoch; and on the north-east by Marr. According to Camden, it extends fifty-two miles in length from east to west, and about forty-eight in breadth from north to south. It contains Perth Proper, part of Gowry, Strathern, Athol, Braidalbin, and Menteith, in which are five presbyteries, and eighty-eight parish churches.

This county, whose hereditary sheriff is the duke of Athol, is fruitful both in corn and pasture, the former in the low lands and the latter on the high grounds; and is interspersed with fruit-trees, groves, lakes, and rivers.

The principal rivers of this county are the Tay, which is the longest in all Scotland, and rises in the mountains of Braidalbin; and after spreading itself into a lake of the same name, fifteen miles in length, and near six in breadth, it runs near forty miles, exclusive of its turnings and windings, into the firth of Tay. The Keith, which is famous for its salmon fishery, and has a cataract near the Blair of Dromond, the noise of which is so loud as to stun those who come near it. The river Ern rises from the lake called Lochern, which is about seven miles in length, and one broad, in the mountainous country of Strathern, and falls into the Tay, after a course of thirty-four miles from east to west, and being joined by several rivers in its passage.

Perth Proper, the first division of this shire, has the Carse of Gowry on the north-east; Angus on the east; Strathern on the west; Athol on the north; and the Firth of Tay on the south. It is about twenty miles from the north-west to the south-east, and fifteen where broadest. The principal places in this division are the following.

Dunkeld stands on the north side of the Tay, after it has received the Almond, twelve miles to the north of Perth, and about forty from Edinburgh. It is seated at the foot of the Grampian hills and is surrounded with woods. This is the chief market-town of the Highlands, and has been much adorned with stately buildings by the duke of Athol. It is the seat of a presbytery containing twenty parishes.

Perth is a royal burgh, and the county-town where the sheriff keeps his courts. It is frequently called St. John's town, from a church built there dedicated to St. John, and stands thirty miles to the north of Edinburgh, agreeably seated between two meadows on the south bank of the Tay, and at a full tide vessels of burthen may come up to it. Parliaments have often been held there, and it is at present the seat of a presbytery containing twenty-one parishes. Here is a fine town-house. St. John's church, which stands in the middle of the town, is divided into two. The inhabitants carry on the linnen manufacture, and the merchants have a considerable trade to the Baltic. About a mile from Perth is Scone or Scoon, which is seated on the north bank of the Tay, and is thought to be in the centre of the kingdom. It was anciently famous for its abbey, founded by king David I. for the monks of the order of St. Augustine, where the kings of Scotland were crowned. There is

also a fine palace, belonging to the crown, the front of which towards the chapel is two hundred feet long, the dining-room forty feet in length, and all the apartments spacious and magnificent, but built after the ancient manner. The gallery of this palace is one hundred and seventy-five feet long, and the ceiling painted above two hundred years ago. It was in the chapel belonging to this palace that king Charles II. took the covenant.

The Carse of Gowry, the next division, is esteemed the beautifullest spot in Scotland: it extends fourteen miles in length, and from two to four in breadth, on the north side of the Tay, from Dundee to Perth, which is all a perfect garden.

Strathern, the third division, has Menteith and part of Fife on the south; Braidalbin and Athol on the north; part of Menteith on the west; and Perth Proper on the east; extending above forty miles from east to west, and twenty from north to south. It takes its name from the river Ern running through it. The Ochil hills, which extend along the south part, abound with metals and minerals, particularly copper, lapis calaminaris, and lead; there is here also excellent peat, and abundance of wood. What is properly called Strathern, is a fine valley, about four miles broad, between the mountains, extremely fruitful, and strewed with gentlemen's seats, which stand on the side of the hills, and with their plantations of trees render the valley more agreeable.

Abernethy stands in the south-east corner of this division, at the confluence of the Ern and Tay, somewhat above twenty-four miles from Duplin. It is an ancient town, and is said to have been the seat of the Pictish kings, as well as of an archbishop, afterwards removed to St. Andrews.

There are two castles on the banks of the Ern, one of them Tullibardin, the ancient seat of the Murrays, which gives title of marquis to the eldest son of the duke of Athol; and the other is Duplin castle, the seat of the earl of Kinnoul, to whom it gives title of viscount; the house is adorned with the finest paintings and carving, and his lordship has a park well planted with trees, and walled round.

Menteith, the next division, is bounded on the north by Braidalbin and Strathern; on the east by Fife; on the south by Lenox and Stirlingshire; and on the west by Lenox; extending forty-four miles from east to west, and twenty-eight where broadest. This territory is said to derive its name from the river Teith, and reaches to the mountains that enclose the east side of Loch-lomond.

The only place of note in this division is the pleasant little town of Dumblain, on the west side of the river Allan, where king David once erected a bishopric, and the ruins of the bishop's house and that of the regular canons are still to be seen. There was also a magnificent church, part of which remains entire. The town is a perfect amphitheatre, in a fine bottom surrounded with hills, and gives title of viscount to the duke of Leeds.

The fifth division is Braidalbin, a country among the Grampian-hills, bounded on the north by Athol and Lochaber; on the east by Athol; on the south by Strathern and Menteith; and on the west by Lochaber, Lorn, and Knapdale; extending above thirty-two Scots miles from east to west, and about thirteen from north to south. It is inhabited by the Highlanders, who retain their ancient language.

Athol, the most northern division, is bounded on the north by Badenoch; on the west by Lochaber; on the east and south-east by Marr and Gowry; on the south by Strathern and Perth Proper; and on the south-west by Braidalbin; extending in length from the north-west to the south-east forty-three miles, and thirty-one where broadest. Here are many mountains, and the valleys are full of woods. It gives title of duke to the noble and ancient family of Murray; but contains no place of importance.

S E C T. XX.

Of Kincardineshire, or Mearns; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS county is bounded on the east by the Northern ocean; on the south by the North Esk; on the

west by the Grampian-hills; and on the north by Aberdeenshire, from which it is divided by the river Dee; extending about twenty-seven miles in length, and twenty in breadth.

The country is pretty level, and enjoys a rich soil fruitful in corn and pasture. There are said to be about five millions of fir trees in this county; besides a prodigious number planted by the gentry about their seats. Upon the sea-coasts are several convenient creeks and some good harbours.

Kincardin, once the county-town, stands on the river Dee, eighteen miles to the east of Aberdeen, and is the seat of a presbytery consisting of fifteen parishes.

Stonehive, the present county town, has a very good harbour, secured by a stone pier. Near this town is Dunnotyre, where once stood a castle fortified with strong walls and towers upon a high inaccessible rock, washed by the sea on three sides, and joined to the land by a narrow isthmus. By the entrance of the harbour is a huge rock near forty ells high, which seems every moment ready to fall; and at a small distance is a dropping cave, where the water petrifies. This castle was for a long time the seat of the Keiths, the hereditary earl marshals of Scotland.

Fourdon, or Mearns, stands twenty-one miles from Kincardin, and is the seat of a presbytery consisting of sixteen parishes. In the times of popery it was famous for the reliques supposed to have been deposited there of St. Palladius, the first bishop in Scotland, who was sent over by pope Celestine in the year 431 to preach the Gospel to the Scots, and confute the Pelagians.

S E C T. XXI.

Of Aberdeenshire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS county is bounded on the south by the river Dee and the Grampian-mountains, which divide it from Angus, in the shire of Forfar, and Kincardineshire; on the east by the Northern ocean; on the north by part of Murray; on the north-west by Bamff; and on the north by Murray; extending, according to Templeman, seventy-three miles in length, and twenty-eight in breadth. It contains Mar, with its appurtenances, Strathdee, Strathdon, the braes of Mar and Cromar, with the greatest part of Buchan, Garioch, and Strathbogy. The south part contains Mar, with its subdivisions, from whence it was formerly called the shire of Mar.

This county would be in general pretty fruitful, was it properly cultivated. It produces corn, particularly rye, and oats in great abundance, with some beans, peas, roots, and herbs, both for food and physic. The hilly parts, especially the craigs of Pennau, where the eagles build their nests, are covered with woods of oak and fir, and have plenty of game and pasture, therefore feed abundance of black cattle, sheep, deer, and horses. There are here also quarries of spotted marble, limestone, and slate, with a species of small stones peculiar to this country, called elf-arrow-heads, which seem of a flinty kind, and are of different shapes; but most of them resemble the head or point of an arrow or spear. In the rivers are found mussels, which contain large pearls of a fine colour and shape. Here are springs of allum-water, and veins of stone from which allum is boiled.

The air of this country is cool, but healthful; and the fuel of the inhabitants is peat, turf, and wood. The winter is much less severe than might be expected so far north, and the inhabitants are reckoned of a mild temper, though with as much good sense as their neighbours.

Aberdeen, a city and university, has its name from the Don, it standing at the mouth of that river, in the fifty-seventh degree six minutes north latitude, and the first degree fifty-eight minutes west longitude, eighty miles from Edinburgh. There are two towns, the Old and New. Old Aberdeen was the seat of a bishop, it having a large and stately cathedral, generally called St. Machar's. On the south side of it stands King's-college, in which

which is a principal and sub-principal, with three other regents or professors of philosophy. There are also professors of divinity, civil law, physic, the mathematics, and the oriental tongues. Close to the church is a library well furnished with books. This college is not inferior to any in Scotland. The church, with its turret or steeple, is of hewn-stone, and the top vaulted with a double cross arch, surmounted by an imperial crown.

New Aberdeen is about a mile distant from the Old, and is seated at the mouth of the river Dee. It is the county town, and consequently the seat of the sheriff's courts. It exceeds all the cities in the north of Scotland in extent and beauty. Aberdeen stands in a wholesome air, has a great revenue from its salmon-fishery, and the inhabitants are in general gay, rich, and courteous. It is seated on three hills, the main parts upon the highest; the skirts of it extending into the plain. The market-place is beautiful and spacious, and the houses, which are neatly built, are generally four or five stories high, with handsome sash windows, and have for the most part gardens and orchards belonging to them, which render the city pleasant and healthful, and the prospect of it beautiful at a distance. The streets are extremely well paved.

Besides the other public buildings, there is in the High-street a church neatly built of free-stone. The church of St. Nicholas is also a handsome edifice of free-stone, with a lofty steeple resembling a pyramid: it was formerly divided into three churches; and the body of it is adorned with a tower and a steeple with pinnacles. The people of Aberdeen, and indeed of almost all this part of the country, are generally of the Episcopalian persuasion; so that were it not for the legal establishment, the Presbyterian preachers would have but slender incomes: almost every parish has a meeting-house, where the liturgy is read: at Aberdeen they have beautiful chapels, and even organs.

The principal of the public buildings is the college, founded by George Keith, earl marshal, in 1593, and from him called the Marshallian college; but since his time the city has adorned it with several additional buildings. In this college, which is an university of itself, are a principal, four professors of philosophy, a professor of divinity, a professor of mathematics, and a professor of medicine. It has a good library, which was founded by the city, and enlarged by the gifts of several learned men, and is also furnished with mathematical instruments.

In this city is also a grammar-school, founded by Dr. Dune, which has a master and three ushers. There is also a music-school. Here are likewise a prison and work-house, three hospitals, and an alms-house. Near the harbour stands the custom-house.

The bridge over the Don consists of one immense arch of stone, sprung from two rocks, one on each side, which serve as abutments; so that it may be said to have a foundation coeval with nature, and that will last as long. The other bridge is upon the river Dee, a mile to the west of New Aberdeen, and has seven stately arches. This city gives title of earl to an ancient branch of the family of Gordon.

There is very good anchoring in the bay, from seven to nine fathom water. It is a tide-haven, with a very difficult entrance; for though the river is large, the channel is narrow, and the bar often shifting, so that no ship of any consequence ventures in without a pilot.

The quantity of salmon and perch taken in both rivers is astonishing. The proprietors of this fishery are united into a company, there being so many shares, of which no person can enjoy above one at a time. The profits are very considerable, the salmon being sent abroad into different parts, particularly into England, France, and the Baltic. As to the herring-fishery, it is a common blessing to the whole eastern shore of Scotland; and enables the Aberdeen merchants to carry on a profitable trade to Dantzic, Konigsberg, Riga, Narva, Wybourg, and Stockholm.

This city has also a good manufacture of linen, and also of worsted stockings. Its pork is reckoned the best cured for long voyages of any in Europe, and they ex-

port a good deal pickled and packed up in barrels, which they sell chiefly to the Dutch, for victualling their East India ships and men of war.

Peterhead, which stands on the south side of the water of Ugie, is a market-town and sea-port of considerable trade in the north-east part of the county, upon the promontory called Buchanness, and is noted for the Pretender's landing there in 1715, and has a road which will hold a hundred sail of ships.

Garioch is the seat of a presbytery, consisting of fifteen parishes, and gives name to a district that extends near fourteen miles from east to west, and eight from the north-west to the south. It lies in a valley watered by two large and several smaller rivers, with several fertile hills on both sides; particularly Mount Bennachy, which rises so high as to be seen at sea, though it is near fourteen miles from the coast.

Strathbogy, which signifies the valley upon the Bogy, stands twenty-four miles from Aberdeen, and has a market, with a bridge over the Doern near its confluence with the Bogy. It is the seat of a presbytery, containing eleven parishes. This valley, which is fruitful in corn and pasture, has black cattle, sheep, and horses, not only for the use of the inhabitants, but for exportation; and is remarkable for the fine linen yarn spun by the women here, and sold to the merchants.

SECT. XXII.

Of the Shire of Fife; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS county consists of a fine peninsula inclosed between the Forth and the Tay, bounded on the east by the Northern ocean; on the south by the firth of Forth; on the west by the Ochil-hills, Kinross-shire, and Perthshire; and on the north is divided by the firth of Tay from Gaury and Angus; it being commonly reckoned thirty-two miles in length, and about seventeen in breadth.

The east part is the most level, and the west the most mountainous. The north and south parts are very fruitful in corn, and full of towns which have good bays and harbours; while the middle of the country is more fit for pasture, and has plenty of cattle, especially sheep, whose wool is much esteemed; as are also the hides of their black cattle, deer, and goats. On the south side are coal-pits, and much salt is made. The Ochil-hills on the west also afford good pasture, and the pleasant and fruitful vallies between them have fields of corn. There is a quarry of excellent free-stone at Dalgate; near the water of Ore are lead-mines; and at the Bin and Orrock are many fine crystals of several colours.

There are here also several mineral waters at the spaw at Kinghorn and Ballgrig. The principal rivers are the Leven and the Edin, which abound with salmon and other fish.

This coast is well planted with little towns that are nurseries for seamen; and the sea, besides herrings and other fish, which are taken in great quantities in August and September, yields abundance of oysters and other shell-fish.

The earl of Rothes is hereditary sheriff. No county of Scotland sends so many members to parliament, or is inhabited by a greater number of the nobility.

The principal towns are the following:

Bruntislan, or Burnt Island, a royal burgh, ten miles to the north-west of Edinburgh; it lies opposite to Leith, and a passage-boat goes thither from hence every day. The town stands in the middle of the north side of the river Forth, and enjoys a fine prospect of Leith road, and of the city and castle of Edinburgh, with a safe harbour, where ships lie with their heads to the very houses. It is so land-locked, that such as are driven up the firth by storms, or contrary winds, come hither for safety; and ships trading on this coast often winter here, the water being commonly eighteen, and at spring-tides twenty-six feet deep within the harbour, which has room enough for a hundred sail of ships, and is capable of receiving and careening the largest men of war. The

town

town has a handsome church, with a large town-house and prison; and a considerable manufacture of linen cloth.

Kirkaldy is seated on the same coast, ten miles north of Edinburgh, and is a market-town and royal burgh, the seat of a presbytery, containing seventeen parishes. It is larger and better built than the former, it extending a mile in length. It consists of two parishes, and is a place of good trade, here being some considerable merchants and large dealers in corn, who export great quantities of it both to England and Holland; others trade with linen to England, and make returns in the necessary foreign manufactures. Here is a convenient yard for the building and repairing of ships; several houses for the making of salt; and in the neighbourhood are coal-pits.

St. Andrews had its name from St. Andrew, whose bones are said to have been brought hither from Patras, a town in Peloponnesus. This is an ancient, and was once a flourishing city, the metropolis of all Scotland; the seat of its first university, and, before the Revolution, was the see of an archbishop. It is situated thirty miles to the north-east of Edinburgh, and is surrounded with extensive corn-fields, abounding in excellent wheat and barley; with the pleasant downs called the Links lying on the sea-side towards the north. The town formerly consisted of four large streets, which extend from east to west, almost parallel to each other: but the northernmost, formerly the principal, is entirely ruined, and not a house remaining; each of the other three terminates to the eastward on the cathedral, which is now in ruins. This was esteemed one of the largest and most beautiful Gothic structures in the world, it being three hundred and seventy feet in length from east to west, the cross from south to north a hundred and eighty, its breadth sixty-five, and its height a hundred feet: the beauty of its pillars, with the symmetry and proportion of the whole building, have been greatly admired.

Near the ruins of the cathedral are still remaining the wall of the most ancient chapel of St. Rule, with the spire, a hundred and five feet high, which is still entire. On the north side of the city are the ruins of its ancient castle, of which nothing remains but the walls.

Though the town was formerly about two miles in circumference, there are now hardly a thousand houses; and of these near two hundred are become ruinous. The number of the inhabitants still amounts to above four thousand. It is a place of no trade, and its harbour is capable of receiving only small vessels. Near the town is plenty of free-stone, of which all the houses are built.

Here is only one parish church, that of the Holy Trinity, remaining, and two chapels. This church is an ancient stately edifice, built with fine free-stone, in the form of a cross, with a handsome spire in good repair. In it is a fine monument of archbishop Sharpe, who was assassinated upon a moor as he was coming home in his coach.

This city is particularly famous for its university, consisting of three colleges, of which, during the continuance of episcopacy, the archbishops were chancellors. The rector is chosen annually, and by the statutes ought to be one of the principals of the three colleges, which are called St. Salvator's, St. Leonard's, and the New-College.

St. Salvator's college was founded by James Kennedy, bishop of St. Andrews, in 1448, who erected the edifice, furnished it with costly ornaments, and endowed it with sufficient revenues for a doctor, a bachelor, and a licentiate in divinity, four professors of philosophy, and eight poor scholars. It has also a good library, founded by Dr. Sheen. The edifice itself is a stately pile of fine hewn stone; it has a large vaulted chapel covered with free-stone, and over it is a lofty spire. The common hall and schools are very large; and the cloisters and private lodgings for the masters and scholars have been very magnificent, but the college revenue is not sufficient to keep it in repair.

St. Leonard's college was founded by John Hepborne, prior of St. Andrews, in the reign of James V. with salaries for a principal or warden, four professors of philo-

sophy, and eight poor scholars; another professor of philosophy has since been added, with a handsome salary, and also a library. By an act which passed in the twentieth year of the reign of his late majesty, these two colleges were united.

The New College was founded by archbishop Bethune, uncle to the cardinal of that name, with endowments for a principal, a professor, and some students in divinity, which is only taught in this college. As the two last colleges have a better revenue than that of St. Salvator, they are in much better repair. In the latter king Charles I. held a parliament, in a spacious room able to seat four hundred persons in regular order; and it still retains the name of the parliament-room.

The last place we shall mention in this county is Falkland, which is a pretty neat large town, almost in the center, seated at the foot of Lomond-hill, which is said to be full a mile in height, and covered with the finest pastures for sheep. From the top there is not only a prospect of Fifeshire, but of the country all round it, to the south beyond Edinburgh and the Lothians almost to Berwick; to the west as far as the hills by Stirling; and to the north into Perthshire and Angus. Near this town James V. built a palace, which, by its ruins, especially the two sides yet standing in the inner square, appears to have been a large and noble structure. It consists of two stories, adorned with rows of round marble pillars set in sockets of stone; it has basso relievos between every window, and on the top of every pillar a statue as big as the life. The entrance to it is like that of Holyrood-house, between two stately towers; and on the right hand is a chapel, with niches on the outside, in which are statues as big as the life. Here were also spacious gardens, and a park eight miles round, well planted with oak and stocked with deer.

S E C T. XXIII.

Of the Shire of Angus, or Forfar; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS county is divided on the north from the brae of Mar by the ridge of the Brinchinnin-mountains; on the east it is bounded by Mearns; on the south by the firth of Tay and the Northern ocean; and on the west and north-west by Perthshire; extending thirty-four miles in length, and twenty-six in breadth.

The shire of Angus, as it is generally called by the Scots, produces wheat and all other sorts of grain, and is diversified with large hills, lakes, forests, pastures, and meadows. It is a good country along the coast, but is there very narrow; yet spreads wide among the mountains, which are inhabited by Highlanders, and abound with harts, hinds, roebucks, and fowl. They have also some mines of lead and iron.

The principal towns of this county are Forfar, Dundee, and Montrose.

Forfar is a royal burgh, a market-town, and the seat of a presbytery containing ten parishes. It stands fourteen miles west of Montrose, is governed by a provost and bailiff, and was anciently the seat of several parliaments, and had a royal palace, though scarce any remains of it are now left.

Dundee is seated in a pleasant plain at the foot of a hill on the north side of the Tay, near its entrance into the ocean. It is a pretty town and a royal burgh, the seat of a presbytery, containing seventeen parishes. This is esteemed the best town in the shire for strength, situation, and trade. The town is two miles in compass, and better built than most in Scotland. Its market-place, from whence run four large streets, inhabited by many merchants, is almost as spacious as that of Nottingham, it being the largest and finest in North Britain, except that of Aberdeen, and has a town-house built with free-stone. It has a great church, formerly collegiate, which is an exact cross, larger than that of St. Giles's at Edinburgh; it is a lofty square building, and a great ornament to the town. The west end next the steeple was beat down by Cromwell's army, and the other three parts are

are now divided into three separate churches. The steeple has a fine tower, like that at Wrexham in Wales, and very lofty. The church-yard is without the town, and adorned with fine monuments. There are here also one or two meeting-houses for the Episcopalians.

The town is populous, and one of the gayest in Scotland. The houses are not high, but well built, chiefly of stone, in a very beautiful manner, which, together with its fine situation, and the splendor in which the inhabitants live, have given it the name of Bonny Dundee. The inhabitants, who carry on a foreign trade, are generally rich, and for those that are fallen to decay there is a large handsome hospital, with gardens that run down to the rivers.

The harbour, which is two or three leagues within the mouth of the Tay, has three entrances; it has also two or three small piers, and is capable of containing two or three hundred sail of ships of small burthen. From the harbour is a pleasant walk paved with flag-stones, and shaded with rows of trees on each side, which serves for an exchange to the merchants and masters of ships; and on one side are also large ware-houses for goods and granaries for corn. The river itself is a good harbour, with safe riding, good ground, and deep water.

As this is one of the best ports for commerce in all Scotland, it has a considerable inland trade, especially for corn and linen, which the merchants buy up for exportation, and which enriches all the adjacent country.

Montrose is seated at the mouth of the river Esk, on the Northern ocean, forty-six miles to the north-east of Edinburgh. It is well situated for trade, and has a harbour for ships of considerable burthen; hence the inhabitants carry on a good foreign trade, particularly to Norway. The town is adorned with many fine buildings, and principally consists of one long handsome street, which runs parallel with the shore. It gives the title of duke to the chief of the family of Graham, and is famous for the escape of the Pretender, who took shipping here privately in 1716, for fear of a visit from the late duke of Argyle and general Cadogan.

S E C T. XXIV.

Of Invernesshire; including Badenoch, Lochaber, with a small Part of Ross and Murray; their Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a Description of Inverness, and some Account of Fort William and Fort Augustus.

INVERNESS-SHIRE, which was formerly much more extensive than it is at present, is bounded on the north by Ross and Cromarty; on the east by Murray-land; on the south by Lorn, Broadalbin, and Athol; and by the Western sea on the west; extending about sixty miles from east to west, and forty-five, where broadest, from north to south.

This shire abounds with iron ore; it has some woods fifteen miles long, and large woods of oak. It also contains several remarkable lakes: one of the most extraordinary of these is seated upon a very high mountain; it extends about thirty fathoms in length, and six in breadth; yet no stream is observed to run either to or from it, it being entirely fed by its own springs, though so deep that it has never been fathomed. It is equally full at all seasons of the year, and, though the water is always cold, it never freezes. About seventeen miles to the west, on the north side of a mountain called Glenitea, is a lake called Lochanwyn, or the Green-lake, which is covered with ice all the year round.

Badenoch has part of Murray on the north, Lochaber on the west, Athol on the south, with part of Murray and the Braes of Mar on the east, extending, according to Templeman, forty-nine miles in length, and twenty-two in breadth in the widest part. This tract particularly abounds with deer.

Lochaber is bounded on the north by Badenoch, on the east by Athol and part of Badenoch, on the south by Lorn and Broadalbin, and on the west by a mountainous tract towards the coast; extending, according to Mr. Templeman, fifty-seven miles in length, and fifty-one in breadth.

This extensive tract abounds with pastures, woods, deer, and goats; and has some veins of iron, but not much corn; for though very pleasant, it is reckoned one of the most barren countries in Scotland.

Inverness, from which this county has its name, is its principal town, and is seated at the bottom of the firth of Murray, where it receives the Ness, a hundred and six miles to the north of Edinburgh: from that river and Euner, which in the ancient Scots tongue signifies an harbour, the town derives its name. It is a royal burgh, a market-town, the seat of a sheriff, and of a presbytery containing thirteen parishes. It stands on the south side of the Ness, over which it has a bridge of hewn-stone, with seven arches, that leads into what is properly called the North Highlands. It is conveniently situated for trade, of which it has a considerable share, with a harbour for small ships, a church for the Highlanders, and another for the Lowlanders, and the ruins of a castle in which the kings of Scotland formerly resided, and standing on a hill that affords a fine prospect of the town and the adjacent country, which is very fertile. It is reckoned a well built, clean, and pleasant town; it has in particular two very good streets, with coffee-houses and taverns, and the people are more polite than in most towns of Scotland. For Oliver Cromwell, who erected forts, and, like the Romans, placed his stationary legions in the most eminent parts of the country for keeping the people in awe, built a strong citadel here, in which he left a garrison; the soldiers of which settling in the country after the peace, and applying themselves to the culture and improvement of the land, there is here spoken less of the broad Scots dialect than farther to the south, and is more of the English method of husbandry; but it only reaches a little way, for the mountains intersecting the pleasant valleys, the rudeness of the Highlanders soon succeeds. Though Oliver's fort was demolished after the Restoration, it was restored after the Revolution, and king William III. always kept a garrison in it, on account of its being one of the most considerable passes between the Low-countries and the Highlands.

Innerlochy, Inverlochy, or Fort William, stands in the center between the North and West Highlands, at the mouth of the river Aber, a hundred miles to the north-west of Edinburgh. It is a regular fort erected after the Revolution, and received the name of Fort William in honour of William III. It is intended as a curb on the Highlanders, and has a large garrison. It is so situated that if it be ever so much straitened by a blockade, or siege by land, it may receive constant supplies by sea.

Fort Augustus is a regular fortification built by general Wade near the south end of Lochness, to awe the Highlanders, and to prevent their disturbing the soldiers he employed in making a road here, which, with extraordinary pains, they carried through mountains and morasses that seemed almost impassable. By this road the king's forces may easily enter and traverse the country; which was before inaccessible to all but the Highlanders.

S E C T. XXV.

Of Argyleshire, or Inverary, including Argyle Proper, Cawal, Lorne, Knapdale, and Cantyre; with the Situation, Extent, and Produce of each, and a Description of the principal Islands belonging to Argyleshire.

ARGYLESHIRE is bounded by Lochaber on the north-east, by Perthshire on the east, by the Irish sea and the firth of Clyde on the south, and by several islands on the west and north. It extends a hundred and twenty miles in length, and forty in breadth.

This county comprehends Argyle Proper, Cawal, Lorne, Knapdale, Cantyre, and many of the Western islands. It is the seat of a provincial synod, containing five presbyteries and forty-nine parishes, and gives title of duke to the noble family of Campbell. It abounds with castles and gentlemen's seats, most of which belong to branches of that family, which are famous for having suffered for their steadfast adherence to the Protestant religion and the liberties of their country, particularly

ticularly from the time of the Reformation to the Revolution.

The country is mountainous, and the inhabitants, who speak Erse, the ancient language of Scotland, live mostly by hunting and fishing; for it has seven great lakes, with other lesser ones, that abound with fish. The coast is covered with high rocks, and bleak mountains covered with heath, which feed great numbers of black cattle, deer, and other wild beasts; for their cattle generally run wild, but are excellent meat.

The district of Argyle Proper has Knapdale and Cowal on the south, Lenox and the Grampian hills on the east, Lochaber on the north, and Lorne on the west. It lies between Loch-fyn, which is sixty miles long and about four broad, and Loch-aw, a fresh-water lake, twenty-four miles in length, and one in breadth. This last lake contains twelve islands, and from it runs a river named Aw, which, after a course of six or seven miles, enters Loch-ediff, which abounds with salmon, and falls into the Western sea near the isle of Mull.

Cowal, the next division, lies between Loch-fyn on the west, the firth of Clyde on the east, the isle of Bute on the south, Argyle Proper and the Grampian-mountains on the north, and abounds with lakes and bays.

The principal place it contains is Deroan, formerly a seat of the bishop of Argyle, and now of a presbytery consisting of eight parishes.

Lorne, the third division, is a level country, the pleafantest and fruitfulest part of Argyleshire, especially in barley; and it has also many lakes. It is bounded on the east by Broadalbin; on the south by Loch-leaven, a lake of great extent; on the west by the Western Islands; and on the north by Lochaber; extending about thirty miles in length from north to south, and about nine, where broadest, from east to west.

In this district Lochaber runs so far into the land from the Western sea, that it is only disjoined from Loch-ness, which runs into the Eastern ocean, by a very narrow ridge of hills which run between them.

Knapdale is bounded on the east by Loch-fyn, which separates it from Cowal, on the south by Cantyre, on the west by the Western Islands, on the north by Lorne, and on the north-east by Broadalbin. It is twenty miles from north to south, and thirteen where broadest from east to west. It is joined to Cantyre by a neck of land scarce a mile broad. This part is also full of lakes, in some of which are islands with castles; but it is in general fitter for pasture than corn.

The principal town in this division is Inverary, which is seated on Loch-fyn, seventy-five miles to the north-west of Edinburgh, and forty-five from Glasgow. It is a royal burgh, a market town, and the seat of a presbytery consisting of twelve parishes. Near it is a fine large castle, adorned with gardens and a park, and is the chief residence of the duke of Argyle.

Cantyre, or Kintire, which signifies the Land's-Head, is the most southern division of this shire, and is a peninsula that extends thirty-seven miles from north to south, and seven in breadth. From the point of land, called the Mull of Cantyre, it is scarce sixteen miles to the Fair Foreland in Colerain, on the north-east of Ireland. It is a very fruitful populous tract, inhabited both by Highlanders and Lowlanders, and for the most part by the former, brought hither by the Argyle family, who have taken extraordinary care in civilizing the inhabitants.

The principal place here is Campbell-Town, which is seated on the lake of Kilkerran, on the eastern coast, ninety-seven miles from Edinburgh, and thirteen from the Mull of Cantyre. It has a weekly market, is the seat of a presbytery consisting of ten parishes, and has a safe harbour.

The principal of the Western Islands belonging to Argyleshire are Ila, or Ilay, Jura, and Mull.

Ilay, or Ila, is seated fifteen miles from Cantyre, and is reckoned the most westerly of all the islands of Britain. It extends twenty-four miles in length, and from eight to eighteen in breadth; is not so healthy as Jura; but abounds with corn, black cattle, and deer; has several rivers and fresh-water lakes. The lake called Loch-linlagen, in the center of the island, is three miles round,

and discharges itself into the sea. In this lake is a small island, called The Royal Seat of the great Macdonald, who was crowned and anointed king of the Isles by the bishop of Argyle and seven priests, in the presence of all the heads of the tribes of the isles and continent. The ruins of his palace, and the houses of his courtiers and guards, are still to be seen. Here are also many caves, one of which is big enough to contain two hundred men. Here are also six churches and a chapel. There are a multitude of little islands on the coast, some of which are inhabited.

Jura is twenty-four miles long, and seven broad. It is separated by a narrow freight from Ilay, one mile in breadth, and is reckoned one of the most healthful places in Scotland; it has a clear air from the middle of March till Michaelmas, and the inhabitants live to a great age. It belongs to the duke of Argyle, and the east coast is well inhabited. It is famous for its medicinal waters, and its rivers which abound with salmon. The east coast is well inhabited, and abounds with deer, horses, black cattle, sheep, goats, wild and tame-fowl; and on the western shore are found coral and coroline. In the middle of the island are four very high mountains, the two highest of which are called by seamen The Paps of Jura; they are covered with heath and some grass that affords pasturage for the cattle. Between the north end of Jura and the little isle of Scarba is a whirlpool, that has an impetuous current not to be paralleled any where about the island of Great Britain; yet the smallest fishing-boat may cross it at the last hour of tide without the least danger. There is only one church in the island. The inhabitants are all Protestants, but speak Erse, and wear the Highland habit.

Mull, the largest of these islands, lies at a small distance to the north of Jura, and is twenty-four miles in length, but in the broadest part is as much in breadth, and is divided from Lochaber by a channel not half a league broad. The air is temperately cold and moist. A ridge of mountains run through the middle of the island, and one of them is so high, that it is seen from all the western islands and from a great part of Scotland. The island is well watered with rivulets, and affords good pasturage: the horses and black cattle are small but sprightly, and the latter very good meat. It has also a great number of sheep, goats, deer, and wild fowl; with barley, oats, great variety of plants, some wood, and plenty of turf and peat. The coast, especially Lechleffin bay, abounds with herrings, cod, ling, oysters, cockles, mussels, clams, &c. Here are also seals and otters. Several of the rivers abound with salmon and pearl mussels, and some fresh-water lakes have plenty of trouts and eels. The isle of Mull has several bays, and places for anchorage, of which that of Duart, on the east side, is most frequented. It has three castles, of which castle Duart, on a promontory near the south-east corner of the island, is the principal.

The inhabitants, who, except a very few, are Protestants, have, according to Mr. Martin, only two parish-churches, and a little chapel. The late duke of Argyle became its proprietor, upon its being forfeited by the family of Maclean.

On the western coast of Mull are many little islands, among which is Jona, which is but two miles long and one broad; yet on several accounts is worthy of notice. Marble is found upon it of various colours, with very beautiful veins. The east side is all arable and plain, abounding in corn and grass, and has nine ports for landing; but the western coast is exceeding bad, and full of rocks; the tides here are also very violent.

This island had two monasteries, and has a church famous for the burial of the kings of Scotland, of whom here lie no less than forty-eight; and is also famous for being the residence of Columbus, the apostle of the Picts, from whose cell this island, says Bede, was called Columb-hill. After the Scots left the isle, a bishop's see was erected in Sodor, a little village, from which all the islands within his diocese were called Sodorensis. Its church, first dedicated to St. Columbus, now called St. Mary's, was formerly the cathedral, and is a beautiful structure: the steeple is large, the doors and windows curiously

curiously carved, and the altar of the finest marble. There are likewise two other churches in the island. Here are what are termed black stones, though their real colour is grey. On these black stones, it is said, Macdonald king of the Isles kneeled, and with hands lift up to heaven, delivered the rights of their lands to his vassals in the isles and continent, solemnly swearing that he would never recal the privileges he then granted.

SECT. XXVI.

Of the Shires of Nairn and Cromarty; their Situation, Produce, and principal Towns.

NAIRN is in some measure united to Cromartyshire, by their sending alternately one member to parliament. Nairn is bounded on the north by Murray firth; on the east by Elgin; and on the west and south by Inverness comprehending the west part of Murray, which lies between the river Findorn and Nairn; extending in its greatest length twenty miles, and in its greatest breadth fourteen.

The air is very wholesome, and the winters pretty mild. The lower part of the country bears much corn, which is soon ripe; but the high country is fitter for pasture. It has many woods of fir and other trees, especially in the south-west part of the shire, on the banks of the river Nairn. It has many lakes and mountains, yet abounds with little towns and villages.

Nairn, the principal town, is a royal burgh, one hundred and four miles from Edinburgh, and had formerly a harbour, which is now choaked up with sands that cover the ruins of an ancient castle.

Cromartyshire is but a small country in a peninsula, separated on the south from Nairnshire by a part of Murray firth which runs up to Inverness; and on the north from Rossshire by the firth of Cromartie; it being bounded on the west by the shires of Inverness and Ross; and only twelve miles long and three where broadest.

Cromarty, the capital, is delightfully seated fourteen miles from Inverness, on the branch of the Murray firth called the firth of Cromarty; a road where the whole royal navy might securely anchor, and have sea room enough; though it is not much used either by the natives, or by any one else. At the entrance to this firth are dangerous rocks called the Craigs: and at this town is a ferry which crosses into Rossshire, from which the inhabitants are supplied with peat for fuel. It is a market town, and has spacious links, or a level green strand. It gave title of earl to an unfortunate nobleman, who was also hereditary sheriff of the county: but both titles are now fallen to the crown.

SECT. XXVII.

Of the Shire of Bamf; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns.

THE shire of Bamf comprehends that part of Buchan north of the river Ugie, with the districts of Strathavern, Euzie, Boyne, Balvenie, Strathyla, and Strathavin. On the north it is bounded by Murray firth; on the east by the river Dovert and the northern ocean; on the south by the river or water of Ugie, which separates it from Aberdeenshire; on the south-west by the Braes of Badenoch and Braemar; and on the west by the water of the Spey and Elginshire. Its dimensions are variously given: but, according to Templeman's survey, it is fifty miles in length from east to west, and its greatest breadth eighteen.

The climate and soil are nearly the same as in the neighbouring country of Aberdeenshire.

That part called Buchan, extends north from the river Ugie to the sea, and west as far as the river Dovert, that is, nine miles from north to south, and twenty from east to west. It is watered by abundance of brooks and rivers, and consists of corn-fields and little hills; it being the most extensive tract in the whole kingdom free from mountains. The Boyne is a little district that extends

along the firth of Murray, and is fruitful near the shore, but in other parts mountainous, and has large quarries of spotted marble.

Balveny is a mountainous tract on the west side of the shire; it extends along the river Spey, and abounds with pastures and woods. It is famous for a rock that produces hones and whetstones sufficient to serve the whole island; so that the people use them as slates, for covering their houses. Here are also springs of alum water, and veins of a stone from which alum is extracted.

Strathyla, which lies to the north-east of Balveny, is fruitful in corn and grass, and such plenty of limestone, that the inhabitants build their houses with it. They are also considerable gainers by selling their lime for cattle and fine linen yarn at a weekly market in the village of Keith, on the river Dovert.

Strathavin is a district seated on the river Avon; Strathdovert also receives its name from its extending along the river Dovert.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Bamf, the county-town, is seated at the mouth of the Dovert, one hundred and ten miles to the north of Edinburgh; but has no port, and consequently little trade, except for corn and salmon: for the townsmen are fonder of tillage than of commerce. It is a royal burgh, and here the sheriff holds his courts. It has the ruins of a castle, and of an abbey which belonged to the Cistercian monks.

Tureff is seated seven miles from Bamf, on a river that falls into the Dovert; it is a market town, and the seat of a presbytery. The adjacent country is very pleasant, and abounds with gentlemen's seats.

Frazerburgh, is a sea-port on the coast of Murray firth, fifteen miles from Bamf, and is reckoned the chief town of the district of Buchan; it has two piers of free-stone, which renders the harbour so safe and commodious, that thirty ships may securely winter here at a time.

Upon the banks of the Spey, which runs through this county, is Gordon castle, the noblest palace in the North, it being the duke of Gordon's chief seat, adorned with pleasant gardens, a great park, and fine canal, with an agreeable fountain and statues. The castle is so large, that it appears more like a little town than a nobleman's seat.

SECT. XXVIII.

Of the Shire of Sutherland; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS county, including Strathnaver, has Caithness and the Northern ocean on the east; Ross on the south; the country of Assynt to the west; and the Northern ocean to the north; extending, according to Mr. Templeman, eighty-eight miles in length, and forty-two in breadth:

The country is very mountainous, but less so than Ross, and according to Camden, is more fit for breeding of cattle than bearing of corn. The valleys, however, are pleasant, fertile, and well inhabited. It abounds with black cattle, sheep, deer, and wild-fowl; and it is said that all the deer bred on the mountain Arkil have forked tails. It has three remarkable forests, and many other woods that afford hawks and plenty of game, which the inhabitants are fond of hunting. Here are hills of white marble, and a great deal of free-stone, lime-stone, iron-stone, and good slate. It is remarkable, that though this county is seated so far north, saffron grows in it very well.

There is one sort of bird said to be peculiar to these most northern districts, which the inhabitants call a knag: it resembles a parrot, and digs its nest with its beak in the trunk of trees.

In this county are above sixty lakes, abounding with swans, geese, ducks, and other fowl of various kinds, and are full of fish. The largest is Loch-fin, which is fourteen miles long. In many of them are very pleasant islands. In short, this country is so full of bays, rivers, and lakes, that there is scarce a town in it that is not washed with salt or fresh water, and both its bays and coast

coasts abound with seals, salmon, and shell-fish of all sorts. It gives title of earl to the chief of the noble family of Sutherland, who has the titles of hereditary sheriff and admiral. It has many commodious harbours, from which the inhabitants export barley, salt, coal, beef, hides, tallow, skins, wool, butter, cheese, salmon, &c.

The north part, called Strathnaver, is separated from the rest by mountains, and bounded on the north and west by the ocean; on the east by Caithness; and on the south by Assynt and Sutherland. It is so called from the river Naver, which runs thro' it; it extends thirty-four miles from east to west, and twelve from north to south; but in others no more than six.

The snow lies a long time upon the high mountains. It has good harbours and many woods, with great herds of black cattle, sheep, horses, and goats. The inhabitants take their fat cattle and colts to the neighbouring fairs; but export their salt beef, hides, skins, tallow, butter and cheese. Here is also great plenty of venison, and the inhabitants despise those who do not delight in hunting.

It is observed that the people of this and the neighbouring countries are strong, courageous, frugal, capable of fatigue, civil to strangers, chearful, and sincere.

The day here in summer is computed at eighteen hours, and when the sun is set, it is much more than twilight till it rises again; but the nights are as long in the midst of winter: however, the air is even then illuminated by the aurora borealis, or the northern lights. It is also observed, that the winters here are in general more temperate than they are farther to the south, and that some of the rivers, particularly the Ness, never freeze; which is ascribed by naturalists to the salt and mild vapours from the neighbouring sea, which fill the air, and as it were smother the acute particles of the cold; and for the same reason the snow in the vallies neither lies so deep, nor stays so long on the ground, as in other places.

Dornoch, the capital of the county, is seated on the bank of the firth of Murray, one hundred and thirty miles to the north of Edinburgh, and was formerly the see of a bishop; here was also a cathedral for the diocese of Caithness, with a castle for the earl of Sutherland, and the family burying-place. Dornoch is the seat of a presbytery containing nine parishes, and has four annual fairs, which are much frequented. It has, however, at other times little or no trade, and is now remarkable for nothing but its antiquity.

Brora is a burgh of barony at the mouth of a river of its own name; in the neighbourhood are mines of excellent coal, and a great deal of salt is here made and exported.

SECT. XXIX.

Of the Shire of Clackmanan; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Places.

CLACKMANANSHIRE is bounded on the north by the Ochill-hills, on the south by the firth of Forth, on the east by part of Perthshire, and on the west by part of Sterlingshire. It is about eight miles long, and where broadest but five,

This is a plain fertile country toward the firth; but the rest is fitter for pasture; however, the lands below the Ochill-hills abound both with corn and pasture. About Alloa and Clackmanan are many coal-pits; and the inhabitants export great quantities of coal, not only to Edinburgh, but even to England, Holland, and France; for it yields the best and the greatest quantity of coal of any part of Scotland, it being that distinguished in England by the name of Scots coal. This county joins with the shire of Kinross in alternately sending a member to parliament, though Kinross is generally included in Fifeshire.

Clackmanan, the county town, stands on a rising ground, upwards of thirty miles from Edinburgh, and has a noble castle, adorned with fine gardens.

But the most considerable place is Alloa, or Alloway, a sea-port, five miles to the east of Sterling, and the last on the Forth, where that river falls into the arm of the

sea called the Firth. This town, though a village, is larger and better built than most of the borough towns in the kingdom. There is in particular one street that runs down to the harbour, the broadest and best paved of any next to Edinburgh, with rows of lime-trees on each side, as at Dundee and in the towns of Holland. Alloa has a very considerable foreign trade, and several manufactures are erected there, all of which have some relation to navigation. They particularly make excellent sail cloth, which is said to be as good as that of Holland. There is a large rope-walk and ware-house of naval-stores, as hemp, tar, &c. imported from Russia, Livonia, Norway, &c. from which last place deals are also imported, and here are several saw-mills employed in cutting or splitting them. A factory has likewise been settled here for the merchants of Glasgow, who have erected ware-houses for stowing their tobacco, sugar, and other goods imported from the British colonies in America, in order to be ready for exportation to Holland, Hamburgh, Bremen, the Baltic, London, or where-ever they are wanted; and also for stowing such commodities as they import from Sweden, Russia, &c. The river is here as broad as the Thames at London-bridge, the water deep, and the tide flows so strong, that ships may lay their sides to the wharf, and load and unload their goods without the least difficulty. There are salt-houses all along the shore for boiling of salt, which is fetched away in great quantities by ships that bring other goods from Hamburgh, Bremen, or the Baltic.

The earl of Mar had a seat here, formerly called Alloway-castle, encompassed with fine plantations; the gardens taking up forty-two acres, and the wood, with the vistas cut through it, a hundred and fifty. The entrance from the town on the west is by a pair of fine gates, through a spacious avenue, which leads to the area fronting the house, in the midst of which is a gladiator, and on the right hand of the area a spacious garden, with a fine terrace and bowling-green, adorned with lofty evergreens. On the south side of the house is a spacious parterre, beautifully adorned with statues and vases; and from thence to the river runs a fine avenue, from which and from the parterre are thirty-two different vistas, each terminating on a remarkable seat, or mountain, at some miles distance; one of them shews Sterling-castle, which though but four miles from hence by land, yet from the various windings of the river is twenty-four by water. In the middle of the terrace is a fine basin of water, in the midst of which is a group of Cain killing Abel; and at the end of the river is a pair of pyramidal gates, where a ship of three hundred tons burthen may unload. There is a very long and wide avenue to the east through the wood, and between each vista from the parterre are wildernesses and little grottos. The earl of Mar lost this fine seat by his rebellion in 1715, and the government, to whom it was forfeited, ordered it to be kept in good order.

SECT. XXX.

Of the Shire of Ross; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns and Islands; as Sky, Lewis, and Harris.

THE shire of Ross in general, including Tayn and Cromarty, for the last, though a small county of itself, is also considered as a part of Ross-shire, has the Western sea and the isle of Sky on the west, Strathnaver and Sutherland on the north and north-east, Cromarty and Murray firth on the east, and Inverness on the south. The form is very irregular, it being much contracted on the north-east and south by the neighbouring counties; but according to Mr. Templeman, it is eighty miles in length, and seventy-eight in breadth.

This extensive country is for the most part mountainous and woody towards the Western ocean; but on that side next to the German sea it is better cultivated, more fruitful in corn, fruit, and herbs, than could be expected in a country so far north, and abounds in pasture. The straths, or valleys near the rivers, are covered with woods, particularly upon the Charron and the water of Braan; and near Alfarig are woods of fir, fifteen

or twenty miles in length. It feeds great numbers of black cattle, horses, goats, and deer; has abundance of land and sea fowl, and is well supplied with fresh water fish by its lakes and rivers. The lochs, or lakes, on the west coast, in the proper season, abound with herrings, particularly Loch-eu, which is divided into two parts, one a bay of the sea, and the other a fresh-water lake, extending about nine miles in its greatest length, and three where broadest. There are extensive woods on its sides, where abundance of iron was formerly obtained. Loch-bryan, on the same coast, is another bay, that runs ten miles up the country; is three miles broad at its mouth, and is also famous for herrings. It receives several rivers, and on the north side are many villages.

Coygach and Aflynt are two mountainous districts north from hence, but abound with deer, and have huge rocks of marble, with several gentlemen's seats towards the coast.

The middle part of the county, called Ardros, is mountainous and scarce inhabited; but affords some pastures. The north-east parts, on the rivers Ochill and Carron, and the firth of Tayn, are pretty fruitful, and abound with villages. This firth runs near twenty-five miles up the east side of the county, dividing Ross from Sutherland, and is seven miles broad at its mouth; but its quicksands render it unsafe for navigation.

Another district, called Ardmeanach, forms a part of a peninsula which lies between the bays of Cromarty and Murray, extending thirteen miles and a half from east to west, and five and a half, where broadest, from north to south. It has high mountains, some of which are both pleasant and fertile.

There is likewise an inland tract called Strathcarron, from a river which divides it. This is a woody country, especially in firs, and abounds in horses and black cattle.

This county has some mountains so high, that they are covered with snow all the year round.

The principal places it contains are the following:

Channeriy, or Chanoury, a market-town so called from a college of regular canons that flourished there. It stands on the peninsula between the bay of Cromarty and Murray, among pleasant and fertile hills, and has a ferry over the firth into Murray. It was anciently the see of a bishop, and had a large cathedral, a part of which is yet remaining, and a castle in which the bishop resided. It is at present the seat of a presbytery, consisting of seven parishes; and has a stately house belonging to the earl of Seaforth.

Dingwell, a market-town and royal burgh, seated at the bottom of the firth of Cromarty, fifteen miles west of the town of Cromarty, is the seat of a presbytery, containing thirteen parishes.

Tayne, a royal burgh and market-town, stands in a fruitful country, twelve miles to the north of Cromarty, and is the seat of a presbytery, containing nine parishes. It is pretty well inhabited, and has a tolerable good trade, from its communication with the Western islands and its herring-fishery.

We shall now give an account of the principal of the Western islands generally included in the shire of Ross.

Skie, or Sky, the largest but one of all the Western islands, is divided from Rosshire by a strait thirty-five miles in length, but in some places so narrow, that a man may be easily heard from one side to the other, especially if the wind be favourable. It extends sixty miles in length, and about twenty in breadth; and the coast is cut into a great number of gulphs and promontories. The soil is generally a black mould, though there is some of a red colour, in which iron is found. In some places there is fine white marble, black and white marcasites, agate, and variegated stones of all colours, crystals also of different colours, plenty of free-stone and limestone, and after great rains stones of a purple colour rowl down the rivulets.

Though the channel which separates it from Scotland is navigable by the largest men of war, yet the current is so violent, that no ship is able to sail against it, be the wind ever so fair: yet in the narrow ferry, called the Kyle, they make cows swim over; for this purpose they tie a withy about the cow's lower jaw, and thus bind

five of them together, after which a man in a boat holds the withy that ties the foremost, and thus rows over; and in this manner takes over three or four hundred cows in the space of a few hours.

It is very high land both on the coast and within the country, where are seven high mountains, that lie near each other almost in the center of the island. The soil is fruitful enough in the lower grounds, and produces corn and cattle, as horses, cows, sheep, goats, and hogs: but the black cattle have seldom any thing to feed upon in winter except sea-weeds, and therefore watch the ebb very strictly; by this means, and by their being exposed to the rigour of the coldest seasons, the cows become such skeletons in the spring, that many of them are unable to rise from the ground without help; but as the grass grows up they recover their strength. The island supplies the neighbouring continent with barley and oats. Cod and ling are common upon the coast, and herrings in great abundance, for the taking of which they have many convenient bays and harbours, with about thirty small rivers that afford salmon and other fish, and abundance of fresh-water lakes well stored with trouts and eels. They have land and water-fowl in great abundance, and among the rest eagles and hawks. They have likewise otters and seals, and of the former are a large species with a white spot on the breast; but these are very scarce, and hard to be killed. They have likewise serpents of several kinds.

The island is divided into three parts, belonging to three different proprietors; is the seat of a presbytery, and has ten parish-churches. Both the proprietors and all the people are Protestants, except some of the meaner sort, who are of the Romish religion.

Lewis and Harris, which have been supposed to be two islands, form only one, which lies sixty-eight miles west of the main-land of Scotland, and twenty-two in the same direction from the Isle of Sky. It is subdivided into Lewis and Harries, or Harris, by a narrow channel, which runs so far within the country, that it is only joined by a small neck of land: the whole extending near a hundred miles in length from north to south, and ten or twelve in breadth, it being commonly called the Long Island. It is healthy, especially in the middle. The soil is arable for about sixteen miles on the west coast, and in some places on the east; but it is generally sandy, except the muirs or heaths, which are partly of red and partly of black clay; of which the women here make vessels for boiling their meat, and for preserving their ale. It produces barley, oats, rye, flax, and hemp. Their manure is sea-weeds, foot, and peat-ashes. The island also abounds with cows, horses, sheep, goats, and hogs: their black cattle are small, but very prolific, and make excellent meat: their horses are likewise smaller than on the main-land, but as serviceable for all domestic uses, and live very hard, having little to feed on in winter but sea-weeds.

All the coast and numerous bays abound with cod, ling, herrings, and every other kind of fish taken in the Western isles: but the fishery is very much interrupted by whales, the young ones of which are eaten by the common people, who reckon their flesh very good food. They yield also plenty of shell-fish, as scallops, oysters, cockles, mussels, limpets, periwinkles, and spout-fish; of which last they are said to have such multitudes every seventh year, that the inhabitants manure the ground with them. On the shore are many caves, which shelter vast numbers of sea and land-fowl, otters, and seals; and the last they esteem nourishing food.

The inhabitants are of a good proportion and stature, generally of a ruddy complexion, healthy, strong, and long-lived. The small-pox proves very fatal to the young people; but seldom comes among them. The most common disease here is a cough. They are in general very acute and sagacious, have a mechanical genius, and when they have an opportunity shew that they have no despicable turn for the sciences: some of both sexes are skilled in poetry and music, and some elegant specimens of the former have been translated and published in English from the original Erse. The natives are likewise very dexterous at swimming, and are such stout mariners, that they will tug at the oar a whole day with no other

refreshment

refreshment than only a little bread and water, except their favourite snuff: but the sea on their coast is very tempestuous, and subject to sudden squalls, by which the light vessels they use in visiting the neighbouring islands are frequently overset. The natives are extremely hospitable, but poor. Once every summer they visit the neighbouring islands, to purchase fowls, eggs, down, and feathers; and, as soon as they come on shore, turn round with the sun, uncover their heads, and return thanks to God.

Here are several natural and artificial forts, with heaps of stones upon the heaths, supposed to be monuments of persons of note, or a general memorial for all who fell there in battle; and in the village of Clafernesh is a druidical temple, as is supposed. It consists of a circle of twelve obelisks, each seven feet high, and six feet distant from each other. In the center stands a stone thirteen feet high, exactly resembling the rudder of a ship: directly south from the circle stand four obelisks, running out in a line: another like this goes due east; and a third to the west: the number and distances of the stones being the same in the wings. But towards the north is a kind of avenue in two straight ranges of obelisks of the same size, and at the like distance as those of the circle: yet the ranges themselves are eight feet asunder, and consist of nineteen stones each, the thirty-ninth being at the entrance of the avenue. It is observed, that this temple stands astronomically, as denoting the twelve signs of the zodiac, and the four principal winds on the wings subdivided each into four more; by which, and the nineteen stones on each side the avenue, representing the cycle of nineteen years, it appears to have been dedicated to the sun, and subordinately to the elements and seasons, particularly the winds and the sea, as is manifest from the rudder in the middle.

S E C T. XXXI.

Of the Shire of Elgin; its Situation, Extent, Climate, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS county comprehends the west parts of Murray, and is bounded on the east and south-east by the river Spey, by Aberdeenshire and Badenoch on the south, and by the shire of Nairn and the Northern ocean on the west and north, it being about twenty-four miles in length, and twenty-one in breadth. The south side is called the Braes of Murray, and the south-east the Strath or valley of Spey.

The air is salutary, and the winter mild; for Murrayland, which includes this shire, Nairn, and a part of Inverness-shire, is thought to enjoy the best climate and soil of all the north of Scotland; so that the inhabitants boast that they have forty clear days in a year more than their neighbours.

The south side of the country is mountainous, but abounds with pasture, as the low country does with corn, which is soon ripe. Here are several woods of firs and other trees, that extend ten miles in length, with some large woods of oak. The soil is generally sand mixed with clay, and very fruitful when manured: whence it produces whatever is to be found in the other parts of the kingdom, none being more plentifully provided with bread, meat, fruit, and fish. The common drink here is ale; they have also French wine, and spirituous liquors of their own making.

The chief rivers of this county are the Spey, which next to the Tay, is the most considerable in the north of Scotland, and the most rapid in the whole kingdom. It rises in Badenoch, and after a course of seventy-six miles, besides its turnings and windings, falls into the North sea. It has an excellent salmon fishery, and in the heat of summer is observed to swell by a west wind, though there be no rain.

The Ness, which has likewise a good salmon fishery, rises from a lake called Caich, near the Irish sea, and is for some miles called Coich, after which running north-east it falls into the lake called Loch-garrif, afterwards into a lake called Eawic, and then turning to the south-east, falls into the Loch-ness, which is twenty-four miles

in length, and of an unknown depth. It is observed that this river never freezes, but smokes, and dissolves ice thrown into it during the greatest frost; the same is observed of the lake from which it rises.

The Lossie rises a few miles above Elgin, and falls into the sea, a few miles below it. It abounds most with salmon of any river in the island, except the Dee and the Don, eighty or a hundred lasts being annually pickled and exported, all taken in a few summer months and within the space of one mile. It abounds with fish indeed up to its source, but most of these are used for home consumption, and taken either with spears by day, or in wicker baskets, or little boats covered with hides, by night.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Elgin, a royal burgh seated in a pleasant plain, one hundred and four miles to the north of Edinburgh. It is washed on the east and north by the river Lossie, over which it has a bridge, and consists of one very long street, and several shorter, with a neat church in the middle. The houses are almost all built upon arches, which, with their intermediate pillars, form agreeable piazzas, and serve to defend the inhabitants from the rain, wind, or sun. It is also famous for the ruins of one of the most stately cathedrals in the kingdom: most of the end walls are still standing, and many noble pillars which shew its former grandeur. At the other end of the town are the ruins of an ancient castle, though demolished by the Danes. These ruins are upon a large mount, which affords a fine prospect all over the town, and of the adjacent country even to the sea, and of the winding course of the river. The sheriff keeps his court here. It has a weekly market, and is the seat of a presbytery, consisting of thirteen parishes. The highland gentry come to reside here every winter; and in this part of the country there are some commoners of the best estates in all Scotland; it being a rich country almost all the way from hence to Strathern.

Forres, a market town and royal burgh, pleasantly seated on the west side of the county on a river that falls into the Findern, ten miles from Elgin, and at the end of several ridges of mountains, and consists of one long street, with a church, a tolbooth or town-house, and the ruins of an old castle, in which it is said, the kings of Scotland used to reside. It is the seat of a presbytery, containing ten parishes. Near the town is a large pillar of one stone adorned with basso relievos, much obscured by time; this is a monument of a victory obtained by Malcolm Mackenneth over Sweno king of Denmark.

S E C T. XXXII.

Of the Isles of Orkney and Shetland. Their Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, and Produce, with the Manners, Customs and Trade of the Inhabitants.

THE Orkades or Orkney islands, with those of Shetland, make one stewartry, and send one member to parliament; the former lie north of Dungsby-head, in Caithness-shire, the most northern promontory of Scotland, between fifty eight degrees twenty-seven minutes, and the fifty ninth degree, ten minutes, of north latitude, and between the first degree thirty minutes, and the second degree fifty minutes west longitude. They are divided from the continent by the streight called Pentland firch, which is twenty four miles long, and from twelve to sixteen in breadth. They are reckoned about thirty in number, and, according to Mr. Templeman, contain an area of six hundred square miles; but they are not all inhabited, a considerable number, which are called Holms, being only used for pasture for sheep and goats.

The longest day among them exceeds eighteen hours by some minutes, and for the greatest part of June, one may see to read at midnight without a candle. The winters have less snow than rain, which sometimes falls in violent spouts, and the wind is often very boisterous. But nothing can be a finer sight in calm weather, than to see the sea in the narrow sounds and passages between the islands; where the different tides run as from a sluice,

as well one way as the other, and the boats flying along those rapid currents, like an arrow out of a bow; it being as impossible to row against them, as to shoot London bridge against the steep fall at low water.

In Pentland firth, behind the island Swinna, are two great whirlpools called the Wells of Swinna, which swallow up any vessel that comes within their draught, and the passage of that streight itself is very dangerous, from the many strong tides, which are no less than twenty-four, and upon the least contrary wind, make the sea run very high.

As these islands are larger, and have more towns and inhabitants than those of Shetland, so the soil is also better, and more improveable. The fields in summer every where abound with a variety of plants and roots, the latter of which are generally very large; but in winter and spring, when grass is scarce, their horses are fed with sea-weeds: but there is scarce a tree or shrub except myrtle, juniper, wild roses, heath, and some fruit trees, with others in their gardens. These islands produce corn in abundance, but the chief of it is oats, barley, and beer; for they have no wheat, rye or pulse, except in the gentleman's gardens. Their corn land is every where inclosed; but their sheep, swine, and most of their cattle feed at large, without a herdsman to look after them.

Their ewes commonly bring forth two lambs at a time, and some three or four; but they often die of a disease occasioned by a little animal about half an inch long breeding in their liver. Their horses are very small, but hardy and serviceable. They have all sorts of wild fowl, as partridges, moor-fowl plover, ducks, teal, widgeon, &c. with numbers of eagles and kites, and the former are said to seize sometimes upon young children and carry them a great way; and therefore if any one kills an eagle, he may, by law, claim a hen from every house in the parish where it is killed. Hawks and falcons have nests in several parts of the island, and the king's falconer comes annually and takes the young, for which he has a salary of twenty pounds, and a hen or dog out of every house in the country, except some houses that are privileged. The country also abounds with swans, geese, ducks, and solan geese; but there are no venomous animals, and it is said that if any be brought here they immediately die.

There are many small whales round the coast, with those amphibious animals otters and seals. They have also an amazing plenty of herrings and other sea fish, with abundance of oysters, mussels, crabs, cockles, &c. Though it cannot be expected that they should have any large rivers in a country divided into so many small islands, yet there are some rivulets full of trouts, and many lakes; but they are of no other use than to supply their cattle with water, and turn their mills.

As to minerals, there are some mines of silver, tin, lead, and perhaps of other metals, but none of them are improved. There are in many places quarries of freestone, with grey and red slate, and some marble and alabaster.

The inhabitants are well proportioned, and of a healthy constitution; but as they feed very much, especially the poorer sort, upon salt meat and fish, they are subject to the scurvy: but living with great frugality, they generally enjoy life to a great age, and seldom die of the doctor. The generality of the people speak English, with the Scots accent, but many of them use the Danish or Norwegian tongue among themselves, which they have retained ever since the Norwegians first peopled these islands. The people of distinction are hospitable and obliging, and even the vulgar are generally civil. They dress like the Lowlanders, only some of them wear a kind of sandals made of seal skin, which they tie about their feet with leather thongs. They are able and stout soldiers; and the common people, who are very laborious, undergo great hazards as well as fatigues at sea. To prevent the frequent incursions of the Norwegians, and those of the western islands, each village was formerly obliged to fit out a large boat well manned; and all the inhabitants were forced to appear in arms upon an alarm

from the beacons that were set on the top of the highest hills and rocks.

Several gentlemen have estates in these islands; but the king is proprietor, and one half of the whole belongs to the crown, besides the bishop's rates, which amount to about nine thousand marks scots per annum. There is here a yearly roup, or sale by auction, of Orkney rents, and the highest bidder is preferred to be the king's steward for the time, and as such is principal judge of the country.

The churches of both the Orkney and Shetland islands were formerly under the government of a bishop, whose cathedral was St. Magnus, in Kirkwall. There are in all thirty-one churches, and about a hundred chapels in the country, making up in the whole about eighteen parishes.

The trade of the Orkneys differs from that of Shetland, only in not depending on the resort of strangers, but on their own produce. They annually export a very great quantity of corn, black cattle, swine, and sheep, as also of butter, tallow, and salt, together with selch skins, otter-skins, lamb and rabbit skins, &c. great quantities of down, feathers, quills, hams, and wool. Their corn, in particular, is sold as far as Edinburgh, from whence they bring what goods they want in exchange. But the chief of their commerce consists in their fishing for herrings and white fish, and in their corn and cattle. But as they have not merchants to export their fish, when taken, they most commonly fish for the Dutch, and the merchants of Inverness; and though this sometimes obliges them to go far from home, yet being an adventurous hardy people, they make no difficulty of fishing in the darkest nights, at a distance from the islands, and in boats that are none of the best.

The principal of the Orkney islands are the following. Hoy is about twelve miles long, and six where broadest. The east part called Waes, is fertile and well inhabited, and it has some good harbours, with fresh-water lakes and rivers abounding with trout and other fish. About the summer solstice the reflection of the sun may be seen all night, as if covered with a cloud. There are here valleys so deep and gloomy as to strike terror into the mind of a traveller, the rocks rising to a prodigious height, and meeting so near at the top, that very little of the sky can be seen below. In one of the valleys is a stone called the Dwarf-stone, thirty-six feet long, eighteen broad, and nine thick, in which is a square hole about two feet high for an entrance, with a stone of the same size for a door. Within this entrance is the resemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the stone, big enough for two men to lie on. At the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. It lies in a heath about a mile from any house, and is supposed to have been an hermitage. On the tops of the mountains are wild sheep, and in a promontory here called Lyre-head, a bird called a lyre, builds its nest: it is about the size of a duck, very fat, and such delicious eating, that the natives climb for it at the hazard of their lives; and, like the bird-catchers we have mentioned in treating of Norway, are let down by ropes two hundred fathoms in search of the nests and the young ones, which when they find, they put in a bag, and sell for a very good price. Here are also hares as white as snow. The minister of Hoy has two churches, one at Hoy, and the other at Gramsey, a pleasant island about one mile long to the north of this; and the minister of Waes, in the eastern part of the isle, has also two churches, one at Waes, and the other in the little pleasant island of Flotta.

Pomona is the largest of all the Orkney islands, and on that account is called the main-land. It is twenty-four miles in length, and from six to nine broad. It has nine parish-churches, several mines of white and black lead, and has four remarkably good harbours, Kirkwall, Deic Sound, Grahamshall, and Kairston. The east part, called Deirness, is a peninsula joined to the other by a small neck of land. The island is, in general, very fertile, and both parts pleasant and well inhabited. It has lakes and rivulets abounding with salmon and other fish, and several bays and promontories. The cape at the north

north end, called the Mule, is very high, and the sea in a tempest beats against it with such force, that it rises higher than its top. In this island are two temples, where the natives believe the sun and moon were worshipped: these are one on the east and the other on the west side of a lake. The largest is a hundred and ten paces in diameter, and the other is semi-circular.

The only good town in the Orkneys is Kirkwall, which is seated forty-five miles from Dungsby-head, and is a royal burgh, narrow, but near a mile long. The houses are of stone covered with slate, and the inhabitants are governed by a provost, four bailiffs, and a common-council, like the other burghs of Scotland. Its cathedral, called St. Magnus, is now a parish-church, built of free-stone, and is larger than St. Giles's at Edinburgh. Its roof is supported by fourteen pillars on each side, and its steeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four large pillars. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white polished stones, embossed and elegantly flowered. There is here a public grammar-school, and several others for reading and writing. The seat of justice is kept here for all the rest of the islands; and here the the steward, sheriff, and commissary keep their separate courts. Its ancient privileges are still kept up, and they have a power to arrest by their own officers, to imprison, to make by-laws, to chuse their own magistrates, &c. yet they cannot try in capital causes, that part of justice being left to the lords of justiciary. This island has a large safe harbour in a bay on the north side of the island.

Beyond these, and still farther to the north, lies Sanda, the soil of which is very dry, and exceeding sandy, from whence it received its name. It is eleven or twelve miles in length, but very narrow, and well stored with corn. It is in short reckoned the most fruitful and beautiful of all the Orkney islands. Here is not only variety of fish, but of black cattle, sheep, corn, hay, and pasture, plenty of rabbits, which, next to fish, are the chief food of the natives; but they are in great want of fuel. Here are many buildings, two churches, and two pastors.

Fair is an island seated nine leagues from the Orkneys, and five from Shetland, and is seen from both. It is fruitful in corn and cattle, and abounds in all sorts of fish. This island has three very high rocky promontories, inaccessible, except on the north-east, where the land is lower, and forms a safe harbour. Its hawks are reckoned the best that are to be found, and go as far as the Orkneys for moor-hens and other prey. On the north-west side is a vast rock, which rises like a tower, is covered with grass, and feeds many sheep. The island has but few inhabitants, they being often plundered by the mariners who come this way to fish. The Dutch East India ships that chuse to come north-about pass by this island, where they often find men of war sent from Holland to wait for and convoy them home.

We now come to the Shetland or Zeland isles, which are about forty-six in number, with many holmes, or little uninhabited islands, on which cattle are fed, and barren rocks. They lie to the north-east of Scotland, between the fifty-ninth degree fifty minutes and the sixtieth degree forty-eight minutes north latitude, and between fifty minutes east and one degree fifty minutes west longitude.

There are only about twenty-six of these islands inhabited, and of these there are only three or four of note, whose principal towns are little better than villages, frequented by the many strangers employed in the fishery: yet some learned men have contended for these being the Ultima-Thule of the ancients, in which they placed their Elysian Fields; and the surprising length of the days during the months of June and July, when the people can see to read by the midnight-lights, probably raised an opinion, that the inhabitants enjoyed everlasting day. In the mean time it must be observed, that these islands, which, during four months in the year, enjoy almost perpetual day, are during our winter involved in darkness, and encompassed by ice, storms, and tempests: not a ship is to be seen near them, their sea not being navigable in most of the sounds; but when the sun returns to their coasts with his warm enlivening beams about the middle of May, or the beginning of June, a most chearful scene

succeeds this solitary gloom; the sea is covered with ships and boats, two thousand sail frequently crowding into their ports, and as it were covering the sea, spreading their nets for the herrings in all the sounds and channels among the islands. It is to this concourse of foreigners, and particularly of the Dutch, who often come with fifteen hundred, and sometimes with two thousand busses, all the trade of Shetland is owing. The Dutch, for the sake of trade, set up booths on shore, as in a fair, where they sell many useful things, especially wine, brandy, and spices; and, in return, receive flesh and vegetables. During this fair, as it may be called, the islanders enrich themselves by selling several sorts of Scots manufactures to the Dutch seamen, as well as all sorts of provisions; and also by fishing with their own barks and cobsles, and taking great quantities of fish on their own accounts, which they sell to the English or Dutch.

Though the air of winter is extremely cold, yet many of the natives live to a great age. Whatever were the original inhabitants, they are said to be at present mixed with Scots Lowlanders, dress like them, and talk English. They are a plain good-natured people, and often make feasts to compose quarrels. The people in general seem to be of a religious disposition, and are almost all of them Protestants. The shortness of their days, with the length of the nights in the winter, and the tempestuous state of the weather at that season, render them generally ignorant of whatever passes in the world from October till May: thus they knew nothing of the revolution which happened in November 1688, till May 1689, when being told of it by a fisherman, they put him in prison for high-treason; but the news was confirmed soon enough to restore the poor man to his liberty.

The natives live so much upon salt-fish, that they are very subject to the scurvy, against which nature has furnished them with plenty of scurvy-grass; and they cure the jaundice by mixing powder of snail-shells in their drink; for they have neither physicians nor surgeons. No corn agrees with the soil so well as barley, and therefore barley-bread is most in use. Their common drink is whey, which the natives barrel up, and keep in cold cellars: some drink butter-milk mixed with water; but those in more affluent circumstances have beer, ale, and wine. They make their oil, which they burn during their long winter nights, of the livers of fish. The inhabitants of the lesser isles maintain themselves in summer by catching fowl, and taking their eggs; and get considerably by selling their down and feathers. They catch them by climbing the rocks, at which they are very dexterous, and also by being let down from the top by ropes, while they sit in a basket. Their fuel is turf, peat, and heath. They make coarse cloth, knit stockings and gloves for their own use and for sale to the Norwegians; but their most profitable export is fish.

They have abundance of little horses, called skeltries, fit both for the plough and saddle, being naturally pacers, very sprightly, and strong enough to carry double, though they have small legs, and are so light that a man may lift them from the ground. They are of two sorts, the pyed and the black; but the latter are the best. They are never housed, and when they have no grass, live upon sea-weeds, which can only be had at the tide of ebb; yet live to thirty years of age, and are all the while of service.

They have fowl of many sorts, particularly geese and ducks of several kinds; but though Shetland abounds with heath, yet heath-cocks and other fowl that frequent heaths will not live there. There are sometimes such numerous flights of sea-fowl, that they darken the air. The several species of them build and hatch apart. These commonly arrive in February, and after they have hatched their young, and find they can fly, go away together to some unknown place.

The chief island, called Shetland, and also the Mainland, is above sixty miles in length, and twenty where broadest; but is much indented by bays. It is for the most part full of bogs and mountains, except on the shores, and is therefore fitter for pasture than corn, with which the inhabitants are chiefly supplied from the Orkneys; but they have barley and oats of their own.

The

The principal town is Lerwick, on the east side of the island, which is encreased by the fishing-trade to about three hundred families.

On the west side is a small town called Scalloway, the inhabitants amounting to only about a hundred: yet this is the only place for administering justice, and had antiently a castle, which is fallen to decay. This little town has likewise the only presbytery in all the Shetland isles.

Brassa, to the east of the Main-land, and opposite to Lerwick, is five miles long, two broad, and has some arable land, and two churches. It is famous for the herring-fishery in its sound. The Hamburgers and people of Bremen come hither about the middle of May, set up shops and exchange linen, muslin, bread, &c. for fish, mutton, fowls, stockings, &c. The natives are at this time considerable gainers by letting out their houses and ground to the seamen for shops.

The Skerries are two dangerous little islands, on which ships are often cast away; they lie about seventeen miles to the north-east of the Main-land.

Yell is sixteen miles in length, and the coast is indented in such a manner, as to make it resemble a figure of eight; it also lies north-east from the Main-land, and has three churches, with several little chapels; but the country is so moorish, that the minister is obliged to go near eight miles to church wading almost up to the knees in mire.

SECT. XXXIII.

A Description of the most remarkable of the Western Islands not included in the Shires of Scotland; with a particular Description of St. Kilda.

THE Western islands were by the ancients called *Æbudæ* and *Hebrides*, and have been computed at three hundred in number. No country abounds more with the necessaries of life, they having flesh and fish in prodigious plenty. Their cattle of all sorts, as cows, sheep, hogs, and goats, are exceeding numerous and prolific, small indeed, as are their horses, but of a delicious taste, as are their deer, which freely range on the mountains. The natives salt their beef in cow-hides, which they think contribute to preserve it, and give it a better taste than casks; they send a great deal of it to Glasgow, where it is barrelled up and exported to the West Indies.

Here are large eagles and hawks, which are very destructive to the lambs and fawns; but no place in Europe can compare with them for tame and wild-fowl, as pheasants, moor-fowl, swans, tarmagans, plovers, pigeons, with many sorts extremely beautiful and rare, or utterly unknown elsewhere; among the latter is a fowl called *colk*, somewhat less than a goose, that has beautiful feathers, or rather down, of various colours; it has a tuft on its head, and its tail is longer than that of a house-cock. There is another named *gawlin*, which is somewhat less than a duck, and is said to sing always before good weather; and some of the Highland pipers have formed an agreeable tune of its notes. Another, called a *rain-goose*, is said always to make a doleful noise before rain. Another extraordinary bird is called the *bishop of Carara*; it is as large as a goose, and has a white spot on its breast; it is party-coloured, and its fat is used by the natives against the sciatica. Another bird is called *sereachanaitin*, which shrieks most hideously: it is as big as a large mull, but longer in the body, of a blueish colour, and its bill of a carnation: it is observed to be extremely fond of its mate, for when either the cock or hen is killed, the other makes a lamentable noise about the place for eight or ten days after. A bird called *faskidor*, about the size of a sea-mew, flies very swift after other birds, forcing them to drop their food, which it catches before it falls to the ground.

These birds are very common in most of the Western islands, particularly in those we are going to describe.

The principal of those properly called the Western

Islands, are a range of narrow islands, extending from north to south, namely, Lewis and Harris, already described, as making a part of Ross-shire, and Vift, which is divided into North and South; and behind them, farther to the west, the isle of St. Kilda, which, though smaller than the other, merits a more particular description.

Vift, which lies to the south of Harris, is a long slip indented with several bays. North Vift is nine miles in length from north to south; it is in part mountainous and heathy, yet serves for pasturage; but the west side being plain and arable, is exceeding fruitful in barley, oats, and rye, and feeds abundance of cows and sheep. This, with the island of Benbecula and South Vift, are by some geographers esteemed one island, because at low water there is an easy passage from one to the other, either upon dry sands or by wading; and together they are about thirty-three miles in length, and contain such a multitude of fresh-water lakes, bays, and islands, that it is said to be impossible to number them, and most of the lakes abound with fowl and fish. North Vift has an excellent harbour on the south-east side in a bay called *Lochmaddy*, famous for a great fishery of cod and ling, and where such quantities have been taken, that four hundred vessels have been loaded with them in one season.

North Vift is separated from a little island named Benbecula on the south by several rocks, and a channel about three miles broad. This small island is only three miles long, and the same broad; but has a harbour for small vessels, and several fresh-water lakes, well stocked with fish and fowl; but in its neighbourhood are several dangerous islands.

South Vift is separated from Benbecula by a channel, which, though two miles broad, is at ebb not above knee-deep. It is twenty-one miles in length, and three or four miles in breadth: the east side is mountainous; but the west, being level, bears good crops of barley, oats and rye, and abounds with cattle. The natives live to a very great age, and speak the Erse tongue in perfection.

We now come to St. Kilda, a little island that may be ranked among the greatest curiosities of the British empire; and therefore, notwithstanding its small extent, deserves particular notice, on account of the genius of its inhabitants, their manners and customs, and the constitution of their little commonwealth.

All the territories belonging to the inhabitants of St. Kilda are no more than three small islands, and five naked rocks. The principal island, together with the rest, is situated in about fifty-eight degrees thirty minutes north latitude, eighteen leagues to the west of North Vift, just described. The length of the whole island is not much more than nine miles, and its breadth does not much exceed six. It is encompassed by an inaccessible barrier of rocks, two places excepted, one to the north-west, and the other to the north-east. The latter has a large bay, formed by two promontories, the first running out to the north-east side of the island, and the other to the south end.

The hand of Nature has divided this island into four distinct parts by five mountains, which to the sea-side are faced with frightful precipices; particularly that which rises gradually from the head of the bay, and may not improperly be called the British Teneriff. Its top in a clear day commands a prospect of land and sea above a hundred and forty miles in length. On the north side it hangs over the deep in a most frightful manner; where a view of it from the sea fills a man with astonishment, and a look over it from above strikes him with horror; yet a St. Kildian will stand or sit on the very brink of this stupendous precipice with the most careless indifference; though its perpendicular height is no less than eighteen hundred yards.

The ground of St. Kilda, like the greatest part of that of the Highlands, is much better calculated for pasture than tillage, and all the arable land scarcely exceeds eighty acres; but a great deal more might be added, was industry and a desire of improvement sufficiently encouraged: but all the lands already cultivated lie very com-

partly together within the precincts of the village in which the whole community dwells. In the lower grounds are many excellent plots of grass, which is in some places intermixed with a beautiful variety of the richest plants, on which the cattle feed luxuriously during the summer season; and here yield more than ordinary quantities of milk. All the arable land is divided into many unequal plots, and each of these is inclosed by the stones picked out of the land; these boundaries are esteemed sacred, and have been kept up for many ages; whence it would be impossible for a St. Kildian, however cunning or avaricious, to encroach on his neighbour's farm. Every inch of ground within these inclosures, is cultivated; which they thus perform; after turning up the ground with a spade they rake or harrow it very carefully, picking out every stone, every noxious root or weed that falls in their way, and pound to dust every clod with a mallet. They then sow their little fields, strew them over with a manure of turf and peat ashes, and having harrowed them over again, leave them, to speak in their own stile, in the hands of Providence, with a firm persuasion that their honest industry will be amply rewarded.

Tho' this island is situated so far north, the harvest is commonly over before the beginning of September, and should it fall out otherwise, the whole crop would be almost destroyed by the equinoctial storms, which, with the excessive quantity of rain that falls generally throughout seven or eight months in the year, are the most disadvantageous circumstances of their situation.

Thus they raise their oats, and their barley, which is larger than in any other of the Western islands: but they have not one tree in all the island. Their horses and cows, though very small, are also somewhat larger than in the adjacent islands.

The St. Kildians owe a great part of their felicity to their sheep and wild fowl. They have considerable flocks of sheep; which are all of the smallest kind, and their wool is short and coarse. Every one of them has two horns, and many of them four.

The wild fowl appear here in innumerable flocks, and according to the Rev. Mr. Macaulay, from whose history we have extracted this account, it is literally true, without any exaggeration, that in summer time several of the rocks are totally covered with solan geese and other fowls, and appear at a distance like so many mountains covered with snow. The nests of the solan geese are so close, that when one walks between them, the hatching fowls on either side can always take hold of one's cloaths, and they will often sit still till they are attacked, rather than expose their eggs to the danger of being destroyed by sea gulls; at the same time an equal number fly about and furnish food for their mates that are employed in hatching. The solan geese repair hither in the month of March, and continue till after the beginning of November. Before the middle of that month, they and all the other sea fowl that are so fond of this coast, retire much about the same time, into some other favourite regions; so that not a single fowl is to be seen from the beginning of winter to the middle of February.

Another sea-fowl highly esteemed in this island, is the tutmer, which the inhabitants say, furnishes oil for the lamp, down for the bed, the most salubrious food, and the most efficacious ointment for healing wounds. It is of the size of an ordinary barn-door fowl, but its legs and wings are much longer. The back, wings, and tail, are of a light grey; round the breast and neck of a lighter colour: his head is round, his neck short and thick; his bill is made for strength, bending inwards, pointed like that of an eagle, and in length about an inch and a half. He is a most ravenous fowl, and feeds only on sorrel and the fat of fish. Pieces of whale and seal blubber are often found in his nest. The young tutmer is no sooner attacked in his nest, than he endeavours to disconcert the fowler by spouting a quantity of oil out of his wide nostrils directly into his face and eyes: which frequently gives him an opportunity of making his escape. But those who are versed in this diversion take all possible precautions to surprize him; for thinking his oil incomparably precious, they exert all their skill and dexterity to save it. Every

tutmer yields near a pint of this liquid substance, which drops out of the nostrils of the fowl while warm, and a considerable quantity of it is annually preserved. Of the fowls themselves every family has a great number salted in casks for winter provisions.

The third species are the lavie, which being the earliest visitants in February, no sooner appear, than the most considerable persons in this state assemble together to congratulate each other, on seeing these harbingers of plenty and happiness; and to divide the people into parties made up of their ablest fowlers. The lavie in size resembles a duck, though rather longer. He is black above, but the whole breast and belly white, with a circle of the same colour round the neck; the bill is black and sharp at the point, and the egg beautifully variegated with black, white and red, blue, green and yellow; but scarce any two are alike. This fowl builds no nest, and like several other species of water fowl, lays but one egg, which she fixes in so nice a manner, that if once touched, one will find it impossible to fix it in the same place again; and if the fowls are surprized so as to start away in a hurry, they tumble down into the sea in thick showers.

These are caught by letting down a man with ropes into the well-known shelves of the rocks, each having a broad piece of linen, or any thing remarkably white fixed on his breast. This is done in the night, when the bird mistaking an object so conspicuous for a part of the rock, endeavours to cling to it, and is immediately caught and dispatched. Thus employed the fowler continues till the dawn, when making the wonted signal by pulling the rope, his companions pull up, by another rope, the prey he has taken, which sometimes consists of four hundred lavies, and then pull up the fowler, whom they care for his courage and dexterity.

They have also a great number of puffins; and too frequently a large sea-gull which is detested by every St. Kildian, it destroying every egg that falls in its way, very often the young fowl, and sometimes the weakest of the old. It is hardly possible to express the hatred with which those otherwise good-natured people endeavour to exterminate these gulls; if one happens to mention them, it puts their whole blood into a ferment. To eat any of its eggs, though amongst the largest and best the island affords, would be most a flagitious action; they therefore extract the meat out of the shell, and leaving it empty in the nest, the gull sits upon it till she pines away.

Among the land birds are very large ravens, a few eagles, with herons, curlews, plovers, pigeons, starlings, larks, wrens, and sparrows.

Every one of the natives of St Kilda who is possessed of a bit of land there, has a proportionable share of the rocks in which the fowls hatch. The divisions are made with singular exactness, and the smallest encroachment on a St. Kildian's property in these rocks, is by an ancient custom severely punished.

The whole body of this little people live together like the inhabitants of a town or city, their houses being built in regular rows forming a street: these habitations are built with stone without either lime or mortar, from eight to nine feet high. All their dwellings are divided into two apartments by partition walls. In the division next the door, which is much the largest, they have their cattle stalled during the winter season; the other serves for kitchen and bed-chamber. There are also a prodigious number of little cells dispersed over the island; these consist intirely of stones, and in them they secure their eggs and wild fowl.

The men are stout and hardy, short, thick and clumsy; but are remarkably strong, will carry heavy burthens, and tug at the oar for many hours, with an almost undiminished vigour: but the women are mostly handsome: their complexions are fresh and lively, and their features fine and regular.

The cloathing of the people is quite coarse, and made for warmth. All the colours known among them, till of late, were black, white, grey, and brown, the natural colours of their sheep; and yellow was their only artificial one. All the linen manufactured among them

is a mere trifle, and extremely coarse: one holiday shirt will satisfy the ambition of the greatest beau among them; and what they wear next their skin, on ordinary occasions, is made of wool. The weavers are but indifferent workmen. Every man is the taylor and shoe-maker of his own family: all the leather in the island, and those nearest to it, is tanned with the tormentil root, and done to great perfection.

The St. Kildians speak a corrupt dialect of the Galic, with a little mixture of the Norwegian: their manner of pronouncing is very singular, for every man, woman, and child, has an unconquerable lisping.

These people are extremely fond of music, whether vocal or instrumental; to a bad violin indifferently played they will dance with rapture, and even the old women will bear a part in these assemblies. They delight much in singing, and their voices are abundantly tuneful. The women, while cutting down the barley in the field, or grinding their corn with their hand-mills in the house, are almost constantly employed that way; and the men, if pulling at the oar, exert all their skill in animating each other by singing some spirited songs adapted to the business in hand; and indeed some bright sparks of fire, and some noble flights of fancy, may be discovered in their otherwise homely compositions. The subjects handled by the bards of St. Kilda, in their odes, are the beauty and accomplishments of their favourites among the fair sex, the heroic actions of their friends, their dexterity in climbing rocks, their superior skill in fishing, their extraordinary vigour, skill, and constancy while at the oar; besides the common topics of personal advantages, and intellectual merit.

They all in general possess the virtue of hospitality in an eminent degree, and behave with the utmost generosity, humanity, and respect, to the strangers who come among them.

They marry early, and their gallantries are generally innocent: impurities fashionable elsewhere, if committed here, are never unattended with infamy; and, as Tacitus observes of the ancient Germans, "No one makes a jest of vice; to debauch, or be debauched, is not called the way of the world." Here wives with great portions never rule their husbands: here a cruel step-mother never persecutes her guiltless step-son for the sake of pelf: here the nuptial tie is always held sacred. An honest desire of preventing or removing the inconveniences of a single life, or pure disinterested love, are the ruling passions in the advances they make to matrimony. If a young fellow be possessed of a spade, rake, creel, and fowling-rod, he marries without the least fear or solicitude, will maintain himself, his wife, and children, live contentedly on a small spot of ground, and pay his rents to the proprietor's steward with barley and feathers.

Drunkennes is not yet introduced here; but the St. Kildians have a most violent passion for tobacco. They buy an annual store of this favourite plant from the steward; which, in spite of their fondness for it, they must manage with the most exact œconomy, as it is impossible to procure a new supply, till the market of another year returns with him. For this universally bewitching article, and for some other goods indispensably necessary, particularly salt, iron, and timber, they barter away their cows, sheep, grain, and feathers. Their riches consist in these commodities; they have scarce any wants, and consequently scarce any desires of the pecuniary kind.

It appears that Christianity was very early introduced into this island. The largest church was dedicated to Christ, and called his temple. It was built of stone without any cement. It is twenty-four feet in length, and its breadth fourteen. This was in former times the principal place of worship in the island, and here they continue to bury their dead. At the distance of a mile from the village is a chapel, which has an altar within, and some monkish cells without. The people have for some time been Protestants of the church of Scotland, and a minister from thence is sent thither. They are devout; attend Divine worship regularly every Sunday; but, with all their virtues, make no scruple of lying, and using all the arts of cunning to deceive the steward, when he makes them his annual visit to receive a heavy tax they are obliged to pay him in proportion to the stock of various kinds they possess; and, among other things, every second he lamb, every seventh fleece, and every seventh she lamb.

The present proprietor is a gentleman named Norman Macleod, whose ancestors have possessed the island for at least two hundred years. He has given a lease of this island, and of every thing belonging to it, to a cadet of his own family, for the yearly rent of about eleven pounds sterling. This is the person called the steward, who before this, or his own rent can be made effectual, must be at the annual expence of fitting out a large Highland boat, to bring his grain, feathers, or any other perquisites that fall to his share, or any commodities he buys from the people, to Harris, where he generally resides.

To conclude the moral character of these people; being at a distance from the seats of justice, they are absolute strangers to the chicanery and delay of the law. And though they are ignorant, and so illiterate, that few of them can read, they firmly believe the existence and providence of a Supreme Being, the immortality of the human soul, the obligations of morality, righteousness, and temperance.

C H A P. XXXI.

Of I R E L A N D.

S E C T. I.

*Of IRELAND in general.**Its Situation, Extent, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and Lakes.*

THIS is a large, and in general a fertile island, seated to the south of the little isles just described; to the west of England and Scotland, from which it is divided by St. George's Channel and a strait about fifteen miles broad, which separates it from part of Scotland: it has the mouth of St. George's Channel on the south; and the great Atlantic ocean, which lies between it and the frozen region of Newfoundland and Labrador, or New Britain, in North America, on the west. It is seated between the fifth degree ten minutes and the tenth degree thirty-seven minutes west longitude from London, and between the fifty-first degree sixteen minutes and the fifty-fifth degree fifteen minutes north latitude. It is allowed to be above half as large as England, and is two hundred and eighty-five miles from Fairhead, the north point of Antrim, to Mizenhead, the south point of Cork, which is its greatest length; but it is much indented on the south-east by St. George's Channel; and on the west and north by the Atlantic ocean, which renders its length very unequal. The greatest breadth, which is from the east part of Down to the west part of Mayo, is a hundred and sixty miles: but in the middle, from Dublin on the east, to the west of Gallway, it is only a hundred and forty-six.

The air is much the same with those parts of England that lie under the same parallel; only in some parts it is more gross and unhealthy, especially to strangers, on account of its many lakes, bogs, and marshes; but in this particular also it agrees with England; where the marshes of Kent, Cambridgeshire, and Sussex, are at least equally unhealthful. It has been observed, that the air is warmer in winter and cooler in summer than in England, but the difference in this respect is not very great. The air is also allowed to be more moist than in England; but this is probably true only of Dublin, and the other places near the sea and the lakes, which occasion more frequent rains.

In general it is a level country, watered by many lakes and rivers, and the soil is in most places very good and fruitful; even those where the bogs have been drained are good meadow ground. Their pastures feed prodigious numbers of cattle; but in several parts they are not so large as in England, on which account a bounty has long been given for the importation of English bulls, and large stone-horses, which have mended the breed. Indeed the far greatest part of the land is used for grazing, whence they are enabled to supply the ships of all the European nations, particularly the English and Dutch, with beef and butter; but advantageous as this trade is, it is carried to an excess that is very prejudicial to Ireland, as it causes agriculture to be neglected, which would employ many more hands, and prevent their being frequently obliged to purchase great quantities of corn from England; from whence it is also not uncommon to purchase ship loads of potatoes, which in many places supply the want of bread. They also raise flax and hemp; and the gardens of Ireland produce all the fruits and vegetables fit for the kitchen, that are to be found in Great Britain, though fine fruit is dearer there than in England.

It ought not to be omitted, now we are treating of the soil, that there are some bogs in this country so deep, as entirely to swallow up a man and horse, who sink an unknown depth, though they are covered with turf which seems to promise solid ground; however, roads have

been made for horses and carriages over these dreadful bogs, by ranging rows of faggots fastened together, and covered with earth, which forms a kind of bridge that shakes under the feet of the passenger. There are other bogs that have too strong a crust of turf to be easily broken, and are constantly passed in safety, though they shake and quiver at every step of the foot.

The turf which grows upon many of the bogs is taken off, dried, and sold for fuel; and is of great use where coals are scarce. There are, however, several pits of excellent coal, and navigable canals are forming in order to convey it by sea to Dublin, and all the other towns on the coast. This country has likewise quarries of several kinds of beautiful marble, also free-stone, a beautiful kind of hard white stone fit for building, full of shining particles which glitter in the sun, and slate; with mines of copper and iron.

The principal rivers of Ireland are the following:

The Shannon, which rises in Loch-Allen, in the province of Connaught, which it divides from Leinster and Munster, and running from north to south, after forming several lakes, turns to the west and falls into the Atlantic ocean, after a course of one hundred and forty-five miles. This river is in most parts wide and deep, and has within it several fine and fruitful islands, with a fertile soil on both its banks: but it is not navigable above fifty miles for ships, on account of a cataract.

The Suir, the Neor, and the Barrow, rise from branches of a mountain named Slieu-Bloom. The Suir has its source in the branch called Bein-Duffe, in the county of Tipperary, and making first a south-east, and then a southerly course for upwards of forty miles, it turns to the north and afterwards to the east, and at length unites its streams with the Neor and the Barrow.

The Neor rises out of the same branch, and taking a south-east course, unites its stream with the Barrow.

The Barrow rises out of the same mountain in Queen's county, and after taking a northerly course, turns to the south, and before it arrives at Ross is joined by the Neor, from whence it continues a southerly course under the name of the river of Ross, and being joined by the Suir, they all lose themselves in the sea at the mouth of the harbour of Waterford.

The Black-water, sometimes called the Broad water, rises out of a mountain in the county of Kerry, from whence being swelled with many streams, it takes first a southerly, and then an easterly course, till at length turning suddenly to the south, it pursues that course till it falls into the bay of Youghall. There are several other rivers in Ireland called the Black-water, one of which falls into the Boyne, another into the Shannon, and another in the county of Wexford, falls into the sea.

The river Bann, famous for its pearl fishery, but more so for its salmon, arises from the mountains in the county of Down, from whence it flows northward, and after a course of about thirty miles, falls into the lake called Lough-neagh, and passing through it, continues its course to the north, dividing the counties of Antrim and Londonderry, and falls into the sea a little to the north-west of Colerain.

The Lee rises out of a lake in the county of Cork, and taking an easterly course of about twenty-six miles, is enlarged by its receiving several rivers and rivulets, till at length passing by Cork, it discharges itself into the sea.

The Liffey is only remarkable for having the metropolis of the kingdom seated on its banks. It rises in the county of Wicklow, and making a circling course through that county and the counties of Kildare and Dublin, discharges itself into Dublin bay, a little below that city;



A New MAP
of
IRELAND.
from the best
Observations.



Princed sculp.

city; being navigable for barges no higher than the tide reaches.

The Boyne is a much more considerable river than the Liffy: it rises in the King's county, is famous for its excellent salmon, and falls into the sea at Drogheda.

In Ireland are more lakes than perhaps in any other country of the same extent; and these abound more in the provinces of Ulster and Connaught, than in any other parts of the kingdom. They are properly ranked under two denominations, fresh-water lakes, which have no access of the tide or mixture of the sea, and salt lakes, into which the tide flows twice a day, and may more properly be called inlets of the sea.

Of the fresh water lakes, one of the most extraordinary is Lough-lene, in the county of Kerry, which is remarkable for its singular beauties. It is about six miles in length, and, at a medium, near half as much in breadth; and is interspersed with a variety of beautiful islands, many of them rich in herbage, and well inhabited. Eagles and osprays are here in great numbers, and the islands and rocks around the lake are adorned with groves of the arbutus, which for the greatest part of the year bears a scarlet fruit, like the strawberry, with blossoms, leaves, and berries, green or yellow, according to the different stages of their approach to ripeness. The trunks of these trees are frequently four feet and a half in circumference, and nine or ten yards high. In short, the beauties of this lake are not to be described or seen without rapture.

Lough-erne and Lough-neagh are by much the largest in Ireland. The former is divided into two branches, the upper and lower, which are separated by the water being contracted into the compass of a considerable river for some miles, after which enlarging itself, it forms the lower lake. This lough, in both its branches, takes its course through the whole length of the county of Fermanagh, from the south-east point to the north-west, dividing it almost into two equal parts, extending about thirty miles in length, but of an unequal breadth. It is diversified with so many little pleasant fertile islands, that they are said to amount to about four hundred, most of them well wooded; several of them inhabited by husbandmen, and others covered with cattle. It likewise abounds with a great variety of fish, as pike of a prodigious size, large bream, roach, eels, and trout; but it is chiefly valued for its salmon, which are caught in great draughts by nets, in the river which flows out of the lake, the fishing of which is valued at five hundred pounds a year.

Lough-neagh is somewhat of an oval form, but indented on every side. It is esteemed the largest lake in Ireland, and is exceeded by few in Europe; it being twenty miles long from the north-west point to the south-east, near fifteen miles from the north-east to the south-west, and ten or twelve broad at a medium. Within these dimensions is not included a small lake called Lough-beg, or the Little-lake, which is joined to the north-west end by a narrow channel, and is four miles long and as many broad. Lough-neagh communicates its benefits to five several counties, Armagh, Tyrone, Londonderry, Antrim, and Down; the latter of which it only touches by a small point on the south-east side. It receives six considerable rivers, four of lesser note, and several brooks; yet has but one narrow out-let to discharge this great flux of water. This lake is remarkable for its salutary effects in curing ulcers and running sores on those who bathe in it; and for incrusting the wood which lies in it with stone. On the shores of this lake have been found a variety of beautiful pebbles, crystals, cornelians, and agates. It also abounds with fish of various kinds, in innumerable quantities, and of a large size. It is particularly remarkable for two sorts of trouts, one called the dologhan, which is said to be from fourteen to eighteen inches in length, which it never exceeds, and always spawns in the rivers that supply the lake: the other is called the bodach, or churl, some of which have been taken that weigh thirty pounds weight.

There are a considerable number of such lakes as may more properly be called inlets of the sea; among these are,

Loch-foyle, a large oval lake, about fourteen miles long, and from six to eight miles broad, into which

the sea flows by a channel not much more than a mile over.

The lake of Strangford, in the county of Down, which extends from Newtown in the north to Strangford in the south, about thirteen Irish miles; and in some places it is three, in others four, and in others five miles broad. There are dispersed in it fifty-four islands, small and great, known by particular names, and others nameless. On the side of it, near the coast of the barony of Dufferin, is a group of small islands called the Scatterick islands, some of which are noted for restoring and fattening distempered horses; others are stocked with rabbits, and to others resort a multitude of swans, wild-geese, widgeon, teal, and four or five sorts of divers.

There is perhaps no country in the world that abounds more with spacious and commodious harbours than Ireland; yet there are few countries to which less benefits arise from trade: but these harbours will be mentioned in treating of the several provinces and counties of this kingdom.

S E C T. II.

The Persons, Character, Habits, Genius, Temper, Dress, Religion, Government, and Trade of the Irish.

THE Irish are in general a strong-bodied, nimble, active people; many of both sexes are tall, handsome, and genteel; but this is far from being a characteristic of that nation, since a still greater number are deficient in these natural endowments, and are as clumsy, as ill-shaped, and have as disagreeable features as the majority of other nations. The men are bold, hardy, and far from being deficient in true bravery and manly courage: but those who are well-bred have an assured address, a fluency of speech, and a flow of compliments, especially when in the company of the ladies, that is not easily acquired by the more bashful English; who are too apt to want that graceful assurance which is necessary to set their own merit in a proper light. It will not be doing injustice to the character of the Irish to say, that they are haughty, vain glorious, quick in resenting a supposed affront, and violent in all their affections. On the other hand, they have generally a fund of good-nature, and all ranks are particularly remarkable for their hospitality. However, the morals of children are less attended to in their education, than they generally are in those of people of the middle rank in England; and hence a disregard for truth, and many other faults, are too often suffered to take root in their ductile minds; those at least of the lower class have been frequently charged with having little or no regard to the sacredness of an oath. Indeed evil dispositions often arise from trivial causes; it is customary in the meaner trades, if any thing be missing, for the master to make each of his journeymen swear that he has not taken it, by handing the Bible or the mass-book to each, and for a drunken fellow, when severely lectured by his wife, to take up his mass-book and kissing it, swear never to enter a public-house for a stated time; these resolutions are seldom kept; and thus perjury, being rendered familiar, all idea of the awful solemnity of an oath is entirely lost, and the unhappy wretch is prepared, for the sake of the smallest profit, to practise in a court of judicature what he has too often performed at home. But, notwithstanding this, there are in Ireland many persons of the strictest integrity, humanity, virtue, and honour.

The Irish have been reproached for want of genius, and by the ignorant have been frequently termed a nation of blunderers; but these aspersions are very unjust, since Ireland has produced many persons whose genius and learning would have done honour to any nation: among which are the learned Dr. James Usher, that great philosopher, the honourable Mr. Robert Boyle, several of the earls of Orrery, Mr. Molineaux, the friend of the great Mr. Locke, Sir Richard Steel, dean Swift, &c.

The ancient habit of the Irish was a doublet and close breeches, over which they wore a frize cloak, with a fringed or shaggy border. The women wore a kind of mantle, or a blanket called a caddah over, their head and shoulders

shoulders, and underneath a long gown; and both men and women had a kind of shoe without a heel made of half tanned leather, called a brogue: but at present all sorts of persons conform to the English dress, except in the brogue, which is worn by the poor in the country, and sometimes the caddah. But it is very common for the lowest of the people to wear neither any sort of shoes, nor stockings, except when they are dressed: particularly when they travel on foot, they usually walk without their shoes and stockings, which they put on before they enter any town, and pulling them off, when they have left it, put them in their pocket. This they alledge keeps their feet cool, and prevents their losing their time by picking their way through the dirt, or going round to escape crossing a rivulet.

The Irish tongue bears some affinity to the Welch and Erse; and all three are supposed by some to be only different dialects of the same language, more particularly the first and the last. Some of the Irish characters are very different from ours; however, very few of those who speak the language very fluently, are able either to write, or even to read it. Business is principally transacted in English, and in the great towns the chief traders are descended from the English and Scots, and are intirely ignorant of the Irish tongue.

The established religion in Ireland is the same as in England. The church is under the government of four archbishops, namely, the archbishop of Armagh, who has the title of primate of all Ireland; the archbishop of Dublin, who is stiled primate of Ireland; and those of Cashel and Tuam. Under these four archbishops are nineteen bishops; namely, under Armagh are the bishops of Meath, Clogher, Down, Kilmore, Dromore, Raphoe and Derry. Under the archbishop of Dublin, the bishops of Kildare, Ossory and Ferns. Under the archbishop of Cashel, the bishops of Limerick, Waterford, Cork, Cloyne, and Killaloe. Under the archbishop of Tuam, Elphin, Clonfert, and Killala. These several prelates have their deans, and other dignitaries, except Meath, which has neither dean, chapter, nor cathedral; but the archdeacon is the head officer of the diocese, the affairs of which are transacted by a synod in the nature of a chapter, who have a common seal, which, by a vote of the majority, is annually lodged in the hands of one of the body.

Dissenters of all denominations are tolerated in Ireland, particularly Presbyterians, Baptists, and Quakers. But the far most numerous body are the Papists, who have their bishops and other dignitaries like the established church; but neither they, nor the inferior clergy of that communion, have any other revenues than the voluntary contributions of the laity. It is supposed that throughout Ireland there are about eight Papists to one Protestant; but in the capital the disproportion is only as four to one.

For the promotion of learning in Ireland, there is one university, and several free-schools erected for the education of youth; and for promoting the principles of real Christianity among the poor Popish natives of Ireland, and enuring them from infancy to industry, and obedience to their sovereign, is instituted the incorporated society for promoting English Protestant working schools.

With respect to the constitution of the Irish government, it is nearly the same with that of England. The power of the lord lieutenant, who represents the king, is in some measure restrained, and in others enlarged, according to the king's pleasure, or the exigencies of the times. On his entering upon this honourable office, his letters patent are publicly read in the council chamber; and having taken the usual oath before the lord chancellor, the sword, which is to be carried before him, is delivered into his hands, and he is seated in the chair of state, attended by the lord chancellor, the members of the privy council, the peers and nobles, the king at arms, a serjeant at mace, and other officers of state, and he never appears publicly without being attended by a body of horse-guards. Hence with respect to his authority, his train and splendor, there is no viceroy in Christendom that comes nearer the grandeur and majesty of a king. He has a council composed of the great officers of the crown, namely the chancellor, treasurer, and such of the archbishops, earls, bishops,

barons, judges, and gentlemen, as his majesty is pleased to appoint.

The parliament here, as well as in England, is the supreme court, which is convened by the king's writ; but the representatives of the people enjoy their seat in the house during life, or till the death of the king. The laws are made in Ireland by the house of lords and commons, after which they are sent to England for the royal approbation; when, if approved by his majesty and council, they pass the great seal of England, and are returned. Thus the two houses of parliament make laws which bind the kingdom; raise taxes for the support of government, and for the maintenance of an army of twelve thousand men, who are placed in barracks in several parts of the kingdom. The house of lords consists of the four archbishops, thirty-five earls, forty-five viscounts, eighteen bishops, and thirty-five barons; and the house of commons of three hundred members.

For the regular distribution of justice there are also in Ireland, as well as in England, four terms held annually for the decision of causes; and four courts of justice, the chancery, king's-bench, common pleas, and exchequer. In the first the king's chancellor and keeper of the great seal alone presides; but in the courts of king's bench and common pleas, are three judges in each; and in the exchequer, a treasurer, chancellor, and three barons, and in all of them several subordinate officers. Here is likewise a court of Exchequer chamber for correcting errors in the other courts; in which the lord chancellor and lord treasurer preside, with other assistant judges. Here are also judges of assize and jail delivery; these are those of the supreme courts, who take their circuits twice a year, into the several counties, that of Dublin excepted, for the trial of prisoners, and suits of nisi prius between party and party; as also a court of admiralty, which has jurisdiction, in maritime affairs, and is administered by commission from the admiralty of England.

Besides these there are spiritual courts; as the courts of prerogative, where a commissary, judges of the estates of persons deceased, whether in estate or by will; and in every diocese is a consistory court, from whence appeals lie to the supreme court of prerogative, and from thence to a court of special delegates appointed by the king.

There are likewise governors of counties, and justices of the peace, appointed by the king's commissions, through the several counties, to preserve the peace in the place where they reside; and also high and petty constables, and other officers, instituted for the same purpose: but the chief officer of every county is the high sheriff, who was formerly chosen in the county court by the suffrages of the people, but is now nominated by the chief governor.

With respect to the trade of Ireland, the discouragement laid upon it by the act of navigation and other laws made in England, are so numerous, that it cannot be expected it should flourish to such a degree as its natural situation, extended coasts, commodious harbours, bays, and rivers seem to promise; a discouragement that will ever continue, till the English shall become sensible that it is for their interest to allow Ireland a free trade, which will probably be one time or other the case, as it will be for the advantage of both kingdoms; since this will enable Ireland to pay greater taxes, and the wealth of that country must in a great measure center in this. The chief exports of Ireland consist of linen cloth and yarn, lawns and cambricks, which are manufactured to great perfection, and exported to considerable advantage; the English laws giving great encouragements to this branch of trade, which, with a few exceptions, may be said to be the source of all the wealth in Ireland. To these may be added wool and woollen yarn exported to England only; beef, pork, green hides, some tanned leather, calf-skins dried, great quantities of butter, tallow, candles, ox and cow horns, ox hair, a small quantity of lead, copper ore, herrings, dried fish, rabbits-skins, and furr, otter-skins, goat-skins, salmon, and a few other particulars. Wool and yarn are allowed to be exported only to England, but from the thirst of gain, all hazards are run to send them by stealth to France, to the great detriment of the English woollen trade; and perhaps the best method of preventing it for the future, would

would be to restore the woollen manufacture to Ireland, at least in the coarse branches of it, and to make it the interest of the Irish to employ their wool at home.

The Irish, notwithstanding the discouragements laid on their woollen manufactories, import considerable quantities of broad-cloth, which they certainly might make at home; also all kinds of groceries, coals, brads, hardware, and a great number of other particulars; besides a considerable quantity of wine from France, Spain, and Portugal.

We shall conclude this section with observing, that Ireland is divided into four provinces, which, beginning at the south, are Munster, Leinster, Connaught, and Ulster; the first and last of which extend from one sea to the other.

S E C T. III.

Of the Province of Munster, containing the Counties of Cork, Waterford, Tipperary, Limerick, and Kerry; their Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THE province of Munster is bounded on the east and south-east by the province of Leinster and St. George's Channel, on the south and west by the Atlantic ocean, and on the north by the provinces of Connaught and Leinster. It extends a hundred and thirty miles in length from Waterford haven in St. George's Channel to the west point in Kerry, and a hundred and twenty in breadth from the north parts of Tipperary to Baltimore in Cork; but from Baltimore to the north parts of Kerry it is only sixty-eight miles. The circumference, including the great windings and turnings, is above six hundred miles.

It is divided into five counties, namely, Cork, Waterford, Limerick, Kerry, and Clare, which are subdivided into fifty-two baronies, containing one archbishoprick, and five bishopricks, seven market-towns, eighty parishes, and twenty-five boroughs.

It enjoys a mild temperate air, has many excellent bays, havens, and good towns. The soil is in some parts hilly and woody, mixed with wild solitary mountains; but the vallies are adorned with pleasant meadows and corn-fields. Its principal commodities are cattle, wood, wool, and fish, especially herrings and cod.

Cork was formerly a kingdom, and contained all the country between Lismore and Brandon-hills, in Kerry, where it faces Desmond to the west, and includes a part of it. It is bounded on the east by Waterford; on the west by Kerry, where it is also washed by the sea; on the north by Limerick; and on the south and south-east by the Atlantic ocean and St. George's Channel. The form is very irregular both in length and breadth.

It is divided into fifteen baronies, and is partly woody and mountainous, and partly fenny; yet it has many good towns, and abounds in fine rivers, and good harbours: the inhabitants are industrious, and the county is both rich and populous. A copper mine has been discovered near Cork. This county gives title of earl, as well as Burlington in England, to the noble family of Boyle, and sends twenty-six members to parliament, namely, two knights for the shire, and two burgesses for each of the following towns, the city of Cork, Youghal, Kinsale, Bandon-bridge, Moyallow, Baltimore, Cloug-wikelty, Shareville, Castlemartyr, Middletown, Rathcormach, and Doneraile.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Youghal, a considerable sea-port, seated at the mouth of the Broadwater, is not very large, but is walled round, and divided into two parts. The upper part, which extends to the north, and is the largest, has a church within the town, and a little abbey without the walls. The lower part towards the south has another abbey. The convenience of the harbour, its good quay, and the fertility of the adjacent country, draw so many merchants to it, that the town is pretty populous and rich. It has in particular a good fishery; but before the harbour is a bar, which can only be passed at high-water.

Cork, a large, populous, and wealthy city, is seated on the river Lee, in the fifty-first degree forty-five minutes north latitude, and in the seventh degree thirty minutes west longitude, a hundred and twenty-nine miles north-west of Dublin, and is of an oval form, inclosed with walls and the channel of the river, which also crosses it. It is said to contain above eight thousand one hundred houses, chiefly inhabited by English Protestants, who, by their industry, have so far improved their estates, and their trade, that it is esteemed the richest city in Ireland, next to Dublin. It stands about seven miles up the river from the sea, where the mouth of the harbour is two miles broad. Large ships generally ride at a place called Passage, but smaller vessels come quite up to the quay. This is the chief port for merchants in the kingdom; and there is, perhaps, more beef, butter, and tallow, shipped off here, than in all the other ports of Ireland put together. Hence there is a great resort of ships to this port, particularly of those bound from England to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and all the Caribbee Islands, which put in here to victual and compleat their lading. This city, with its liberties, is about three miles round, and forms a county of itself. It has two gates, one to the north, and the other to the south. The cathedral and the red abbey are on the south side of the town; St. Francis's abbey and Shandon church on the north side. Here is also a steeple, supposed to have been built by the Danes, and to have been at first used by them as a watch-tower; and near the river is a custom-house and store-house.

Five miles below Cork, the channel of the river dividing, forms a large and pleasant island, on which are several villages.

Kinsale is a neat, handsome, populous, and rich town, seated in a fruitful soil, near the mouth of the river Bann, a hundred and eighteen miles from Dublin. It has an admirable harbour, and a good bay, with a light-house upon a peninsula called the Old Head of Kinsale, which forms the bay, and guides the ships in the night to the mouth of the river. There is a bar before the port, but the pilots find from three and a half to four fathoms water in the shoalest place upon the bar at low-water, so that ships of any burthen may go over it when the tide is up; and even at the quay, where is the custom-house, is twenty feet water. This is reckoned the second town in the county, many ships belonging to it; and great quantities of provisions are exported from hence to Flanders, Holland, France, and the English islands in the West Indies. Within two miles from the quay, below the town, are two very strong forts, one on each side of the river, almost opposite, which effectually secure the harbour from all attacks by sea: the town is also so fortified with good lines and out-works, as to be safe from any sudden alarm by land. It gives title of baron to the ancient family of Courcy.

Cape Clear is an island so called from its Cape, where is a castle for the security of ships, which take shelter under its cannon; for it is far advanced into the sea, and is of great advantage from its being an opening to the south coast, whence, in war-time, there are generally some men of war stationed to cruize and keep the coast free from privateers; this being the southernmost island, as Mizen-head to the west is the southernmost land of Ireland. Between this and the mouth of the Shannon are innumerable bays and creeks, harbours and roads for shipping.

The county of Waterford is so surrounded by the Blackwater, the Suir, and the sea, that it forms a peninsula.

It is divided on the east by its haven from the county of Wexford, in the province of Leinster; on the south it is bounded by the ocean; on the west by the county of Cork; and on the north by the river Suir, which separates it from Tipperary and Kilkenny. It extends forty-six miles in length, and twenty-four in breadth; though in some places it is pleasant and fertile, yet for the most part it is mountainous, and has a very indifferent soil. It is subdivided into six or seven baronies, and, as well as Wexford and Shrewsbury, gives title of earl to the ancient and noble family of Talbot. It sends ten members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and

and two for each of the following towns, the city of Waterford, Lismore, Dungarvan, and Tallow.

The principal places in this county are the following :

Waterford, the only city in the county, is conveniently seated for trade, seventy-five miles from Dublin ; but has a thick air, and barren soil. It lies four miles and a half from the mouth of the river Suir, where it joins with the Nure and the Barrow ; these together form the haven, which runs about nine miles up the country, and is all the way deep and clear. It is commanded by Duncannon fort, and on the west side of the town is a citadel. There are likewise a block-house and store-house on the south side of the quay. The city and its liberties, which take up a great extent, form a county of themselves. The town is close built, and has a handsome cathedral. It also encreases in fine buildings ; and as ships of burthen come up close to its fine quay, which is a very noble work, it has a very great foreign trade.

Dungarvan is seated upon a bay of its own name, twenty-one miles from Waterford, and ninety-two from Dublin. It is a walled town, defended by a castle ; but though it has a commodious road for ships, it has now but little trade, and is a place of no great consequence. It gives title of viscount to the earl of Cork.

Lismore is seated on the river Broadwater, thirteen miles from Dungarvan, and is adorned with the chief seat of the earl of Cork and Burlington, which has a noble park. It was formerly the see of a bishop, and has a handsome cathedral ; but most of its possessions being alienated, it was long ago annexed to the see of Waterford. It has also a free-school, and an alms-house.

Tallow is seated near the borders of Cork, in a fine fruitful vale, five miles from Lismore, and is a handsome, flourishing town. It stands near the river Bride, which being navigable from hence to Youghal, renders it a place of good trade.

The county of Tipperary is bounded on the east by Queen's-county and the county of Kilkenny, on the south by those of Cork and Waterford, on the west by the county of Limerick and the river Shannon, and on the north and north-east by King's-county and the territory of the O'Carrolls. It is of a very irregular form, but is computed to be sixty miles in length, and thirty-six in breadth.

This county is subdivided into fourteen baronies, and has four boroughs, with several other market-towns. It sends eight members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two each for the city of Cashel, and the boroughs of Clonmel and Fethard.

The south part of this county being fruitful, produces much corn, and is well inhabited ; both that and the west point abound in good pastures, and fine sheep-walks, which furnish the greatest and best flocks of sheep in Ireland ; but the north part is barren, and very mountainous.

Cashel, the only city of this county, and the see of an archbishop, stands eighty miles south-west of Dublin. The cathedral is seated without the city, on a steep rocky hill ; but the height of its situation exposes it too much to the wind. In the ascent to it is a great stone, at which, it is said, every new king of Munster used to be publicly proclaimed. The city gives title of viscount to the family of Moore, but is ill inhabited, and is a place of no consequence.

Clonmel is a rich, populous, neat, and pretty strong town, seated on the Suir, on the borders of Waterford, twelve miles from Cashel, and eighty-two from Dublin. It is walled round, and has barracks for two troops of horse. It is the county town, and has a fine court-house and jail.

Carrick is also a fine town on the same river, and has barracks for horse. It stands ten miles from Clonmel, and had one of the seats of the late duke of Ormond, with one of the finest parks in the world.

The county of Kerry is bounded on the south and east by the county of Cork, and on the west by the Atlantic ocean, extending sixty miles in length, and forty-seven in breadth. It is subdivided into eight baronies, and sends eight members to parliament, namely, two for the

county, and two for each of the boroughs of Dingle, Trailey, and Ardfert.

It is in general a woody mountainous country, but has in many places good corn and grafs.

The principal places it contains are Trailey and Dingle.

Trailey, or Trally, the county town, where the assizes are kept, stands near a large bay of the same name, four miles from the sea, and a hundred and thirty from Dublin, and is a thriving place.

Dingle stands almost at the end of a peninsula, near a bay of its own name, upwards of a hundred and sixty miles from Dublin. It has a good convenient harbour for trade, is walled round, and is the chief market-town of the county, as also the most westerly town of note in the kingdom. The bay, which is one of the largest of Ireland, runs twenty-eight miles up the country, is fifteen miles broad, and has several harbours.

S E C T. IV.

Of the Province of Leinster; containing the Counties of Lowth, East-Meath, West-Meath, Longford, Dublin, Kildare, King's-County, Queen's-County, Wicklow, Catherlogh, Kilkenny, and Wexford ; their Situation, Extent, Divisions, and Produce ; with an Account of their principal Towns, and a particular Description of Dublin.

THIS province is washed on the south and east by the sea, and is much indented by the provinces of Munster, Connaught, and Ulster ; the two former of which bound it on the west and south-west, and the latter on the north. It is separated from Connaught by the Shannon, and from a part of Munster by the Suir ; extending in length about a hundred and twelve miles from the most northern parts of East Meath to the southern point of Wexford, about seventy in breadth from Wicklow to the most western part of the King's-county ; and the circuit, including the turnings and windings, is computed at about three hundred and sixty miles.

This province is divided into the counties of Lowth, East-Meath, West Meath, Longford, Dublin, Kildare, the King's county, the Queen's county, Wicklow, Catherlogh, Kilkenny, and Wexford ; containing ninety baronies, and nine hundred and twenty-six parishes, under one archbishop and three bishops, with forty-seven parliamentary boroughs. The market towns, and other places of trade, amount to sixty three.

The principal rivers of this province are the Barrow, the Boyne, the Nure, the Liffey, the Slaine, and the May in Queen's-county, which falls into the Shannon.

This province has a temperate, clear air, with a soil fruitful in corn and pasture, and tho' some parts of it are woody, it in general abounds with cattle, fowl, milk, butter, cheese, fish, and those little ambling horses called hobbies.

The county of Lowth, which was formerly reckoned a part of Ulster, is washed on the east by St. George's channel ; and on the south-east by Meath, from which it is parted by the Boyne ; on the west, it has Monaghan and East Meath ; and on the north Armagh and Carlingford bay. This is the least county in the kingdom, it being only twenty-five miles from north to south, and thirteen, where broadest, from east to west ; but in many places is much shorter and narrower. It is divided into four baronies : besides the town and liberties of Drogheda, which are a distinct county, it sends two members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for each of the following burghs, Atherdee, Carlingford, Dundalth, and Dunleer. It is fruitful in corn and pasture. The places of most note, as they lie from north to south, are those which follow.

Carlingford, one of the best harbours in Ireland, is seated on the south side of a large bay of its own name, where the road is exceeding good, quite to the sea, as is also the harbour, which has room for the whole royal navy of Great Britain, since it extends three leagues up the country, is two miles broad where narrowest, and has from ten to twenty fathoms water. There is a bar, indeed, across the mouth of the main port or bay, but it

is even there nine or ten feet deep at low water, and two fathom more at high tide. However, the town being a little out of the way of business, has not a trade equal to the extent of its harbour. It stands forty-nine miles from Dublin, has a well frequented market, and is far from being a despicable or poor place, there being some merchants here and trade with their own ships, built in the dock of this town, and use them in the coal trade to Whitehaven, as also in the fishery, which is the life of trade in all this side of Ireland. Carlingford has likewise a considerable trade in linen and linen yarn. The town is rather neat than fine, and rather large than populous; and though it is not a place of strength, is strong enough to defend itself in ordinary cases, particularly on the sea-side. It has barracks for a company of foot, and is famous for being an important pass between the northern and southern counties.

Dundalk is seated on a large open bay, but its haven is so shallow at low water, that people may walk over it dry shod. It is seated forty miles from Dublin, and was formerly walled and defended with fortifications, but is now an open place; it is the county town, and has a good market. It has a manufactory of cambricks, which is brought to great perfection, and corn is frequently sent from this port to Dublin. An infirmary has been lately erected here. Near the town are several salt works, which employ a great number of hands.

Drogheda is the largest town in the county, and seated on a bay of its own name, twenty-two miles from Dublin. It has a good harbour, but it is of difficult entrance, and requires the assistance of a pilot. It is a handsome well built town, is very populous, has a town house, and is divided into two parts by the river Boyne, over which is a good bridge. They have a good trade here to the north parts of England, and the inhabitants are supplied with a great quantity of coals from Whitehaven, which they send by land to all the country round, as well as up the Boyne. It gives title of Earl to the family of Moore.

The county of East-Meath is bounded on the north and north-east by those of Cavan and Lowth; on the east by St. George's channel; on the south by the counties of Kildare and Dublin; and on the west by Longford and West-Meath; extending thirty-two miles from north to south, and twenty-five from east to west. It is subdivided into eighteen baronies, and six boroughs, which send two members each to parliament, besides those for the county; these are Trim, Athboy, Navan, Kells, Duleck, and Ratoath.

This is a plain, fruitful, pleasant, and populous county, which feeds many herds of cattle, and abounds in corn. It gives title of earl to the family of Brabazon.

The principal town in this county is Trim, which has a small market on the Boyne. It had formerly a castle, and was walled. It stands twenty-three miles from Dublin. This and the town of Navan have each of them barracks for a troop of horse.

The county of West-Meath is thus called from its being situated to the west of the former, and extends west to the Shannon, which parts it from Roscommon: it also lies between Longford on the North, and King's-county on the south. According to some it extends forty miles in length, and twenty in breadth, while others say that it is only thirty miles either way. It contains thirteen baronies, and sends ten members to parliament, namely, two knights of the shire, and two burgesses each for Mullingar, Fore, Athlone, and Killbeggan.

Mullingar, which lies in the center, is forty miles from Dublin, and is a market-town of considerable note, with barracks for a troop of horse. This is the head of the county by act of parliament, and here the sessions of the county are held.

Athlone is seated about fifty miles from Dublin, on the banks of the Shannon, over which it has a bridge, which leads into the county of Roscommon, in which is part of the town, and is defended by a castle. It is a place of considerable strength, it being reckoned the key of Connaught. General Ginkle, for the valour he shewed at the siege of this town, was erected earl of Athlone, by

king William, and the title is still enjoyed by his descendants.

The county of Longford is bounded on the east and south by West-Meath; on the west by the Shannon, which separates it from Roscommon; on the north-west by Leitrim; and on the north by Cavan; extending twenty-seven miles in length, and sixteen in breadth. It is subdivided into six baronies, and contains twenty-four parishes, four boroughs, and sends ten members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for each of the following towns, Longford, Granard, Laneshorough, and St. Johnstown. It has some bogs and fenny pastures, yet is in the main a rich pleasant country, and has several lakes, which abound with fish. The principal towns are Longford and Laneshorough.

Longford stands on the banks of the Camlin, and is the capital of the county. It has a castle and barracks for a troop of horse.

Laneshorough is also seated on the Shannon, is sixty-six miles from Dublin, and has also barracks. It gives title of viscount to the family of Butler.

The county of Dublin is bounded on the east by St. George's Channel; on the south by the river Bray, which parts it from Wicklow; on the west by the county of Kildare; and on the north by East Meath and the river Nanny. Its greatest extent from north to south is twenty-six miles, and from east to west fifteen.

It is divided into six baronies, and sends two members to parliament, namely, two for the county, two for the city of Dublin, two for its university, two for the borough of Swords, and two for that of Newcastle.

The south parts are but little cultivated, being somewhat mountainous, but the rest is level and fruitful, and abounds with fish, tame and wild fowl, besides deer in the noblemen's parks.

Dublin is pleasantly seated at the mouth of the little river Liffey, in the fifty-fifth degree twelve minutes north latitude, and in the sixth degree fifty-five minutes west longitude, sixty-four miles to the west of Hollyhead in Wales, and two hundred and sixty-eight to the north-west of London. This is the mart and center of commerce for the whole kingdom, excepting such ports as are eminent for some particular branch of trade; though its harbour is so far from being commodious that it has a bar at its mouth, so that ships of great burthen cannot venture in; nor can those which are able to pass the bar, come up loaded to the quay, they being obliged to lie at Poolbeg, three miles below Dublin, and to deliver their goods by lighters. Great pains and expence have, however, been bestowed in order to render this bay as safe and commodious as possible: banks faced with stone have been extended for a considerable length on both sides, and particularly, a new wall has been lately built on the south. By these means, a great extent of land which used to be overflowed every high tide, has been taken from the bay, in order to render the harbour deeper; and to prevent ships leaving the proper channel, a durable row of piles has been fixed, between which ships may sail in the utmost security.

The Castle of Dublin, which twenty years ago was an ancient structure, consisting of several round towers of stone, mouldering into ruins, has been rebuilt in a magnificent manner; and contains many stately apartments. Before it is a handsome area, with a very fine street, leading down to Essex-bridge, which has been lately rebuilt after the model of that at Westminster, though the Liffey, over which it is extended, is not more than one fourth as broad as the Thames. Just below the bridge, on the south side of the river, is a very noble Custom house, with the front supported by piazzas. Before it is a handsome and spacious quay, with conveniencies for landing of goods. Besides the bridge just mentioned, there are several others of stone; but these are not worthy of a particular description.

To the eastward of the castle is a spacious area, on one side of which is the parliament house, the front of which is supported by very lofty columns; these are extended on each side in the wings, which reach to the street. These columns rise almost to the top of the building,

is only terminated by a very large and grand entablature, that seems to want a balustrade, which if adorned with statues or vases, would render the building compleat, and for want of which it seems unfinished; though it must be acknowledged to be a magnificent structure. In the area before the parliament house, is an equestrian statue of king William the Third.

Near the parliament house is Trinity college, which was founded by queen Elizabeth in 1591, and made an university by that princess. Its revenue has been since increased by several donations. The building consists of two squares, one behind the other: in the first is a noble library. The university has also an elaboratory, and a great number of skeletons and curiosities relating to anatomy, particularly a mummy remarkably perfect. The front, and all the old parts of this structure, have been lately rebuilt in an elegant manner with stone.

Near the other side of the area, behind the houses which front the parliament house, is the round church, which in the inside is very beautiful, it being covered with a dome, and adorned with a great deal of carved work and gilding. The form of this rotunda has a very pleasing effect, and its elegant decorations render it still more agreeable to the eye of the beholder.

At a small distance to the south, is St. Stephen's Green, a very fine square, in which are many noble buildings, and a large area in the middle. This affords a very pleasant walk, a mile in circuit.

Among the churches, the cathedral, dedicated to St. Patrick, is a fine old Gothick structure, famous for its curious workmanship within, arched roof, and high steeple, and also for its moveable pulpit, which till the people are seated, and divine service is ready to begin, stands in a corner of the church; but to the surprize of the stranger, is removed into the great aisle frequently without being observed; and he sees a minister in the pulpit, where a minute or two before was an open space. To this church belong a dean, a chanter, a chancellor, a treasurer, two archdeacons, and twenty-two prebendaries.

In the heart of the city is the collegiate church, called Christ-church, though it was dedicated to the Holy Trinity. This is a handsome structure in the inside, but it has nothing remarkable without. Thither the lord lieutenant and lords justices always go in state, on solemn occasions, though there is a church belonging to the castle.

Among the other churches there are several very beautiful structures.

At the west end of the town are the Barracks, which are very handsome and extensive stone buildings, raised upon an eminence, and ranged in several fronts and wings, joined together, with a very beautiful prospect of the open country before it. A neat chapel, with a steeple, has been lately added, where divine service is duly performed.

A little beyond the Barracks is the Phoenix-park, which consists of a pleasing variety of hills and vales, is planted with trees, and stocked with deer. A commodious road extends through it to the ring, where it encircles a very fine Corinthian column, bearing on the top a phoenix in the flames, erected by the earl of Chesterfield when lord lieutenant of Ireland. Hither a train of the nobility and gentry go in their coaches on the fine summer evenings, and make a very splendid appearance, there being frequently two hundred coaches and upwards, many of them drawn by six horses, with the servants of the greatest number of them in rich liveries; these coaches are drove round the ring, as was formerly the custom in Hyde-park: and as there is room for several coaches to go abreast, persons frequently converse together through the windows. In the park there are also very handsome seats for those who walk.

Opposite the Barracks, on the other side of the river Liffey, at a considerable distance, stands the Royal Hospital, founded by king Charles II. a very noble structure, in which there are apartments for old and disabled soldiers, five hundred of whom are maintained here, with their officers, much after the manner of Chelsea.

At a small distance from the above edifice is Stephens's hospital, founded by Dr. Stephens and his sister, a maiden

lady, for the cure of all sick and wounded persons who are objects of charity. This is a neat and elegant structure, and is endowed with a great revenue.

Near it is the hospital for idiots and lunatics, erected in pursuance of the will of the late dean Swift, celebrated for his wit and his writings.

Besides these truly charitable and humane endowments, there are three hospitals, or infirmaries, for the sick and wounded, namely, the Charitable infirmary, Mercer's hospital, and the Meath hospital; with one particularly appropriated to the use of incurables; a Lying-in-hospital, lately built in a superb manner, and in imitation of which the Lying-in-hospitals in the cities of London and Westminster were founded.

One of the most considerable of the charitable foundations of this city is the Poor-house, in which a great number of old and decayed persons are maintained; infants are also received, brought up, educated, and inured to labour. The girls in particular are taught to spin, and the boys to dress flax. The Blue-coat-hospital and Free-school was erected in 1680 by king Charles II. for educating, maintaining, and putting out apprentices to trades or sea-service the sons of the reduced citizens of Dublin, and contains about a hundred and sixty boys.

The city is governed by a lord mayor, who is granted a considerable sum to enable him to support the dignity of his office, and wears a collar of SS. and by twenty four aldermen. Every third year the city and its suburbs are surveyed by the lord mayor and the twenty-four corporations, which are, 1. The merchants, 2. The taylor, 3. The smiths, 4. The barber surgeons, 5. The bakers, 6. The butchers, 7. The carpenters, 8. The shoemakers, 9. The sadlers, 10. The cooks, 11. The tanners, 12. The tallow-chandlers, 13. The skimmers and glovers, 14. The weavers, 15. The sheer-men and dyers, 16. The gold-smiths, 17. The coopers, 18. The felt-makers, 19. The stationers, cutlers, and paper-stainers, 20. The bricklayers and plaisterers, 21. The curriers, 22. The hosiers, 23. The brewers and maltsters, 24. The joiners and wainscoters. All these several companies vie with each other in making a splendid appearance, and several of them have very fine pageants, consisting of large and beautiful carriages, in which are exhibited some remarkable particulars, or circumstances, relating to the company to which they belong. Thus, in that belonging to the stationers, of whom the printers make a part, is sometimes a printing-press, in which men work off a poem in praise of printing, and throw off every sheet to the mob: the weavers work at the loom: the smiths have their Vulcan: the furriers a man dressed in skins; and the upholsterers one in feathers.

We now come to the county of Kildare, which has those of Dublin and Wicklow on the east, the King's and Queen's-counties on the west, Catherlogh on the south, and East-Meath on the north; extending twenty-three miles from east to west, and thirty-seven from north to south; but both are very unequal, it running in a narrow slip between the counties of Dublin and Wicklow, and between the latter and Queen's-county.

This is an open, pleasant, and plentiful country, abounding in corn and pasturage; and is well watered by the Barrow, Liffey, and other rivers. It is divided into ten baronies, gives title of earl to the noble family of Fitzgerald, and sends ten members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and the same number for each of the following towns, Kildare, Naas, Haristown, and Athy.

Naas is the county town, but Kildare is the capital of the county. It is seated twenty-seven miles from Dublin, and is the see of a bishop. It is a pretty good town, and has some trade. Near it is a plain called the Curragh, large enough for a camp of ten thousand men, and in which is a celebrated course, where are frequent horse-races.

The King's-county was formerly called Offaly, but had its present name in honour of Philip of Spain, queen Mary's husband. It is bounded on the east by Kildare; on the south by Tipperary and the Queen's-county; on the west by part of Tipperary and Galloway, from which last it is separated by the Shannon; and on the north

by West-Meath. According to some authors it is thirty-seven miles from north to south, and twenty-eight from east to west; but, according to others, is forty-eight miles in length, and fourteen in breadth; however, it is very unequal both ways, and runs with a narrow slip between Tipperary and Queen's-county. It is a populous and well improved country, divided into eleven baronies, and sends six members to parliament, namely, two for the county, two for Philipstown, and two for Banagher.

Philipstown, or Kingstown, is the capital of the county, and is seated twenty-eight miles from Dublin. It has barracks for a company of foot, and gives title of baron to the lord viscount Molesworth.

Bir is said to be much the best town in the county: it stands on the borders of Tipperary, on a river that runs into the Shannon; has a considerable trade in wool, and employs a great number of hands in the woollen manufacture.

Queen's-county is so called in honour of Mary, the sister of queen Elizabeth, in whose reign it was made a county. It is bounded on the east by Kildare and Catherlogh, on the south by Catherlogh and Kilkenny, and on the north and west by King's-county and part of Tipperary; extending thirty-five miles in its greatest length from north to south, and near the same from east to west. It is divided into seven baronies, and sends eight members to parliament, two for the county, and two each for Portarlington, Maryborough, and Ballynekil.

Maryborough, or Queen's-town, stands seventy-two miles from Dublin. It was so called in honour of queen Mary, and has barracks for a troop of horse. It gives title of baron and viscount to the lord Molyneux.

The county of Wicklow, which was once a part of that of Dublin, is bounded on the east by St. George's Channel, on the south by the county of Wexford, on the west by Kildare and Catherlogh, and on the north by Kildare and Dublin; extending thirty-six miles in its greatest length, and twenty-eight where broadest.

It is divided into six baronies, and sends ten members to parliament, two for the county, and two each for the towns of Wicklow, Baltinglass, Carysford, and Blessington. It is pretty mountainous, but the low lands are fruitful, and, among other advantages, contains a copper mine.

Wicklow, the county town, is seated twenty-four miles from Dublin, at the mouth of the river Leirtrim, and has what is called a castle; but it is only a rock, with a strong wall round it. It has no great trade; what it has is chiefly managed in small vessels, which carry provisions to Dublin: but the haven, which was in a manner choaked up by sands, has been deepened, and considerable works added to improve it. This place is famous for its excellent ale, and has barracks for three companies of foot.

Arklow is a pretty market-town near the sea, twelve miles from Wicklow. It has barracks for two companies of foot, and also sends boats loaded with provisions to Dublin.

The county of Catherlogh, or Caterlough, has Wexford on the south, part of Queen's-county and Kilkenny on the west, part of Kildare and Wicklow on the north, and part of Wicklow and Wexford on the east, lying for the most part between the rivers Barrow and Slaine. It extends twenty-eight miles from north to south, and eighteen from east to west; but is very unequal, it running with a narrow slip between Kilkenny and Wexford. It is woody, but pretty fruitful; is divided into five baronies, and sends only six members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two each for the towns of Catherlogh and Old Leighlin.

Catherlogh, which is the county town, stands thirty-eight miles from Dublin. It is seated on the river Barrow, and hath a castle, with barracks for a troop of horse. It is well built, and is a pretty trading town, inhabited by the chief gentlemen of the county.

The county of Kilkenny is bounded on the east by Wexford and Catherlogh, on the south by Waterford, from which it is parted by the Suir; on the west by Tipperary; on the north-west by Upper Ossory; and on the north by the Queen's-county. Its greatest extent

from north to south is forty miles, and from east to west twenty. It comprehends ten districts and baronies, and sends sixteen members to parliament; namely, two for the county, two for the city of Kilkenny, and two for each of the following towns, St. Kennis, or Irish-town, Gowran, Thomastown, Enistoege, Cullen, Knocktopher.

This is a plentiful country, so populous as to be adorned with more towns and castles than any in the kingdom; and, though it is mountainous in the south part, is said to have fire without smoke, earth without bog, water without mud, and air without fog: thus having all the four elements in perfection, it is esteemed an healthful as well as pleasant country. It is remarkable for its coal mines, as well as for its quarries of marble. Near Ossory are the mountains called Sliewbloamy, or Bladin hills, out of which spring the Suir, the Neor, and Barrow. They descend in three several channels, but join in one before they fall into the sea. The Neor, or Nure, divides this county into two parts.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Kilkenny, which was once a bishop's see, is seated on the Neor, fifty-six miles from Dublin. It has two stone bridges over the river, and is a large, strong, populous, neat, and well-built city, which has as good a trade as any inland town of Ireland. It is divided into the English and Irish towns, of which the former is the principal, and the latter, as it were, the suburbs; but contains the cathedral, which is pleasantly seated on a hill of a gentle ascent, from which there is a delightful prospect of the city and the adjacent country. The English town is much newer, and is remarkable for its streets being paved with marble, and its being fortified with a castle by the Butlers, of the family of the earls of Ormond, who made it their principal seat, and built and liberally endowed a free-school, which is a fine structure, called the college. Here are barracks for a troop of horse and four companies of foot.

Thomastown is seated on the banks of the Neor, and is reckoned the second town in the county; but is a small place, with some fortifications.

The last county we shall mention in the province of Leinster, is that of Wexford, which is bounded on the north by Wicklow; on the east, south, and south-west, by St. George's Channel; and on the west by Catherlogh and Kilkenny, extending forty-seven miles in length, and twenty-seven in breadth. It is divided into eight baronies, and sends eighteen members to parliament; namely, two for the county, and the same number for each of the following boroughs, Wexford, New Ross, Enniscorthy, Feathard, Newborough, Banno, Clonmines, and Taghman. It is in some places fruitful in corn and pasture, but in others the soil is very indifferent.

The principal towns in this county are the following:

Ross, which is situated on the borders of Kilkenny, was once a large, trading, populous city, with a cathedral, and was the see of a bishop, afterwards annexed to that of Cork. It is now a town of trade, by means of its river, formed by the junction of the Neor and the Barrow, which brings up ships of very considerable burthen to its quay, and has barracks for a troop of horse.

Duncannon is a fort on the same river more to the south, which so commands it, that no ship can pass either to Ross or Waterford without its permission; and there are here barracks for three companies of foot. From hence to the north of the river, a narrow neck of land projects into the sea, on which stands Hook-tower, formerly built by the citizens of Ross, and now augmented with a light-house for the direction of sailors into the mouth of the river.

Wexford, the chief town of the county, stands at the mouth of the river Slaine, sixteen miles from Ross, and sixty-five to the south of Dublin. This is remarkable for being the first town in the whole island that surrendered to the English, who took possession of it in the year 1170, when it was reckoned the principal town in all Ireland. It has a very good harbour for vessels that do not draw above twelve or fifteen feet water; but it

has

has two or three sand-banks just before it, and several shallows within; so that all vessels which draw more water are obliged to lade and unlade in a creek three miles from the town, where there is water enough, but no shelter from the south-west wind. Here are barracks for two companies of foot. This town has a considerable trade in corn and butter, and is famous for its fine ale.

SECT. V.

Of the Province of Connaught; containing the Counties of Thomond or Clare, Gallway, Mayo, Roscommon, Sligo, and Leitrim; their Situation, Extent, Divisions, Rivers, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS province is separated from that of Leinster by the Shannon, which also parts it on the south and south-east from Munster, and is bounded on the north and west by the Ocean. It is one hundred and thirty miles in length from Cape Lean, the most southerly point of Thomond, to the north parts of Leitrim; about eighty-four in breadth, from the east point of Leitrim to the Black Harbour in the west part of Mayo; and about five hundred in circumference.

In some places this province is extremely pleasant, but in others is gloomy and subject to great fogs, on account of its many bogs, woods, and lakes. The soil is very fruitful, and abounds with cattle, deer, hawks, and honey. It has many convenient bays and creeks for navigation, but few rivers of considerable note, except the Shannon. The chief are the Moy, in the county of Mayo, which, for a small distance, divides it from Sligo, and falls into the ocean by Mayo and Killala. The Suck divides Roscommon from Gallway, and falls into the Shannon near Clonfert. The Droos, a river in the county of Clare, which falls into the Shannon to the east of Clare; and the Gyll, a small river in Gallway, which runs into the bay of that name.

This province contains one archbishopric, five bishoprics, seven market-towns, eight places of trade and commerce, twelve boroughs that return members to parliament, and three hundred and sixty-six parishes; with six counties, which are subdivided into fifty-one baronies. These counties are Thomond or Clare, Gallway, Mayo, Roscommon, Sligo, and Leitrim.

Thomond, or the county of Clare, was formerly joined to Munster, but has been annexed to Connaught. On the east and south sides, it is parted by the Shannon from Tipperary, Limerick, and Kerry in Munster; on the north it is bounded by the county of Gallway; and on the west by the Atlantic ocean. It is about fifty-five miles in length, and thirty-eight in breadth; and is supposed to contain ten thousand houses. It is divided into nine baronies, in which are two market-towns, and but one borough, which is that of Ennis; it therefore sends but four members to parliament.

It is a hilly, irregular country, but is not deficient in good pastures, which produce the best horses in Ireland. The soil also bears corn and rape.

Ennis, the county town, is seated about one hundred miles from Dublin. It stands near a lake formed by the Shannon, has a market, and is by much the best town in the county.

Killalo, the other market town, stands on the Shannon, on the borders of Tipperary, eighteen miles from Ennis, and ten to the north east of Limerick. It is the see of a bishop, and was once a very considerable place; but is at present decayed. There is here a cataract in the Shannon, which stops vessels from going farther up.

The county of Gallway is bounded on the east and south-east by part of Roscommon, King's-county, and Tipperary, from which last it is parted by the Shannon; on the south-side by the county of Clare; on the west by the Atlantic ocean; and on the north and north-east by Mayo, Meath, and Roscommon. It is eighty-two miles in length, and forty-two in breadth; and is divided into seventeen baronies, containing one hundred and thirty-six parishes, about fifteen thousand four hundred

and twenty houses, and sends eight members to parliament; namely, two for the county, two for the town of Gallway, two for Athenry, and two for Tuam. The river Shannon here forms a lake several miles in length; and Lough Corrib, which runs into the bay of Gallway a little above the city, is twenty miles long, and in some places five broad. As this country abounds with a warm lime-stone soil, which rewards the industry of the husbandman and shepherd, it in general abounds with corn, pasture, and cattle; but the south and east parts are best inhabited. The west side runs out in the form of a peninsula. It is much indented with little bays, and bordered all along with a mixture of verdant islands and rugged rocks, among which are four islands called South Arran, which give title of Earl to the family of Gore.

Gallway, the county town, stands on an island, by the fall of the Lake Corbes, or Lough Corrib, into the bay of its own name, one hundred miles to the west of Dublin, and thirty-seven to the north of Limerick. It is a very strong, neat, and rich city, the capital of all the west part of Ireland. In beauty and compactness it is inferior to none but Dublin. It is extremely well situated for commerce, and has a large, safe, and excellent harbour, called the Bay of Gallway, which is sheltered at the mouth by the south isles of Arran, thro' which are three passages for ships, besides the north-passage at the mouth of the bay, and is capable of containing a vast fleet of ships. The buildings, especially the public structures, are generally of stone, very handsome and lofty, and inhabited by substantial merchants and shopkeepers. It is encompassed by a wall, and has barracks for ten companies of foot. This city was once the see of a bishop, but it is now included within the archbishopric of Tuam.

Tuam has been the see of an archbishop, ever since the beginning of the sixth century. It stands seven miles from the borders of Mayo, and was once a famous city, but is now greatly reduced; however, it has still some trade.

Mayo is bounded on the east and north-east by Roscommon and Sligo; on the south and south-east by Gallway; and on the west and north by the Atlantic ocean; extending sixty-two miles in length, and fifty-two in breadth. It is divided into nine baronies, in which there is but one borough town, and it sends only four members to parliament; two for the county, and two for Castlebar. It has seventy-three parishes, and is said to contain upwards of thirteen thousand houses. It is rough and mountainous on the side next the sea; but in other parts has pasture, and is well-stocked with cattle and deer; it is watered with many large lakes and rivers, and gives title of viscount to the family of Bourke.

Mayo, the chief town, was once a bishop's see, but is since annexed to Tuam. The town stands at the mouth of the river Moy, on the borders of Sligo, one hundred and fifteen miles from Dublin, and was once a flourishing place; but it is now much decayed.

Roscommon is bounded on the east by Longford and East-Meath; on the north by Sligo and Leitrim; on the south by Gallway and Mayo, and on the west by another part of Gallway and Mayo; extending fifty miles in length, and twenty-eight in breadth. It is subdivided into six baronies, in which are three boroughs, fifty-nine parishes, and about eight thousand seven hundred and eighty houses. It sends eight members to parliament; two for the county, and two each for Roscommon, Boyle, and Tullsk. It is, for the most part, a level and fruitful country, that with little cultivation yields plenty of corn and grass, which feeds large herds of cattle. On the north-side of the county, are the Curlew mountains, which were steep, and impassable, till with much difficulty a way was cut through them.

Roscommon, which gives name to the county, was formerly defended by a castle, which is now in ruins. It is a mean place, consisting chiefly of one street, with great part of the houses thatched; yet here is kept the sessions-house and jail, and it gives title of Earl to the family of Dillon.

Boyle is a good market town and corporation, by the lake Key, near the borders of Sligo. It is a place of some trade, and is remarkable for an old abbey, of which only

only the ruins now remain. It has also a fine seat which belonged to the late lord Kingsborough.

Sligo is bounded on the east by the county of Leitrim; on the south and south-west by Roscommon and Mayo; and on the north and north-west by the Atlantic ocean; extending thirty-five miles in length, and as much in breadth. Great part of this county is mountainous, and covered with bogs; but the lower grounds have a good soil, proper for grazing. It is subdivided into six baronies, and contains forty-one parishes, and about five thousand nine hundred and seventy houses. It has but one borough, and sends four members to parliament, two for the county, and two for Sligo, the capital town.

Sligo, the county town, is seated on a bay of the same name, a hundred and ten miles to the north-east of Dublin, and is the only town of note in the county. It has a very commodious harbour, and ships of two hundred tons burthen may come up to the quay. Here is also a good castle. The town is populous, but not large; nor is the trade considerable, though much better than in any other places beyond it.

A mile from Castle-connor, in this county, is a round hill, an entrance into which was discovered in 1646, leading to quadrangular chambers, arched over. The caves of the rock of Corin are equally remarkable, where, within a steep and almost inaccessible entrance, are many strange recesses. Before these caves is a path, about a hundred paces in length, also cut out of the rock. This work, which is called the Giants-house, is supposed to be formed either by the Irish or Danes.

The county of Leitrim is bounded by Sligo on the west and south-west; by Donegal bay on the north; by Longford, in Leinster, on the south-east; and by the counties of Fermanagh and Cavan on the east and north-east. It is forty-four miles in length, but only eighteen in breadth, and is a wild mountainous country, but abounds in grass, which feeds a prodigious number of cattle. It is divided into five baronies, and contains twenty-one parishes, about four thousand houses, two boroughs, and sends six members to parliament, two for the county, and two each for Jamestown and Doumrusk.

Leitrim, the county town, stands near the Shannon, which rises in this county; but the town is decayed, and of little consequence.

S E C T. VI.

Of the Province of Ulster; containing the Counties of Down, Armagh, Monaghan, Cavan, Fermanagh, Tyrone, Antrim, Londonderry, and Donegal; their Situation, Extent, Lakes, Rivers, Soil, Produce, Mountains, and principal Towns; with a particular Description of the Giant's Causeway.

THIS province is encompassed on three sides by the sea, it being bounded on the east by St. George's Channel, on the north by the Northern ocean, on the west by the Atlantic ocean, on the south-west by the province of Connaught, and on the south by that of Leinster; it being about a hundred and sixteen miles in length, and a hundred in breadth. It is subdivided into fifty-five baronies, and contains ten counties, twenty-nine boroughs, three hundred and sixty-five parishes, and about a hundred and fifteen thousand five hundred inhabitants, with one archbishopric, and six bishoprics.

The air is temperate and salubrious, being cooled by various winds in summer, and qualified by moderate rains in winter. It has many great lakes and rivers that abound with fish, many woods, plenty of corn and grass, and a great number of black cattle and some sheep.

The principal rivers and lakes are the following: the river Rann, which rises in the county of Down, receives the river Tanwagee, passes through Lough-neagh, and, after dividing the counties of Antrim and Londonderry, falls into the Northern ocean a little below Colerain.

Lough-foyle, which passes by St. John's-town and Londonderry, forms a bay of the same name at its entrance into the Northern ocean.

The Swilly, in the county of Donegal, also falls into the same ocean, with a kind of lake.

Lagan-water, in the county of Down, passes by Drogheda, Lisburn, and Belfast, into the bay of Carrickfergus.

Newry-water parts Down from Armagh, and falls into Carlingford bay.

With respect to the soil of this county, it ought farther to be observed, that it is apt to run into wood, unless constantly kept open, and the low grounds, where the drains are neglected, soon degenerate into bogs; but by the industry of the inhabitants it produces good crops of oats, and, where marl is found, barley. The staple commodity of this county is the linen manufacture, which has been of the greatest benefit to all ranks of people. Hence this province may be said to be in general populous, flourishing, and daily encreasing in the number and wealth of its inhabitants.

Its highest mountains are those of Mourne, the base of which terminates on the sea-shore. Among these that named Slive-Donagh is three miles in gradual ascent, and half a mile in perpendicular height. These are reckoned among the highest mountains in Ireland, and are useful land-marks for sailors. They afford variety of plants, and many springs: besides, a multitude of cattle graze on them in summer. In one of them are quarries of millstones, and in another are found crystals. These mountains are famous for the goats whey prescribed by physicians for scorbutic and nephritic ailments and disorders of the lungs; and in April, May, and June, are much frequented by the gentry of both sexes, many of whom have found relief; these shrubs and medicinal herbs affording the fittest nourishment to those animals. There has been a pearl-fishery on the river Bann, but it is not now much pursued.

This province is divided into the nine following counties, Down, Armagh, Monaghan, Cavan, Fermanagh, Tyrone, Antrim, Londonderry, and Donegal.

The county of Down is bounded on the east and south by St. George's Channel, on the west by the county of Armagh, and on the north by the county of Antrim. It lies opposite to the Isle of Man, Cumberland, and Westmoreland; and the north part of it fronts the Mull of Galloway, which is visible at about five leagues distance. It is about forty-four English miles in length, upwards of thirteen in breadth, and divided into seven baronies, which contain about nineteen thousand two hundred and seventy houses, seventy-two parishes, and sends fourteen members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and twelve for the six following boroughs, Newry, Downpatrick, Newtown, Killeleagh, Bangor, and Hillsborough.

Newry is a borough and market-town on the side of a steep hill, at the bottom of which runs the Newry-water, having over it two stone bridges, one on the road from Dublin, from which it is forty-nine miles distant, and another in the way to Armagh. The turnpike-road from Dublin to Belfast, Antrim, and Armagh, go through the town; and here is a lock of the new canal, lately formed by parliamentary encouragement; and over this canal is a third bridge. The town has suffered greatly by the rebellions that have happened in this province; and was burnt down by the duke of Berwick in 1689: but it is now so much improved in its trade and buildings, that it is the largest town in the county. At one end of it is a spacious church seated on a hill, and at the other a school-house near the river. It has the most trade of any town in the county, to which the increase of the linen manufacture has greatly contributed. It has also a manufacture of earthen-ware, and houses for baking of sugar. It is likely to receive farther business by means of the navigable canal just mentioned. In its neighbourhood is plenty of a hard gritty free-stone, which is easily cut into squares, and is used for building. There is also a castle built on an eminence, to command the head of the bridge, which was formerly a considerable pass, to secure the road through the bogs and mountains between Dundalk and this town. It is almost encompassed with mountains, except to the north, where it opens into a good country, through which the New Canal is carried.

Rostrevor is a small town, with a church, on the north side of Carlingford harbour, defended from the winds by the hills, which are clothed with wood; and an arm

of the sea forming a noble basin at the foot of these hills, affords an agreeable prospect. Here is a quay for ships, which safely ride at anchor within a few yards of the shore, a salt-house, and a pottery for white earthen-ware, made of the fine potters clay found near Carrickfergus.

Rathfryland, or Rathon-island, probably so called from Rath, a high fort on an island, it rising above all the neighbouring grounds. It stands on a hill where four great roads, laid out in almost straight lines, lead up to it, and meet in the center of the town, at one end of which is the church, built on a rock of free-stone, and at the highest point of the hill are the ruins of a castle, and on its side is a warren well stocked with excellent rabbits. This is one of the greatest marts for linen in this county. Two miles from it is a small pleasant lake, which hath on the verge of it a large plantation of young forest trees, called Ballyrony.

Killogh, or Port St. Ann, is a town with a commodious harbour on the north-east side of St. John's Point. A rock stands in the middle of the entrance of the harbour, which is covered at half flood; but there is a secure passage, either to the east or west of it. A mile within that rock, on the west side, is a quay and basin for ships, where they may lie defended from all winds. In this town is a neat chapel, barracks for two troops of dragoons, a Protestant charter working school for the linen manufacture, &c. and salt works: but its principal trade at present arises from the exportation of barley, and the importation of most sorts of commodities consumed in the adjacent country.

Downpatrick, which signifies Patrick's-Mount, stands five miles from Killogh, and is esteemed one of the most ancient places in the kingdom. It is a market-town and bishopric, erected in the fifth century by St. Patrick; but is now united to the see of Connor. Within two hundred paces of the town, on the ascent of a hill, are the ruins of an old cathedral, remarkable for a tomb, which contained the body of St. Patrick, St. Bridget, and St. Columb; and there were anciently four religious houses, besides the cathedral, in and near the town. It is situated on a branch of the lake of Strangford, and is adorned with several handsome public buildings; the parish-church is lately rebuilt, and it has a sessions-house, the diocese school, and an alms-house for old and decayed Protestants, with an English school for forty children, who are clothed and educated in the Protestant religion; the two last built and endowed by Edward Southwell, Esq; principal secretary of state for Ireland: an alms-house for three clergymen's widows, with good gardens, and twenty pounds per annum for each of them; a barrack for a troop of dragoons, and a large market-house. From this place the family of Dawny have the title of viscount.

Here is a variety of fine prospects from the south branch of Strangford lake. Among the hills and many islands are flights of swans and other water-fowl, and the lake abounds with good salmon, mullets, and other sea-fish. Over a branch of the lake, upon the road to Killeleagh and St. Field, is a handsome stone bridge of six arches. About a mile from the town is St. Patrick's well, to which, at certain seasons of the year, many thousand people resort, some in expectation of receiving benefit from the water blessed by that saint, others to perform a penance enjoined by the Popish priests.

Strangford is a small but ancient town, belonging to the earl of Kildare, seated on the river of Strangford, five miles from Down, and is so called from the great rapidity of the tides here, it being reckoned the strongest current in Europe. It gives title of viscount to the family of Smythe. The sea runs here both at flood and ebb like a sluice, at the rate of six knots, or miles, an hour. The lake is near four miles broad at a medium, and about seventeen long. It abounds with many kinds of excellent fish, as bass, mullet, whittings, large sea trouts, oysters, lobsters, shrimps, &c. and there are great quantities of kelp burnt on the islands in the lake, and on the stony flat coasts.

Bangor, a market town on Carrickfergus bay, six miles from Carrickfergus, is governed by a provost and twelve burgesses who elect the members of parliament. It is remarkable for a very old abbey, and the first church

built of stone in the province of Ulster, also for being the landing place of duke Schomberg, when sent against the rebels in 1689. The town contains about two hundred houses, has little trade, but spins considerable quantities of fine linen yarn. It has some noble ruins of an ancient abbey, and the walls of an old custom-house.

Belvoir, a pleasant seat of the honourable Arthur Hill, Esq; three miles from Belfast. The avenue to it is large and handsome; the gardens adorned with regular canals, cascades, slopes, and terraces: the kitchen garden is enclosed with espaliers; part of the garden lies over the Lagan river, and at a small distance is a neat church.

Killeleagh is seated on an arm of the lake of Strangford, ten miles from Newtown, and is agreeably built upon a rising ground, commanding a prospect of part of the lake. The castle stands at the head of the street; and at the lower end is a little safe bay, where ships lie sheltered from all winds. On one side is a small river running under a stone bridge into the sea. Adjoining to the castle are gardens and plantations. This borough is governed by a provost, who, with twelve burgesses, elect their representatives in parliament. Here the linen manufacture has spread to advantage, and it is remarkable for its fine white thread. Here is a barrack for a troop of dragoons, a handsome church, and a good parsonage house. This town gave birth to that eminent naturalist and physician Sir Hans Sloane, president of the royal society, and who may be justly termed the founder of the celebrated Museum in London.

Hillsborough, a market town, finely situated on a heathy gravelly soil, in view of the Maze course, and the town of Lisburn. The chief magistrate here is called sovereign, who with twelve burgesses elect representatives in parliament. Here are good gardens, and fine plantations, with the ruins of a noble house, destroyed by an accidental fire, belonging to the family of Hill, to which Hillsborough gives the title of Viscount. The parish church is a spacious and well contrived building, seated on a rising ground, near the ruins of an old mansion house.

Dromore takes its name from its situation, it signifying the back of a great hill. It stands twelve miles from Belfast, and is a market town, and the see of a bishop, the cathedral of which was founded by St. Coleman, who flourished in the sixth century. Here is a decent church with a steeple, but it has no revenue for the support of the cathedral service; the minister of the parish, who is treasurer of Dromore, discharging the duties of it. Here are two alms-houses for clergymen's widows of the diocese, erected by the contributions of the bishop and clergy. The diocese school is kept here, and near it is an English protestant school, where poor children are trained up in the protestant religion, and some of them set to work; twelve of them are clothed at the expence of the parish. The river Lagan divides the town, at the east end of which is a Danish mount, which is always green, and has its top encircled with a rampart, between eighty and ninety feet over, having a strong battlement, and a spacious parapet. The trenches are between ten and twelve feet wide, terminating on a precipice, with two arms embracing a square fort, about one hundred feet in diameter, whose rampart is forty feet high, with a large battlement; and from the Lagan water to the fortification, upon the easiest ascent at the precipice, is a covert way about two hundred and sixty feet long, seven wide, and nine deep. In and near the town are many linen weavers.

The county of Armagh, or Ardmagh, is separated in part from that of Down by the river Newry; it is bounded on the south by Lowth; on the west by Tyrone and Monaghan; and on the north by Lough-Neagh, extending thirty-two miles in length, and seventeen in breadth; and is divided into five baronies. It sends six members to parliament; two for the county; two for the city of Armagh; and two for the borough of Charlemont.

Armagh is seated near the river Kalin, thirty miles to the south of Londonderry. It gives name to the county of Armagh, and is the see of an archbishop, who has the

title of primate of all Ireland. It was a very ancient and considerable city, it being once the metropolis of the whole kingdom, yet is now a small place, but has some good houses, with a very spacious church seated on the top of a hill, and the ruins of a monastery, priory, and the archbishop's palace. The hill on which the church is seated, affords a view all round of a very delightful country.

The county of Monaghan is bounded on the north by Tyrone; on the south by Cavan; on the south-east by Lowth and part of East-Meath: on the east by Armagh; and on the west by Fermanagh. It is thirty-two miles in length from north-west to south-east; and thirty from east to west. It abounds with hills, woods, and marshes; is divided into five baronies; but sends only four members to parliament, two for the county, and two for the town of Monaghan.

Monaghan, the county town, is a small neat place, and has a sessions house in which the assizes are held. Here are sold considerable quantities of linen, and it has in other respects a pretty trade.

The county of Cavan is bounded on the north by Fermanagh; on the east by part of Monaghan, Meath, and Lowth; on the south by Longford and West-Meath; and on the west by Leitrim; extending forty-seven miles from the south-east to the north-west, and twenty-five from east to west in the broadest part. It is divided into seven baronies, and gives title of earl to the noble family of Lambert. It sends six members to parliament, two for the county, two for Cavan, and two for Belturbet. It contains thirty-seven parishes, and about eight thousand three hundred and twenty houses. It has several pleasant lakes, and much fenny pasture; but in other parts has a rich fertile soil, well planted and improved.

Belturbet is seated three miles from Lough-ern, and stands on the river of that name. It is a small place, but has a considerable fair for linen cloth.

Cavan, the county town, stands seven miles from Belturbet, is larger than that town, but is a place of no great trade.

The county of Fermanagh is bounded on the north and north-east by Tyrone; on the east by Monaghan: on the south by Cavan; on the south-west by Leitrim; and on the north-west by Donegal; extending thirty-eight miles in length, and twenty-four in breadth. It is divided into eight baronies, in which there is not one market town, and but one borough, which is named Enniskilling; so that it returns only four members to parliament.

This county is full of woods and bogs, a third part of it being filled with Lough-ern, the greatest lake in all this part of Ireland, of which we have already given an account in describing the lakes in general.

Enniskilling is seated in the middle of the lake, where the waters are contracted into the breadth of an ordinary river, and thus continue for six miles. At this town is a strong fort, it being a pass of the greatest importance, from the north part of Ireland to the south; and is famous for its obstinate defence against queen Elizabeth's army in 1595, and that of the protestants in 1689 against king James's forces.

The county of Tyrone, or Tir-Oen, is bounded on the north by Londonderry; on the east by part of Antrim, from which it is divided by Lough-neagh; on the south and south-west by part of Fermanagh, Monaghan, and Armagh; and on the west by the river Liffey, which divides it from Donegal and part of Fermanagh. It is forty-six miles in length, and thirty-seven in breadth. Though great part of it is rough and mountainous, yet in other parts it is not inferior to many counties in the kingdom for the richness of its soil, and the goodness of its pastures. It is divided into four baronies, which contain thirty parishes, about twelve thousand six hundred and eighty houses, and sends ten members to parliament, two for the county, and two each for Dungannon, Strabane, Clogher, and Augher.

Lough-neagh, in this county, is about thirty miles in extent, full of fish, and the banks variegated with shady groves, meadows always verdant, and rich corn-fields, adorned with gentle hills and pleasant brooks.

Clogher is a city and the see of a bishop, seated in Lower Tyrone, founded by St. Patrick, and well endowed; but the town is small, and much decayed.

Dungannon, which is reckoned the county town, is a place of some strength, situated upon a hill seventy-two miles from Dublin, and has a considerable trade in linen and linen yarn.

The county of Antrim, which is the most northern part of all Ireland, is bounded by St. George's Channel on the east; the county of Down on the south-east; part of Armagh on the south; Londonderry on the west, from which it is separated by the river Bann; and the Northern ocean on the north; extending forty-six miles in length, and twenty-seven in breadth. It gives title of earl and baron to the ancient family of Mac Donnell. It is subdivided into eight baronies, and contains fifty-six parishes, about eighteen thousand one hundred houses, and sends ten members to parliament, two for the county, two for Lisburn, two for Belfast, two for Antrim, and two for Randalstown.

The most remarkable curiosity in this county, and indeed, in all Ireland, is the Giants Causeway, a surprising structure of stones, extending a great way into the sea, where the same work seems to have been begun on the opposite shore of Scotland. This stupendous causeway was supposed to be the work of the giants, undertaken in order to form a communication between Ireland and Scotland. Nor is it at all wonderful that such a supposition should obtain credit among the vulgar; since though it is a work far above human strength, yet it has the greatest appearance of art. The sea cliffs are very high in the place where the causeway begins; and what is commonly called the causeway, is a low head extending from the foot of the cliffs, like a mole, into the sea. This head, when considered attentively, seems a stupendous production of art; and Dr. Pococke, late bishop of Ossory, and fellow of the Royal Society, informs us that he measured the most westerly point at high water, to the distance of three hundred and sixty feet from the cliff; but was told that at low water, it extended sixty feet farther upon a descent, till it was lost in the sea. Upon measuring the eastern point, he found it five hundred and forty feet from the cliff; and saw as much more of it as of the other, where it winds to the east, and is like that lost in the water.

The causeway is composed of pillars of all angular shapes, from three sides to eight. The eastern point, where it joins the rock, terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright sides of pillars, some of which are thirty-three feet four inches high. Each pillar consists of several joints or stones, lying one upon another, from six inches to about a foot in thickness; and what is very surprising, some of these joints are so convex that their prominences are nearly quarters of spheres, round each of which is a ledge which holds them together with the greatest firmness, every stone being concave on the other side, and fitting in the exactest manner the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally consist of about forty joints, most of which separate very easily; and one may walk along upon the tops of the pillars, as far as the edge of the water.

But this is not the most singular part of this extraordinary curiosity, the cliffs themselves being still more surprising. From the bottom, which is of black stone, to the height of about sixty feet, they are divided at equal distances by stripes of a reddish stone, that resembles a cement about four inches in thickness; upon this there is another stratum of the same black stone, with a stratum five inches thick of the red. Over this is another stratum ten feet thick, divided in the same manner; then a stratum of the red stone twenty feet deep, and above that a stratum of upright pillars: above these pillars lies another stratum of black stone twenty feet high; and, above this again, another stratum of upright pillars, rising in some places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not so high, and in others again above it, where they are called the chimneys. The face of these cliffs extends about three English miles.

About a quarter of a mile to the south-east of the causeway, is seen what is called the Organs, composed of the same kind of pillars as those we have already described. Notwithstanding the great appearance of art, it is certain that all these are merely the work of nature, since if this causeway had been built by human beings, they must likewise have built not only these cliffs but also the rocks, which even at several miles distance from the sea are formed in the same manner of convex and concave stones, nicely fitted to each other.

The principal towns in this county are the following:

Antrim is a considerable thriving market-town and corporation, thirteen miles to the west of Carrickfergus, and is pleasantly seated on both sides of what is called the Six-mile Water, over which is a handsome bridge. Here is a harbour for boats, and a stately mansion-house which belonged to the late lord viscount Massareen, with a fine park.

Carrickfergus, or Knockfergus, is a rich and populous borough, ninety miles from Dublin, seated on a bay of its own name, where it has an excellent harbour, with a strong castle on a high rock, and had an ancient palace converted into a magazine for arms. It is a fortified place walled round, and has some modern outworks. The town and liberties have the privilege of being a distinct county, yet the assizes and quarter-sessions for the county of Antrim are kept there.

Belfast is seated at the bottom of the bay of Carrickfergus, three leagues from that town, and is the chief place of trade, as well as of beauty, in all this part of Ireland. It has a very long stone-bridge over the river, and ships come up the Cormoyle-road, which is a safe commodious harbour below the town, with good depth of water. There are here many rich merchants, and a very considerable trade from this part to Scotland, particularly to Glasgow; the town and most of the adjacent county being inhabited by the Scots, who have their regular presbyteries, kirk-sessions, and other judicatures here as in Scotland, tho' not with equal authority.

The county of Londonderry, or Colerain, is bounded on the north by a part of Donegal and the Northern ocean; on the east by Antrim, from which it is separated by the river Bann; on the south and south-west by the county of Tyrone; and on the west by Donegal; extending thirty-six miles in length, and thirty in breadth. It is subdivided into four baronies, which contain thirty-eight parishes, about thirteen thousand six hundred houses, and sends eight members to parliament, two for the county, and two for each of the towns of Londonderry, Colerain, and Newtown-Annagh.

It is a pretty champaign country, and very fruitful, its boggy and heathy ground being manured by shells brought from the sea-coast. Its chief river is the Bann, which is remarkable for its beauty and clearness: it rises out of the Mourne hills in the county of Down, and after losing both itself and name for about thirty miles in the lake called Lough-neagh, recovers its name again at Tome-castle, from whence, being shaded with woods on both sides, it passes to the sea. There is a smaller river of the same name, and therefore this is called the Great Bann; though it is not very large.

This county, which was formerly wild and uncultivated, has been greatly improved by the citizens of London, to whom king James I. by letters patent, granted this county, with the city of Londonderry, and the town of Colerain by the name of 'The society of the governor and assistants of London of the new plantation of Ulster, in the realm of Ireland, in consideration of their settling a colony there.'

Londonderry, the see of a bishop, and the capital of the county, is seated on the west side of the river Foyle, one hundred and four miles north-west of Dublin, and is the center of trade for this part of the country, though its river is not so large as that at Colerain; but it has a much better port; for ships of the greatest burthen go up without interruption; and though it is twenty miles up the river, very large ships sail up even to the quay, where it is from four to five fathoms deep. It is a modern place, built by a company of London-Adventurers, in the reign of James I. and has three or four castles on the north

bank of the river, besides a fort, which lies below the town: it is likewise encompassed by a strong wall; and besides the above forts, there are some out-works. This city is not very large, but is handsomely built: the streets are wide, well paved, and all the houses of stone. The church is very large and well built, and king William III. caused a town-house to be erected for the inhabitants, in consideration of their brave defence against his enemies. There are a great number of shipping belonging to the city; and the merchants not only carry on a great trade in the herring-fishery, but have a considerable share in many other branches of foreign trade; especially to the West-Indies, for which they are very advantageously situated; for, being open to the Northern and Western ocean, they are not exposed to the dangers and delays which frequently attend a passage through the Channel. The city of Londonderry is inhabited entirely by Protestants.

This city has rendered itself remarkable by the bravery of its inhabitants in three sieges, in each of which they were driven to the greatest extremity; but obliged the enemy to retire. The last gallant defence was made against the French and Irish troops of king James II. from the seventh of December, 1688, to the last day of July 1689, which was the more remarkable from its being besieged at a time when it was neither well fortified, nor had any garrison, or stores of provision or ammunition, and when relief was so long coming from England that many died for want, besides what were killed in defence of the town, in making sallies. But while the people were reduced to the utmost distress by famine, two ships with provisions bravely forced their way to the town, notwithstanding a boom being laid across the river and the fire of the enemy's cannon from several forts.

Colerain lies on the east side of the mouth of the Great Bann, three leagues from Londonderry, and is a neat, handsome, populous, and walled town; and a place of good trade, particularly in that kind of linen called Coleraine; but the river, though of a long course, and bringing with it the water of all the rivers that discharge themselves into the great Lough-neagh, being confined within a narrow channel, pours its waters out with such a furious current, that the tide is hardly strong enough to stem it, so as to promote its navigation: hence it is very difficult for vessels to make their way in; nor can any ships of great burthen go in at all. Besides the linen trade, it has a salmon-fishery, which is very beneficial. This town gives the title of baron to the family of Hanger.

The county of Donegal, or Tyrconnel, is bounded on the east by the counties of Londonderry, Tyrone, and part of Fermanagh; on the south by the bay of Donegal and Fermanagh; and on the west and north by the Atlantic and Northern oceans. It extends sixty-four miles from the south-east to the north-west, and is subdivided into five baronies, in which are contained forty parishes, with about ten thousand eight hundred houses, and it sends twelve members to parliament, two for the county, and two for each of the following towns; St. Johnstown, Donegal, Ballyshannon, Kilbeg, and Lifford.

Ballyshannon is seated on a river that runs out of Lough-Erne into Donegal Bay, where it has a harbour and a tolerable trade. It is pretty well inhabited, considering that this part of the country abounds with bogs and large lakes.

Donegal, from whence the county has its name, stands nine miles from Ballyshannon, at the bottom of a spacious bay which has many good roads and harbours, but no trade; nor is there any thing considerable in the town itself. The harbour is spacious, but the entrance has such dangerous shelves and rocks, that it is not safe to attempt entering without a pilot.

Lough-Swilly, into which runs a river of the same name near Letterkenny, a little market-town, is a salt-water lake that runs about twenty miles south into the country; it is about five miles broad at the mouth, has an island called Inch, and abounds with fish. A thousand sail of ships may ride safe here for twenty miles together. There are many villages and gentlemen's seats

on its banks, and yet it has no trade, there being only a few fishing-boats which resort there to catch herrings and salmon, of which there is a prodigious plenty.

Lough-Dirg is famous for an island, in which is a cell where the popish friars used formerly to make their votaries believe St. Patrick had his purgatory; and that he obtained it from God by his prayers, in order to convince unbelievers of the immortality of the soul and future torments. It was anciently much frequented by people of the Romish church, as well foreigners as natives, who came thither in pilgrimage, to do penance, and perform religious ceremonies, though it was invented some ages after St. Patrick's death. Certain friars resided on the island, who, after having made the pilgrims watch and fast till their minds were prepared to receive any impressions, amused them with stories of the strange

apparitions they should behold there, and shutting them up left them for some hours in the dark; and thus, when let out, their disordered imaginations made them tell strange stories of what they had seen and suffered. The cell was, however, demolished in the year 1497, by the authority of pope Alexander VI; but was afterwards restored, and again visited by pilgrims; but in the latter end of the reign of James I. some gentlemen being sent by the government to search into the affair, found that this pretended entrance into purgatory was only a little cell hewn out of a rock, so low that a tall man could but just stand upright in it, and of such small extent, that it could not contain more than six or eight persons; but when the door was shut, was quite dark: upon which the lords justices banished the friars, demolished their houses, and had the cell laid open.

C H A P. XXXII.

OF ICELAND and GREENLAND.

S E C T. I.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Face of the Country, Minerals, Volcanos, and remarkable hot Springs: its Vegetables and Animals.

ICELAND, which received its name from its excessive coldness, and the great flakes of ice seen near it, is a large island in the Northern ocean, about four hundred and eighty miles distant from the coast of Norway, and four hundred to the northward of Scotland, lying between the eleventh and twenty-seventh degree of west longitude, and between the sixty-third degree forty-five minutes and the sixty-seventh degree of north latitude. It extends four hundred miles in length, and a hundred and fifty in breadth.

This island is seated so far to the north, that, during two months of the summer, the sun never goes entirely below the horizon, one-half remaining above it from ten at night till two in the morning, when it rises entirely; and about the winter solstice, for two months, it never rises wholly above the horizon, one-half of it being only to be seen from ten in the morning till two in the afternoon.

They have always a short spring and autumn in Iceland before and after the summer season. The cold is severe in winter, and the heat very intense in summer, on account of the length of the days, and there being no night to cool the air: but neither of them is insupportable, at least to the inhabitants, or the Norwegians and Danes. The air is also salubrious, and agrees very well with foreigners as well as the natives.

Iceland properly consists of a prodigious range of mountains running from east to west, on the declivities of which, and in the vallies lying between them, the inhabitants live. Several of these high mountains are always covered with ice and snow: but on others, seated near the coast, are plains covered with verdure, several miles in extent, that produce fine grass. Though the country is so mountainous, there are roads passable for horses in every part of the island, and even carriages were formerly used, but they are now laid aside, on account of the trouble attending them; and every year some hundreds of pack horses come over the mountains from the north to the trading places in the south parts of the island, loaded with butter, woollen manufactures, &c. which are bartered for other commodities.

In the rocks of Iceland crystals are sometimes found, many of which represent an object viewed through them double; but these are properly only a species of talc. There are likewise evident signs that the mountains contain iron, copper, and even silver ore, near which are

found two kinds of agate, which will burn like a candle; a species of bitumen, black, shining, and pretty hard; with another sort of black earth, that is still harder, and breaks into thin diaphanous laminæ; this last is not inflammable, but vitrifies in the fire. In one part of the island sulphur is dug out of the ground, but the sulphur trade is now discontinued.

Though this island is seated so far to the north, earthquakes and volcanoes are more known than in many countries in much warmer climates: the former have several times laid the country desolate, particularly in the years 1734, 1752, and 1755, when fiery eruptions broke out of the earth, and produced very fatal consequences. Many of the snowy mountains have also gradually become volcanoes. Of these burning mountains Hecla is the best known, especially to foreigners. It is in the south-east part of the island, not far from the sea. This mountain has frequently sent forth flames and a torrent of burning matter. The inhabitants formerly imagined, that this is the place where the souls of the damned are tormented. Its eruptions have been very frequent, especially in 1693, when they were most dreadful, and occasioned terrible devastations, the ashes being thrown all round the island to the distance of a hundred and eighty English miles; but since that time it is said that Hecla has been free from eruptions. This mountain takes up four hours to ascend from its foot to the summit, and on the north-west side is a vast chasm, reaching from the top almost to the bottom; and it is remarkable, that while flames and ignited matter issued from this chasm, the huge masses of ice and snow, with which the other side was covered, were not melted, though the heat was so intense as to calcine large stones and other substances.

Notwithstanding the eruptions of Hecla have been stopped for a considerable time, others have since broke out. The huge mountain of Crabla in particular began on the seventeenth of May, 1724, to eject, in a terrible manner, smoke, fire, cinders, and stones, which were followed by a fiery stream like fused metal. The lava continued to move slowly on, for about eight or nine miles, as far as the lake of Mynat, into which it discharged itself; but did not cease till the end of September, 1729, when the eruptions of the mountain subsided. They were, however, soon followed by the eruption of three of the adjacent mountains; and it is a common observation among the inhabitants, that when the ice and snow are so accumulated on one of the mountains that formerly ejected fire, as to stop the clefts and chasms, which were the spiracles whence proceeded smoke and flame, a new eruption is not far distant. In 1756 a mountain, named Cotligiau, which had twice before cast forth fire and smoke, began again to flame.

It is also remarkable, that springs naturally warm, and even those that are hot, are frequently found in Iceland, with others that have a mineral taste. About mount Hecla are several small basins of warm water, which sometimes emit a copious steam, though at others this vapour is not so visible. These hot springs are of three sorts; some are a little more than tepid, so that a person may hold his hand in the water without any inconvenience: others are so hot as to rise in small bubbles, like water simmering over the fire; but in other the ebullition is so strong as to force the waters up to a considerable height. The last sort are observed to be either periodical or variable in their ebullitions; particularly in a district named Reyker-harbour, are three hot springs, about thirty fathoms distance from each other, which bubble up alternately; and this ebullition generally happens in each of them about three times in a quarter of an hour. Though these wells lie in a plain, they spring from a hard stony bottom, where two of them eject the water from the interstices between the stones, about an ell in height; but in the bottom of the third is a round aperture, through which, in its turn, it throws the water five or six ells high. After this it subsides about two ells, and one may go down, during that interval, and take a survey of this wonderful spring. Its ebullition has three gradations: during the first, the water rises half way up the cavity; afterwards it fills to the top; and the third time shoots up to the above-mentioned height. When the water is subsiding it absorbs any light substance, as a piece of wood; but at the return of the ebullition ejects even the heavy stones that are thrown into it.

Gyser, a spring in the valley of Hacadel, rises in a hollow rock at the foot of a mountain. Mr. Olave, who saw it in 1746, says the cavity is about twenty fathoms in circumference, and three in depth. There is a small aperture at the bottom, through which the water generally rises till it runs over the basin: then follows a terrible noise like the discharge of small arms, which shakes the very rock. After this noise has been repeated four or five times, the water, which is hot, emits a thick steam, like smoke, is violently agitated, and springs up to the height of sixty fathoms, in such quantities as to form several hot rivulets on every side of the rock. The rising and violent agitation of the water ceases in six or seven minutes, and the cavity, or basin, becomes empty. This astonishing phenomenon happens once a day, and is periodical, returning at a certain hour: but whether the agitations of this spring correspond with the tides in the neighbouring sea, has not been determined.

In several of these hot springs the inhabitants who live near them boil their victuals, only by hanging a pot, in which the flesh is put in cold water, in the water of the spring: they also bathe in the rivulets that run from them, which, by degrees, become luke-warm, or are cooled by their being mixed with rivulets of cold water. The cows that drink of these springs are said to yield an extraordinary quantity of milk; and it is likewise esteemed very wholesome when drank by the human species. The hot spring near Crysevig emits a very strong and fetid sulphureous vapour; and some of these springs are said to be so intensely hot, as to calcine bones.

Salt springs are not known here; however, salt has been found at the foot of the burning mountains; and that salt might be made here by art is unquestionable, from the success of former trials.

There are but few woods in the island, though here and there a small wood is to be seen; but great numbers of large and small trees are driven hither by the sea, especially on the north coast, where they generally lie and rot, the inhabitants having no ships to convey the wood for sale to their countrymen. There are here a great quantity of shrubs, on which grow all sorts of berries, as juniper, blackberries, &c. and these are burnt every year for charcoal, which is used by the natives in their forges. The common fuel of the country is turf, some of which has a very strong sulphureous smell, and in some parts of the island they even burn fish bones.

Very good grass grows not only in the vallies, which border on the lakes and rivers, but also in the hollows

between the mountains, and sometimes on their summits. The finest pastures are in the northern parts of the island, where the grass springs up very fast to a great height. The cattle are generally driven to graze among the mountains, where they find good pasture; but the grass that grows near the habitations of the Icelanders is reserved for winter fodder.

Here are also many salubrious and medicinal herbs, as scurvy-grass, samphire, angelica, which is much used by the inhabitants, and berg-grass, a kind of odoriferous moss that is very nourishing, great quantities of which are laid up by the inhabitants for occasional uses. Hitherto few esculent vegetables have been cultivated in Iceland; but as all kinds of culinary herbs thrive in the gardens at Bessetader, and those of the episcopal palaces, it is probable that, with proper culture, they would also grow in most parts of the island.

The inhabitants are entirely discouraged from pursuing agriculture, as they have not yet been able, in this soil, to bring any corn to maturity; yet some parts of the island are known, by several evident traces, to have been formerly cultivated.

Bread is but little known among the common people, for though a large quantity of meal and bread is annually imported into the harbours of Iceland, the lower class of people can purchase but little or none of it, on account of the price. They, however, make a kind of meal, and bread, of a sort of wild barley, which grows there; and in times of scarcity have recourse to a sea vegetable, called in Latin *alga marina saccharifera*, which is dried before the fire, and sold at half the price of dried fish. The cattle feed on this sea-weed at low water, and prefer it to any other marine vegetables.

Bears are frequently driven on this island with the large flakes of ice from Greenland; but the inhabitants are so vigilant and dexterous in destroying them, that the only species of wild beasts to be found in Iceland are foxes, some of which are brown and others white.

The horses here, as in all other northern countries, are small, but strong and full of mettle, and, except those broke for the saddle, lie in the open air all the year round. In winter they subsist only on what fodder they can scrape from under the ice and snow. Such horses as the owners have no immediate occasion for, are turned out among the mountains; and when wanted they go in quest of them, every one knowing his own horse by certain marks.

Great numbers of sheep are to be seen in Iceland, and where the inhabitants are chiefly employed in grazing, it is not uncommon for a man to be master of a flock of four or five hundred of them. In the winter season they drive their flocks to shelter at night, and in very severe weather also keep them under cover in the day-time. The grazing countries lie chiefly in the northern and eastern parts of the island; for the inhabitants of the southern, being mostly employed in fishing, leave their flocks abroad both in summer and winter. Nature, however, seems to have provided a shelter for them, there being large caves into which they are sure to retire in severe weather. In winter, when the snow is not very deep, and the weather is inclinable to be fair and mild, the sheep are turned out to pick what they can find under the snow: when if they happen to be surprized by its falling in a great quantity, they instantly form themselves into a close compact body, by laying their heads together in the center. In this posture they are quite covered with the snow, and are sometimes so benumbed with cold, as not to be able to help themselves till their owner happening to find them, clear their way out. This is often a work of some days, and frequently the weight of the incumbent snow is so great, that they are crushed down by it, and killed before their masters can come to their relief. When they pass some days under the snow, the sheep, in the extremity of hunger, have been known to eat one another's wool; but this is apt to disorder them very much; on which account, when the inhabitants have any apprehensions of bad weather, they take care to keep their flocks at home.

The wool of their sheep is very coarse; but a somewhat finer sort lies under the other. Those writers are mistaken who observe, that all the sheep in this island have

more

more than two horns: a few of them indeed have five, some have four horns, but they have generally only two. As for goats they have no great number of them. Some of the Iceland cows and oxen have no horns; and in the southern parts they are fed with fish bones, and the water in which fish has been boiled. Here are no hogs. As to domestic animals, there are a sufficient number of dogs, and but very few cats.

The keeping of poultry and all other tame fowl is so expensive, that very few of them are to be seen here: but they have plenty of swans, wild geese, and ducks, among which may be reckoned the eider, the eggs and feathers of which are much valued. There are likewise snipes, woodcocks, and other wild-fowl. At certain times an incredible number of eggs of sea-fowl, of which the inhabitants are very fond, are found along the sea-coast.

The birds of prey are the eagle, hawk, raven, and falcon: some of the last are entirely white; others are partly of that colour, and others brown. In every district are certain falconers, who are alone empowered to catch falcons: these carry them to the king of Denmark's falconry at Bessetader, where the king's falconer, who annually visits that place, picks out the best. The governor of Iceland pays the falconers fifteen rix-dollars for every white falcon, ten for one that is partly white, and seven for every brown falcon that is chosen; besides which the falconers receive a gratuity of five or six rix-dollars when they first bring them in.

The rivers, lakes, and bays, with the other parts of the sea, supply the Icelanders with prodigious quantities of various kinds of fish.

S E C T. II.

Of the Persons, Food, Dress, Employments, Language, Religion, Government, and Trade of the Icelanders; the Divisions of the Country, and Number of Inhabitants.

THE Icelanders are naturally of a robust and vigorous constitution; but are often worn out by the continual fatigues and hardships they undergo at sea in their fisheries; and when about fifty years of age become afflicted with various diseases, especially those of the breast and lungs; whence few of them arrive at an advanced age. In case of sickness they entirely resign themselves to nature and Providence, for there is not one physician or surgeon in the whole island. Indeed a few persons keep medicines by them, with which they are supplied from Denmark; but they are not very well acquainted with their virtues, or the method of administering them.

The usual food of the inhabitants is fresh and dried fish, milk, oat-meal, and flesh; but they chiefly live on dried fish with butter. They eat all their provisions without salt. Their common drink is milk, which, when sweet, they drink by itself; but when it turns sour, mix it with water. They are very fond of beer and spirituous liquors, and the most wealthy among them sometimes purchase red and white French wines.

The Icelanders are wisely contented with what apparel their own country furnishes. The cloth which they wear is called wadmal; besides which they also use a garment of close linen. However, some of the gentry are fond of appearing in cloths and stuffs made in Denmark, though a stuff manufactory has lately been set up at Bessetader. Their fishing-dress is made of untanned leather, which is kept pliable by being rubbed with the liver of fishes.

As they are obliged to buy their timber of the Danish company established here, they build their houses as cheap as possible; so that they are neither very commodious nor handsome.

The Icelanders are chiefly employed in fishing and grazing, and when they are not engaged in either of these, especially in winter, both the men, women, and children knit woollen waistcoats, stockings, gloves, and the like; and also employ themselves in weaving Iceland cloth. Their looms indeed are but very indifferent;

but those made in Denmark now begin to be introduced among them.

The Iceland language is the same with the old Norwegian, though it is not at present quite pure and uncorrupted. They are not wanting in mental endowments, which is evident from the learned men and ingenious artists this island has produced. Several of their authors have written very accurate and elegant dissertations relating to the northern history. They even began to cultivate the study of letters so early as the year 1130.

The only religion tolerated in Iceland is the Lutheran. The churches of the east, south, and west quarters are under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Skaalholt, and those of the north quarter are subject to the bishop of Hoolum. The bishops of Iceland cultivate the estates annexed to their respective sees, and their annual produce is about two thousand rix-dollars; but out of these revenues a stated sum is appropriated to the rectors and assistants of the school, and the ministers of the cathedral: besides this, a certain number of scholars must be lodged and clothed, and also the bishop's palace, &c. must be kept in good repair out of the same revenues; and after these deductions the remainder is the bishop's income. Some of the preachers are liberally provided for; others but indifferently; and many of them very scantily: among the latter not a few of them are obliged to be satisfied with the poor pittance of four rix-dollars, which amounts to about eighteen shillings a year.

The secular government of this island under the king of Denmark, is lodged in the general governor of Iceland and Faroe, who usually resides at Copenhagen, and deposes under him a prefect, who lives in the king's palace at Bessetader. Here is also a collector, who levies all the king's revenues in the island, and passes his accounts at the treasury.

The revenues of Iceland arise, First, from the farms of the ports or harbours, which annually amount to above sixteen thousand rix-dollars. Secondly, from the taxes and tithes, which according to the custom of the country are accounted for in fishes, and farmed to private persons. Thirdly, from the farmers of the sequestered convents and crown lands. Fourthly, from the king's boats; and, fifthly, from the hundred and thirty-eight ells and a half, and ninety-two pair of stockings, delivered in annually by every district, called a fyller, and likewise one hundred and seventy-two pounds of fish payable by some fyllers. There are eighteen of these fyllers or districts in Iceland.

With respect to the distribution of justice, here are two superior judges, one of whom presides over the south and east quarters, and the other over the north and west; each of these has usually under him a deputy or inferior judge. There are also twenty-one fyller-men, who are a kind of inferior officers, who, besides levying the king's revenue farmed in their respective fyllers, hold several courts of judicature to which belong certain districts; but an appeal lies from these to a provincial court. Every superior judge determines the causes belonging to his district, and has eight assistants. The supreme court on the island is under the prefect, assisted by twelve superior judges. But if the cause amount to a certain sum, an appeal lies from this court to the supreme court at Copenhagen.

For the regulation of ecclesiastical affairs, here is a provost court consisting of the provost and two assistants. The next is a consistory, which, as well as the others, is held at Oxera, for the diocese of Skaalholt, to which belongs one hundred and sixty-three parishes. In this consistory the prefect, as the representative of the governor, sits as president; the provost and ministers, and even the bishop himself, being only assistants. In the diocese of Hoolum, which contains one hundred and forty parishes, a consistory is held in autumn at a seat called Flige Myre, where the prefect deposes another to represent him as president. From the consistories an appeal lies to the supreme court at Copenhagen.

The capital punishments inflicted on male criminals in Iceland is beheading with an ax, and hanging to a wooden beam fixed in the cliff of a rock; but females who have forfeited their life are put in a sack and then drowned.

With respect to the commerce of Iceland it must be observed, that the company that farms it was established in 1733 by a royal charter, and stiled The Iceland Company of Copenhagen. This company sends twenty-three ships every year, with their factors and sub-factors, who visit all the ports on the island. These ports and harbours are divided into flesh and fish ports; the former are but eight in number, and lie on the north and east coasts of the island; but the latter are fourteen, and these lie on the south-west side. There are also some ports from which both flesh and fish are exported. The natives either barter their commodities for those of Denmark, or receive ready money from them in Danish crowns and dollars, in proportion to the land tax or rate settled by the king's ordinance. The cattle are delivered to the factors at the flesh ports about the end of August, and in the fish ports they purchase all the sound dried cod, ling, and train oil, according to a fixed rate.

Accounts are kept here, and all calculations made by fishes; a fish, which is properly two pounds of fish, being equal to a lub-schelling, and consequently forty-eight fishes are equal to a specie dollar worth about four shillings and sixpence sterling. Danish marks at eight lub-schellings are sometimes current here, and also, though seldom, some lub-schelling pieces. A quarter of a specie dollar, equal to twelve fishes, is the smallest piece of money current in Iceland; so that any balance under this not being payable in money, is made up in fish and tobacco.

The exports from Iceland chiefly consist in dried fish, salted mutton, a good deal of beef, butter, and train oil; a great quantity of tallow, coarse and fine jackets of Iceland woollen cloth, woollen stockings and gloves, red wool, sheep-skins and lamb-skins, fox tails of several colours, feathers, and quills. In 1751 the late king Frederick V. in order to enable the Icelanders to improve their manufactures, and to promote trade and commerce, bestowed on them a bounty of ten thousand rix-dollars, and lent them five thousand more. The imports to Iceland are chiefly iron horse-shoes, timber, meal, bread, wine, brandy, tobacco, coarse linen, a few silk stuffs, and domestic utensils.

Iceland, according to the general division, consists of four quarters, which derive their names from the four cardinal points towards which they lie: this division is caused by so many branches of mountains that separate the quarters from each other. Hence the middle of the island is not inhabited, the people living only in these valleys, which are between twenty and thirty miles broad, and are properly the fyslles, just mentioned, to which other small valleys among the mountains, where good pasture are found, likewise belong. From these mountains several brooks and rivers, some of which are very considerable, run into the valleys, and afford excellent fish.

The number of the inhabitants of Iceland, according to an authentic computation, amounts to about fifty thousand. Yet there are no towns of any consequence, though there are a number of trading places at each harbour. The villages are composed of thirty, or forty, and sometimes fifty small dwellings, placed at a distance from each other.

SECT. III.

Of GROENLAND, or GREENLAND.

Its Situation, Climate, Vegetables, Animals; particularly of the Whale, Fin-fish, Sea-Unicorn, Sword fish, the Morse, and Seal.

IT is not yet determined to which part of the earth Greenland properly belongs; yet as it extends as far to the east as the last mentioned island, and is even supposed to join Spitzberg, which is seated in thirty degrees east longitude, it can no where be more properly placed than here. Its full extent and dimensions are entirely unknown. The most southerly part lies in the fifty-ninth degree fifty minutes north latitude, from whence the coast stretches to the north west beyond the seventy-

eight degree of north latitude, while the eastern coast reaches, according to the Danish writers, to the eighty-second. The west coast was first discovered in 1585 by Mr. John Davis, an Englishman, from whom the streights that run between the continent of North America and Greenland are called by his name.

On the eastern and southern coast vast flakes of ice, which may properly be called islands, are seen, and these are driven from Spitzberg towards the south by a very strong current.

The east side of Greenland, which is opposite to Iceland, is at present inaccessible, on account of the mountains of ice, which rise to an astonishing height, with which the sea is covered: this part is therefore unknown; but sailing between these and Iceland, several adventurers have safely arrived there; and this course the Dutch, in particular, have actually steered.

The west side of Greenland towards Davis's Streights is, however, better known. On that side the coast is defended by rocks and several large and small islands. It has also wide and deep bays, which run a great way into the land, some of which are the mouths of large rivers, and others form good roads and harbours. The main-land consists of little more than confused heaps of rocks, the summits of which are always covered with ice and snow; as are also some of the valleys.

The climate as far as the Danish colonies have penetrated is not insupportable; but the weather is very changeable and unsettled. During the summer season, which lasts from the end of May to the middle of September, the sun shines bright and very warm, and on the main-land, above which no cloud can be seen, the weather is very pleasant and always clear: but a cold damp fog that intercepts the sun-beams continually hovers over the islands, except in the month of August, which is the only time in the whole year when the vapours are dissolved. The rains that fall here are neither frequent nor heavy. In this climate it seldom thunders, and storms, which are very rare, are of no long continuance; but the most violent gusts of wind come from the south. The winters, as far as the sixty-fourth degree of latitude, are generally reckoned by the Danes and Norwegians pretty temperate, to which the calm and clear weather may greatly contribute. But when a north-east wind blows, which comes from mountains covered with ice and snow, it is extremely severe; the air being thick and filled with clouds of icy particles, which cause a most piercing frost. The snow falls in less quantities in that part of Greenland known to the Danes, than it does in Norway; for in the former, especially near the rivers in the inland parts, the snow does not exceed half an ell in depth.

This account of the weather is true only of the southern parts of this country subject to the Danes; for to the northward of the sixty-eighth degree of latitude, the cold is in winter so excessive, that the most spirituous liquors, as French brandy, will freeze near the fire-side. As the weather is in this climate very calm, the ice in the bays between the islands is not disturbed till the end of August; and even in the creeks it does not begin to thaw till the close of May, when it is gradually wathed away by the agitation of the waves. From June to August the sun is continually above the horizon, and consequently during that term they have no night; but in winter the sun is invisible to the Greenlanders, and their day is nothing more than the morning and evening twilight, which do not last above two hours.

In the valleys and plains the soil consists of moor and turf-land, and in some few spots, particularly in the south parts, in about sixty-one degrees of latitude, grow fine grass, with yellow flowers, the roots of which smell in the spring like roses, angelica, scurvy-grass, wild rosemary, and some good esculent herbs. Indeed that part of the county which lies between the sixtieth and sixty-fourth degree of latitude has the best soil; so that in some places cabbages and turneps thrive very well, and the latter are remarkably sweet. There is not a tree of any kind to be seen in the country, except on the sides of a bay, sixty Norway miles to the south of Hope-colony, where a little coppice of birch trees grow: but their

trunks

trunks are no thicker than a man's leg. Some shrubs are dispersed here and there; as small juniper, gooseberry and bilberry bushes, brambles, &c.

No trial has yet been made of what minerals are contained in the Greenland mountains. There are, however, rocks of asbestos, from which considerable quantities have been hewn. Some mountains also consist of an imperfect kind of variegated marble, of which the inhabitants make kettles and other utensils.

On the main land are found some hares; but these, which are very small, are grey in summer, and perfectly white in winter. Here is also a species of rein-deer; but they are very different from those of Lapland. The foxes are white, brown, and grey; but are small. White bears are sometimes found here, and towards the north are very numerous; these differ from the bears of other countries, their heads being long like that of a wolf, which they much resemble in form; but the Greenlanders are very daring and active in destroying them.

The only domestic animals found here are dogs that never bark, but snarl and howl: they are timorous and unfit for the chase; yet if not tamed when young, become wild and very mischievous. The Greenlanders kill and eat these dogs, and also often use them to draw their sledges, yoking four, six, and sometimes eight or ten to a sledge, loaden with five or six of the largest seals, with the master sitting upon them, who drives as fast with them as we can do with good horses, for they often travel sixty miles in a winter day upon the ice. Neither snakes nor any other venomous creatures can live in this climate; nor are they plagued with beetles, rats, mice, or the like.

The land-fowl in this country are the ryper, a sort of large parrot, which is grey in summer and white in winter; but builds his nest very high in the cliffs of the rocks; with eagles, falcons, large speckled owls, ravens, different sorts of sparrows, and, in short, all the kinds of land and sea-fowl known in Norway are seen here in amazing numbers. Among the insects the mosquitoes, or gnats, swarm in this country, and are extremely troublesome; but they have neither ants nor bees.

The fresh water in Greenland has been highly recommended for its salubrity and palatableness. The rivers afford plenty of trout, cray-fish, and salmon; and the sea yields an inexhaustible variety of all kinds of fish, except oysters; but it abounds with excellent muscles, and very large shrimps, or prawns. The smaller species of fish are dried here for winter store, especially the lodden, a sort of small herring. Here are also great plenty of cod, haddock, thornbacks, and the holybutt, by some called the turbot of the North, which is so big that it will fill a large cask.

The Greenland sea, and other parts of the Northern ocean that lie under the north pole, contain a very great number of the largest species of fishes, which there swim in vast shoals. In these regions the great Creator has dealt out their food with a liberal hand, and of all climates this is the best adapted to their hot constitutions and enormous bodies, which are, as it were, enclosed in fat. This species of fish differ from all other kinds in many particulars; for in their internal parts they resemble land animals. They breathe with lungs, and consequently cannot remain long under water. They also copulate like quadrupedes, bring forth their young alive, and suckle them with their milk. The fins of other fish consist of bones, or cartilages, fastened together by thin membranes running between them; but the whale has articular bones, like the fingers of a human hand, with their proper ligaments covered with a thick skin like that of the other parts of its body. By means of this mechanism the whale can move and turn about with greater ease than he could with fins of the common form, and secure himself from falling precipitately upon the rocks when he dives to the bottom of the sea; for which end he lays his thick tail horizontally on the surface of the water, which is of great service to him in this motion.

The whales are of several kinds, and may be divided into such as have apertures in the head, and such as have nostrils for respiration. Some of the former have two

holes or apertures; as the whale properly so called, the fin-fish, &c. others have only one, as the cachellotte, or spermaceti whale: but those that respire through the nostrils are seldom to be met with. This species may also be divided into those that have plain, and those that have prominent backs.

The Greenland whale with a flat back is thick and unwieldy, its head taking up one-third part of its bulk. These are from sixty to seventy feet in length, the fins on their sides from five to eight feet, and the tail, which is in a horizontal position, or bent a little upwards on both sides, is from three to four fathoms broad. When the whale is in danger, he turns upon his side and brandishes his tail, which it is dangerous to approach: the tail also serves him for an oar, with which he rows himself forward with surprising swiftness. The skin of the back is black and smooth, but in some places variegated or marbled. Next to the skin, which is not thicker than strong writing-paper, or thin parchment, is the rind, which is near an inch thick; and between this and the flesh lies the fat, to the thickness of nine, and sometimes twelve inches. Under the fat is the flesh, which is dry and very red. In its upper jaw on both sides are the spicula, or whale-bone, which serves him for teeth; and the largest of these, which are placed in the middle, are seven or eight feet in length, and sometimes more. On each side are generally two hundred and fifty of these spicula; so that they amount in all to five hundred. The tongue is very fat, and so large that it fills several casks. The eyes of the whale, which are no bigger than those of an ox, are in the hind part of the head, where it is broadest, and are defended by eye-lids and eye-brows. This fish is very quick of hearing, though it has no external ears, and has only a black spot under the upper skin behind the eye, and under that spot a narrow duct, which seems to convey the sound to the tympanum, or drum. They generally bring forth only one at a birth, though they have sometimes two, and their milk is like that of a cow. Their usual food is a small, black, round insect, of about the size of a horse-bean, which abound in these seas, and of which the whale sucks in prodigious swarms with his vast mouth, and afterwards grinds them with his spicula. The nord-caper, so called from the vast number of them seen about the North Cape in Norway, is much slenderer and smaller.

The fin-fish equals the whale in length, but not in thickness, and has a fin on his back, from whence he receives his name. He throws water higher than a whale of his size; has brown lips, which are twisted like a rope; and his body in colour much resembles a tench. He is extremely nimble, as well as strong.

The narval, or sea-unicorn, is chiefly remarkable for its long horn, which resembles ivory, but is generally more solid and ponderous. This fish is smooth like an eel, its colour white, sprinkled with black spots, and its eyes small. It has two fleshy fins, and a semi-circular hole on the top of its head, from whence it spouts water, like a whale. The horn, from which it receives its name, grows straight forwards from the middle of its upper jaw, is curiously wreathed, and terminates in a point. With this it attacks the largest whale, and can strike with such violence as to pierce the side of a ship. The horn of this fish has a place in the cabinets of the curious, where it has been shewn for that of the unicorn.

The sword-fish, so called from their sharp pointed upper jaw, which resembles a sword, pursues the whale and fin-fish with great eagerness. They are of a slender form, of various sizes, from three to twenty feet in length, and their eyes stand far out of their head. A few of them will dispatch a large whale, and when they have killed him they feed chiefly on his tongue.

Among the amphibious animals are the morse and the seal. The morse is as large as an ox, with four feet, a thick round head, and a short neck, in which lies his principal strength. He has red eyes, small ears, and large nostrils, from whence he spouts water. His skin is very thick, and covered with hair, and from his upper jaw proceed two long teeth, as white as snow, and more esteemed than ivory, as they keep their colour better.

This

This creature is very bold, making towards the boat as soon as attacked, and endeavouring to overset it.

The seals are of the size of a large dog, and are mostly black, but some grey, with very fine smooth hairy skins. The old ones make a noise like the howling of dogs, and the young ones like the bleating of lambs. Their head and body are shaped much like those of a dog, whence they are by some called sea-dogs. These are the most serviceable of all animals to the Greenlanders, for their flesh serves them for food, and the skin for clothing and for making their boats: of its entrails and membranes they also make sails and windows; its ligaments serve them for thread and cords; and of the bones they make all kinds of domestic utensils and implements of hunting.

SECT. IV.

Of the Persons, Language, Dress, Houses, Furniture, and Boats of the Greenlanders; their Method of catching Whales, Seals, and Salmon; their Manners, Customs, Religion and Trade.

THE Greenlanders of both sexes are generally short, but fat, plump, and well proportioned. Their faces are something flat, their hair black and lank, and their complexion of a brownish red. They are strangers to the small-pox, and are seldom afflicted with epidemical diseases; but the scurvy is the reigning distemper, and on this occasion their common remedy is scurvy-grass and other simples. They have neither surgeon nor physician among them; but readily rely on certain impostors who pretend to foretel future events, and to be skilled in physic. They have some instances among them of longevity, and these perhaps would be more frequent did not their manner of life expose them to numberless dangers.

Their language has something very singular in it, and is difficult to be learned, yet it is said to have many elegant phrases. Mr. Egede has published a dictionary of it, and for the instruction of the Greenlanders, the four Gospels, with several small tracts, have been translated into the Greenland tongue, and printed at Copenhagen. The Greenland dialect is mostly the same throughout the whole country known to the Danes, except some little difference in the pronunciation. The women have also a particular manner of pronouncing their words, which generally terminate in an *n*.

Their clothing is made of the skins of their deer, the dog-fish, and of certain birds, sewed together with the small guts of the dog-fish. There is very little difference between the dress of the two sexes.

The men's dress consists of a coat or jacket, with a cap or hood sewed to it, that covers the head and shoulders. This coat reaches down to the knees. Their breeches are very small, and fit close; they wear no linen, and the hair of the skins the coat is made of, is turned inward, to keep them warm. Over this coat they put a large frock made of seal-skins, dressed and tanned without the hair, in such a manner as to keep out the water. Between the leathern frock and the under coat they wear a linen shirt, or for want of linen, one made of seals guts, which also helps to keep out the water from the under coat. Those seated near the ports frequented by the Danes and Dutch, have shirts of striped linen, with coats and breeches made of red and blue stuffs, which they buy of the Danish or Dutch merchants, but after their own fashion, and these they wear upon extraordinary occasions. They formerly wore stockings made of rein-deer or seal-skins; but now they have worsted stockings of different colours, as white, blue, and red, which they buy of the Danes: their shoes and boots are made of seal-skins well dressed or tanned.

The women's coats are higher on the shoulders, and wider than the men's, with higher and larger hoods. The married women who have children have much larger coats than the rest, on account of their carrying their children in them upon their backs, for these are their only swaddling cloaths and cradle. They wear drawers, which reach to the middle of their thigh, and over them

breeches. The drawers they keep on day and night; but the breeches, which come down to the knee, they only wear when they go abroad in winter, and as soon as they come home pull them off. Next to their body they wear a waistcoat made of a young fawn's skin, with the hairy side inward. The coat, or upper garment, is sometimes made of fine coloured swan-skins trimmed and edged with white, neatly wrought in the seams and about the edges, which look very well. Their shoes and boots, with little difference, are like those of the men.

Their hair, which is very long and thick, is braided, and tied up in a knot, which becomes them; they commonly go bare-headed, both without and within doors; and in these southern parts seldom wear their hoods except it rains or snows. Their chief finery consists in wearing glass beads of several colours, corals about their neck and arms, and pendants in their ears; some of them also wear bracelets of black skin set with pearls, with which they adorn their cloaths and even their shoes. The Greenland women have likewise another more extraordinary kind of embellishment: they make black streaks between their eyes, on their forehead, upon the chin, arms and hands, by passing under the skin a needle and thread made black. Hideous as this renders them in the eyes of strangers, they think it extremely ornamental, and say, that those who do not thus adorn their faces, will have their heads turned into train oil tubs, that shall be placed under the lamps that burn in the land of souls.

They have two sorts of habitations, one of which serves for the winter, and the other for the summer season. The winter dwellings are the largest. These are dug deep in the earth, and raised a little above the surface of the ground with stone and turf. In this hut the windows are on one side made of seals-guts dressed and sewed together, or the maws of holy-butts, which are white and transparent. On the other side the beds are placed, which consist of benches made with boards, raised half a yard from the ground. Their bedding consists of the skins of seals and rein-deer. On the hearth is a great lamp in the form of a half moon, and over it are hung their kettles formed of a kind of marble, or, where they have the advantages of trade, of brass or copper, in which they boil their provisions. The entrance is dug narrow and winding under ground, and the door so very low, that they must creep on their hands and feet to get in, which is so contrived in order to keep out the cold. The inside is lined with seal-skins. Some of these houses are so large as to afford lodging for seven or eight families. Upon the benches where their beds are placed, is the seat of the women, who employ their time in sewing and making up cloaths, while the men belonging to the family, or strangers, sit on the opposite side under the windows, upon benches placed there for that purpose. It is observable, that though in one of these houses there are ten or twenty lamps of train oil kept constantly burning, their smoke is not perceived to fill the room; which is probably owing to the care they take to prevent it. Dry moss rubbed very small is laid on one side of the lamp, which being lighted, burns softly, and if not laid on too thick does not cause any smoke. This fire gives such a heat that it not only serves to boil their victuals, but also heats their rooms to that degree, that they are as hot as a bagnio; however, to those who are not used to this method, the smell of the house is very disagreeable, as well from the number of burning lamps, all supplied with train oil, as from various sorts of raw meat, fish, and fat, heaped up in these habitations; but especially their urine tubs smell insufferably.

They betake themselves to these winter retreats in October, and continue in them till the beginning of May. All the warm part of the year they lodge in tents, which are their summer habitations. These are made of poles set in a circular form, bending to a point at the top, in the form of a sugar-loaf, fenced by a double cover, the innermost of which is of the skins of seals or rein-deer, with the hairy side inward; and the outermost of the same skins, but without hair, and dressed with fat, that they may not be penetrated by the rain. In these tents they have their beds, lamps to dress meat, and a curtain
made

made of the guts of seals sewed together, through which they receive the day-light, instead of windows. Every master of a family has one of these tents.

They usually eat when they are hungry, but their chief meal is at night: their common food is the flesh of rein-deer and hares; all kinds of land and water fowl; seals; several sorts of fresh water and sea-fish; and even some parts of the whale. Their manner of dressing and eating of their victuals is indeed extremely disgusting. They are said to prefer the blood of the seal to any other drink; but they usually quench their thirst with water, yet can drink a great deal of brandy, without being intoxicated.

In their marriages the chief qualifications required in the bride are skill in domestic affairs, and especially in cutting out and sewing their garments. On the other hand, nothing recommends a suitor more than boldness, activity, and success, in fishing and hunting. But at the marriage festivities the bride puts on a shew of gravity, and a melancholy air. Here relations never intermarry, even to the third or fourth degree of consanguinity. They have a respectful idea of marriage, and in general every Greenlander has but one wife. They are fond of their children, even to a culpable excess; and, instead of moderate correction, or checking them for their faults, let them do whatever they please.

The men are chiefly employed in hunting and fishing, for which they have very curious tackle. The boats in which the men row out to sea are about six yards long, and only three quarters of an ell broad in the middle, ending in a very sharp point at both extremities. They are made of very thin narrow boards fastened together with whale-bone, and covered with seal-skins. Only one man goes out in these boats, the top of which is covered with skin, with only an opening in the middle, which, when the man has entered, is fastened close round his waist; so that no water can enter the boat; and thus equipped he will row sixty or seventy miles a day, though he has but one oar, which is six or seven feet long, and flat at both ends. These boats are easily upset, which they look upon as no great damage if the owner escapes with his life. The larger sorts of boats are used chiefly by women. They have also a kind of open barges, which are likewise pointed at both ends; but are not very deep: these are covered with seal-skins, and are high at the extremities. They make use of them in conveying their effects in their emigrations, or when they embark for the whale-fishery, and in coasting from one part to another.

The Greenlanders are more frequently employed at sea than on shore. When they go to catch whales they put on their best apparel, fancying that if they were not neatly dressed, the whale would shun them. Upon these occasions about fifty persons, men and women, set out together in one of the large boats. When they have found the whale they strike him with their harpoons, to which are fastened lines or straps two or three fathoms long, made of seal-skins; at the end of which they tie a bag of a whole seal-skin filled with air like a bladder, that the whale, when he finds himself wounded and flies away with the harpoon sticking in his body, may be the sooner tired and easily found, the air-bag hindering him from keeping long under water. When he loses strength they attack him with spears and lances till he is killed, and then put on their coats made of dressed seal-skin, with boots, gloves, and caps, laced so tight together that no water can penetrate them. In this garb they leap into the sea, and begin to slice off the fat all round the body, and are sometimes so daring as to get upon the whale's back, while he is yet alive, in order to make the quicker dispatch in killing him, and cutting away the fat.

They use much the same method in killing the seals, only the harpoon is less, to which is fastened a line of seal-skin, six or seven fathoms long, and at the end of it a bag of seal-skin filled with air, to keep the seal when wounded from escaping by diving: but in the northern parts, where the sea is frozen, they use other methods in catching of seals. They first look out for the holes, which the seals themselves make with their claws, of about the bigness of a halfpenny, that they may fetch

their breath. On their finding one of these holes, they seat themselves near it; and as soon as they perceive the seal put his snout to it for air, immediately strike him with a small harpoon, which they have ready in their hand; to which is fastened a strap of a fathom long, which they hold in the other hand. After he is struck and cannot escape, they cut the hole large enough to get him up through it; and as soon as they have got his head above the ice, kill him, and then lift him out.

They have also another way of catching seals: they make a great hole in the ice; or, in spring, find holes made by the seals themselves, through which they get upon the ice, in order to lie and bask themselves in the sun. Near these holes they place a low bench, upon which they lie down on their belly, having first made a small hole near the large one, through which they softly let down a pole headed with a harpoon, a strap being fastened to it, which one holds in his hand, while another, lying upon the bench with his face downwards, watches the coming of the seal; which when he perceives, he cries *Ke*, upon which he who holds the pole strikes the seal.

They have another method in the spring when the seals lie upon the ice, near holes which themselves make to get up and down; the Greenlanders, disguised in seal-skins, with a long pole in their hands, move their heads forwards and backwards, and snort like a seal, till they come so near him, that they reach him with a pole and strike him.

As their fishing is the principal concern of these people, we are from thence enabled to judge of their characters and capacities. This is of the utmost importance to them, since on their ability in hunting and fishing depends their whole subsistence. In fishing they make use of hooks of iron or bones, their lines are made of whale-bone cut very small and thin, and with this tackle they catch abundance of fish. Their way of fishing for small salmon, or sea-trout, is as follows: at low water they build small enclosures of stone, near a river's mouth, or any other place where the salmon comes: when the tide comes in, the salmon, which enter the river, passes at high water over the enclosure, and remains in the river till the water falls again, when they endeavour to return to the sea; but the fishermen waylay them at the enclosure, and stop their passage till the time of low ebb, when the salmon are left on dry land, and may be caught with the hand: if they are left in holes, they take them with a pole headed with two sharp hooked bones, or iron hooks.

The Greenlanders are strangers to trades, arts, and sciences. They have no traffic one among another, and their commerce with foreigners is very inconsiderable. They neither use nor have any knowledge of money; but fix a certain value on iron.

When the Greenlanders meet together they express their mirth by drumming, singing, and dancing. They are accustomed from their very childhood to an unbounded liberty, all of them being on a level. They have indeed little regard to the forms of ceremony and decorum which in other places obtain the name of politeness; yet are free, open, and cheerful in conversation, nothing pleasing them better than merry jests and raillery. They live very sociably, and repose great confidence in each other. Amorous intrigues of an unlawful kind are seldom or never heard of among them; and as they abstain from theft, rapine, and violence, among themselves, they are never known upon any pretence to make war on their neighbours. They think themselves greatly superior to the Danes, and make no scruple to pilfer any thing from them, when it can be done with safety; but it is probable they have little idea of property; and as they behave with such integrity to each other, it is natural to suppose that they have learned this pilfering of the Dutch and Danish seamen. They exercise great hospitality, and indeed have most things in common; so that if there be any among them who cannot work, or get his livelihood, they do not let him starve, but admit him freely to their table. They are remarkable for their good-nature and inoffensive behaviour: hatred and envy, strife and rage, are rarely heard of among them. They have as great an abhor-

rence

rence of stealing from each other, as any nation upon earth, and therefore keep nothing under lock and key; but leave all so free that every body may come at it without any fear of losing it.

They are, however, charged with having no idea of a God, and some authors have said that their language has not any expression to denote a Supreme Being; though they themselves acknowledge, that they are convinced of the immortality of the soul, and believe that as soon as a person dies he goes to the land of spirits, and there enjoys the felicity of hunting from age to age; while the body remains behind and moulders in the dust.

They maintain that there is a spirit which they call *Torngarfuk*, to whom they ascribe a supernatural power, though not the creation of the world. The *Angakuts*, or prophets, form very whimsical ideas of this being, some representing him as without form or shape, others giving him that of a bear, and others pretending that he has a large body and but one arm. They assign him his abode in the lower regions of the earth, where they tell you is constantly fine sun-shine weather, good water, deer, and fowls in abundance. They likewise maintain that a spirit resides in the air, whom they name the *Moderator*, or *Restraint*; for these *Angakuts* pretend, by his order, to command the people to abstain from certain things, as preservatives from evil and danger. They also believe that there are spirits who govern the elements.

Their notions of the heavenly bodies are also very whimsical; they say the moon was once a young man, and the sun a young woman his sister, with whom he was familiar in the dark; but that she being desirous to find out her lover, rubbed her hands with foot, with which she marked his white bear-skin coat, and hence they say came the spots in the moon. The sun flying from his embraces, ascended the air, whither the moon followed her, and still continues to pursue, without being able to overtake her; but this is probably only a fiction of their poets, like those of Ovid in his *Metamorphoses*, who also represents the loves of *Diana* and *Endymion*.

They do not compute or measure their time by weeks or years, but only by months, beginning their computation from the sun's first rising above their horizon in the winter, from whence they tell the moons, in order to know exactly the season in which every sort of fish, sea-animals, or birds, seek the land, that by this knowledge

they may regulate their different employments. According to their astronomical system, the heavens turn around the point of a huge rock.

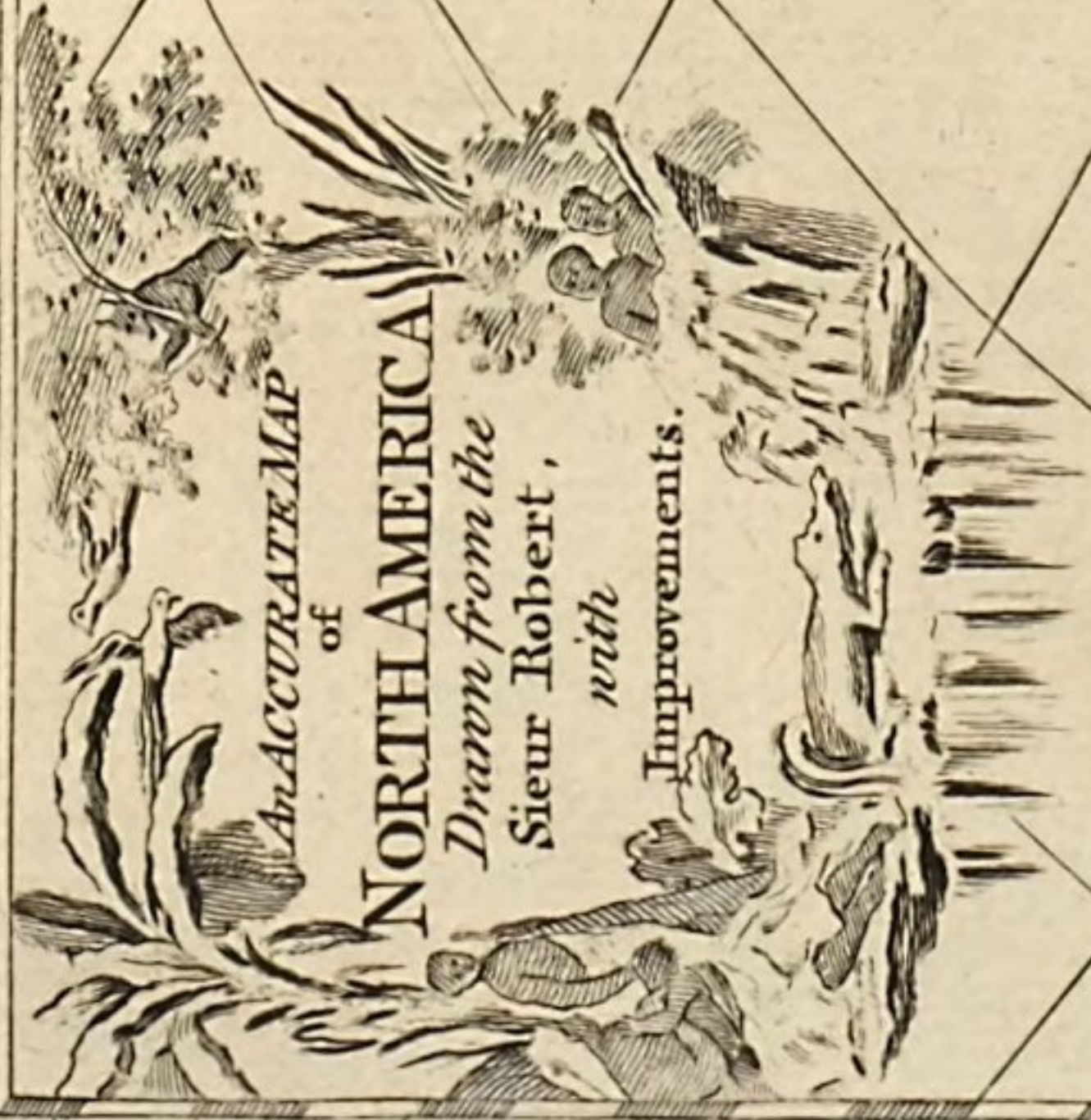
What seems most extraordinary in these people, thus seated in frozen regions, which might be supposed to damp the genius and extinguish the fire of imagination, is their talent for poetry, in which they take extreme delight. The poems they compose are a kind of lyric odes, the harmony of which depends both upon rhyme and quantity, there being a visible regularity in the number of syllables of which their verses are composed, and a plain regard to cadence even in their manner of reading them. They use this sort of poetry, which, all things considered, is as far from being rude, as it is from being exact, to express all their passions, such as love, joy, grief, but more especially anger; for when two people quarrel in this country, it is said they challenge each other, not to fight, for that they never do but in jest, or by way of diversion, but to contend in verse; and he who first wants words to express himself in this poetical duel, is held to be conquered, and so the controversy ends without either blood or law-suit.

Mr. Egede, who was sent to Greenland by the Danish Society for propagating the Gospel, lived among this people fifteen years, which he spent with the most indefatigable zeal and laborious application, by which means he made a great number of converts. He returned to Copenhagen in 1736, and by his solicitation a seminary was founded in that city for educating able missionaries and catechists to be sent to Greenland. The Mission-college also sends young lads to Greenland to learn the language, and to be instructed by the missionaries there, in order to qualify them for that station.

The Greenland trade is at present carried on by the Copenhagen company, who send thither three or four ships every year, and the Dutch are prohibited from coming within several miles of their colonies. The commodities Greenland affords for commerce are whale-blubber, whale-bone, sea-unicorns horns, the skins of rein-deer, bears, seals, and fox-skins, which they barter for the following merchandizes; shirts made of white, blue, red, and striped linen, coarse woollen cloth; knives, saws, needles, large fishing-hooks, and other hard-ware; looking-glasses, rafts, poles, deal boards, chests, kettles of copper, brass, and tin, with other articles.

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BOOK IV.

Of AMERICA in general.

WE are now entering upon a country of amazing extent, unknown to the ancients : a country discovered so lately as the year 1491, by the judgment, the vigilance, the perseverance, and maritime skill of the great Columbus, a Genoese ; who, by this discovery, extended geographical knowledge, perfected navigation, opened new sources of commerce, and gave a new face even to the affairs of Europe.

America, the fourth grand division of the earth, received its name from Americus Vespucius, a Florentine, who was far from deserving that honour, to which he had no other claim than a few inconsiderable discoveries, after Columbus had led the way, and his drawing a map of the country ; and therefore if it was proper for it to receive the name of any European, it might with more justice have been called Columbia, from the great man who made it known to the Europeans.

This New World, as it is emphatically called, extends from the frozen regions of the North, where its limits are secured from the observation of the curious by the shortness of the summers and barriers of ice, through an extent of country in which successively pass all the climates to be found in the other regions of the earth ; till you come on the south to the snowy rocks of Terra del Fuego. Thus the continent of America extends from about the eightieth degree north to the fifty-sixth degree south latitude, and, where its breadth is known, from the thirty-fifth to the hundred and twenty-fifth degree of west longitude from London, without including the islands ; stretching between eight and nine thousand miles in length : but in its greatest breadth, where certainly known, three thousand six hundred and ninety ; though in the middle it is not above sixty or seventy miles over.

It is bounded on the north by the seas about the north pole ; on the east by Davis's Straights, which separates it from Greenland, and by the great Atlantic ocean, which divides it from Europe and Africa ; on the south by the vast Southern ocean ; and on the west by the Pacific ocean, which divides it from New Guinea, probably another very extensive continent, and from China, Japan, and the east part of Siberia.

It is very remarkable that the climates of North America are many degrees colder than any of the countries in the same latitude in Europe : thus New Britain, which is nearly in the same latitude with Great Britain, is insufferably cold to an European : the greatest part of the frozen country of Newfoundland, the bay of St. Laurence, and Cape Breton, lie opposite the coast of France :

Nova Scotia and New England are in the same latitude as the Bay of Biscay : New York and Pennsylvania lie opposite to Spain and Portugal. Hence the coldest winds of North America blow from the north and the west, as they do here from the north and the east.

This vast continent is divided almost in two by an isthmus about fifteen hundred miles in length, and in one place so narrow as to be, as hath been already intimated, only about sixty miles over ; but being mountainous, it would be impossible perhaps to open a communication there with the Pacific ocean, which lies on the other side of it. All the continent to the north of this isthmus, together with the isthmus itself, is stiled North America ; and all to the south of it, including that even on this side the equator, is stiled South America.

North America is far from being mountainous, and chiefly consists of gentle ascents and level plains ; the principal hills in this extensive tract are called the Appalachian or Aligany mountains, which extend on the back of our southern colonies. But in South America is the immensely long and lofty chain called the Cordillera of the Andes, which in height and length exceed any chain of mountains in the other three parts of the earth ; for beginning near the isthmus of Darien, they extend to the straits of Magellan, cutting the whole southern part of America into two, and running a length of four thousand three hundred miles.

America is also extremely well watered by rivers, not only for the support of animal life, and all the advantages of fertility, but for the convenience of trade, and the intercourse of the distant inhabitants by water. In North America the great river Mississippi, rising from unknown sources, runs above two thousand miles chiefly from north to south, receiving in its course the Ohio, the Ouabache, and other large rivers, scarcely inferior to the Rhine or the Danube, navigable almost to their sources, and laying open the inmost recesses of this continent. Near the heads of these are extensive lakes of fresh water, which have a communication with each other, and with the great river St. Laurence, which is navigable for ships above four hundred miles from its mouth, where it is said to be ninety miles broad. On the eastern side of North America are the fine rivers Hudson, Delaware, Potowmack, Susquehanna, and several others of great length and depth.

But in South America are the two largest rivers in the known world, the river of Amazons, and the Rio de la Plata : the first rises in Peru, and, after a course of above

three thousand six hundred miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of navigable rivers, falls into the ocean between Brasil and Guiana. The Rio de la Plata, or Plate-river, rises in the heart of the country, and becomes so large by the accession of other considerable rivers, that it pours such an immense flood into the sea, that it makes it taste fresh for several leagues from the shore. Besides these there is the Oronoko, and several other very considerable rivers.

A country of such vast extent on each side the equator, must necessarily have a variety of soils as well as climates; but if we except the most northern and southern parts, which here, as every where else, are naturally cold and barren; the rest is an immense treasury of nature, producing most of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and woods, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and higher perfection. The gold and silver of America has supplied Europe with such immense quantities of those valuable metals, that they are become vastly more common; so that the gold and silver of Europe now bears little proportion to the high price set upon them before the discovery of America.

This country also produces an immense quantity of diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethysts, and other valuable stones, which are brought from thence into Europe, in such quantities, as have also greatly lowered their value. To these may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of less price, are of much greater use. Of this sort are the constant and plentiful supplies of cochineal, indigo, anatto, logwood, brasil, fustick, pimento, lignum-vitæ, rice, ginger, cacao, or the chocolate-nut, sugar, tobacco, banillas, cotton, red-wood, the balsams of Tolu, Peru, and China, Jesuits-bark, mechoacan, sassafras, sarsaparilla, cassia, tamarinds, hides, furs, ambergris, and a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, to which, before the discovery of America, we were either entire strangers, or forced to buy at an extravagant rate from Asia and Africa.

America has also a variety of most excellent fruits, which here grow wild to great perfection; as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicats, cherries, pears, apples, figs, grapes, vast numbers of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots, and plants. Add to this the surprizing fertility with which the soil is blessed, by which many exotic productions are nourished in as great perfection as in their native ground.

With all this plenty and variety, the vast continent of America formerly laboured under the want of many necessary and useful commodities: for upon the first landing of the Europeans, they found neither corn, wine, nor oil; the inhabitants in many places knew not the use of corn, but made their bread of pulse or roots: their drink was the water of the clear spring; and, with regard to money, they were ignorant of the use of it. Our kind of sheep, goats, cows, asses, and horses, were not to be found there, though the land abounded with pastures; and at first the sight of a man on horseback would throw a whole troop of these innocent and simple inhabitants into a dreadful panic. But all these animals have been brought hither in such plenty, and have increased so fast in those fertile pastures, that the country has no want of them, as appears from the innumerable hides, particularly of oxen, continually exported from thence. However, in the room of these domestic animals they had others no less valuable, and to which we in Europe were utter strangers; these we shall describe in the countries where they are bred.

The same may be said of the vast variety of birds to be seen there, some of which greatly surpass all that are

to be found in any other parts of the world, for their surprizing beauty, fine shape, bright and glowing colours. The seas, lakes, and rivers, are no less fraught with the greatest plenty and variety of fish.

Before the arrival of the Europeans they had arts of their own; they had some notion of painting, and also formed pictures by the beautiful arrangement of feathers of all colours, and in some parts built palaces and temples. Though the use of iron was unknown, they polished precious stones, cut down trees, and made not only small canoes, but boats of considerable extent. Their hatchets were headed with a sharp flint, and of flints they made knives. Thus, at the arrival of the Europeans, they afforded a lively picture of the primitive state of mankind in the infancy of the world. At that period the arts, the sciences, and all the learning that had long flourished in these more enlightened parts of the earth, were entirely unknown. These, which had before travelled west from Egypt to Greece, and from thence to Rome, have proceeded in the same course, and are daily gaining ground where ignorance reigned triumphant; and the time may arrive when America may become the seat of mighty empires, and be distinguished by cities extensive as Babylon, and beautiful as Athens and Palmyra.

North America is divided

I. Into the dominions of Great Britain: containing Labrador, or New Britain, with the countries about Hudson's-bay, Canada, Nova Scotia, New England, New York, the Jerseys, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, Carolina, Georgia, East and West Florida.

With many rich and fertile islands, the principal of which are Newfoundland, Cape Breton, Providence, Jamaica, St. Christophers, Antego, Nevis, Dominica, Barbuda, Anguilla, Montserrat, Tobago, St. Vincent, Barbadoes, the Granades, and Granada. To which may be added the Bermudas, or Summer Islands.

II. The dominions of Spain: containing Louisiana, Old Mexico, New Mexico, and California, in North America. With the extensive countries of Terra Firma, Peru, and La Plata, or Paraguay, in South America.

With the valuable islands of Cuba, half of Hispaniola, or St. Domingo, Porto Rico, Trinidad, and Margareta, in North America. Chiloe, the Kings or Pearl Islands, Juan Fernandes, and the Gallipagos Islands, in the Pacific ocean.

III. The dominions of France, by the late peace confined to the farther side of the river Mississippi, are now said to be exchanged with Spain.

The French have, however, the following islands: St. Martin's, St. Bartholomew's, Deseada, Guadalupe, Marigalante, Martinico, St. Croix, and part of Hispaniola.

IV. The dominions of Portugal consist of the rich and extensive country of Brasil, in South America.

V. The dominions of the Dutch consist of Surinam, on the continent of South America; with the islands of Curassao, Bonaire, and Aruba, near the coast of Terra Firma; with Eustatia and Saba, two of the Caribbee Islands.

VI. Those of the Danes consist only of one of the Caribbee Islands, named St. Thomas.

VII. The parts still possessed by the native Indians, which are the countries north-west of Mexico; the greatest part of Guiana, and all the most southern part of the continent, as Patagonia, and the island Terra del Fuego.

We shall begin with the dominions of Great Britain, which are bounded on the north by the ocean and lands near the north pole, on the east by the Atlantic ocean, on the south by the Gulph of Mexico, and on the west by unknown lands inhabited by the native Indians.

C H A P. I.

Of the Northern Part of the BRITISH AMERICAN Dominions, particularly of the Countries bordering on HUDSON'S-BAY; with the Islands of NEW-FOUNDLAND, CAPE BRETON, and St. JOHN.

S E C T. I.

Of the Countries bordering on Hudson's-bay; a particular Account of the Climate, Soil, Vegetables, and Minerals; with a Description of the Beaver.

THE most northern part of America subject to the English, particularly the countries bordering on Hudson's-bay, which are situated between the fiftieth and seventieth degree of north latitude, and extend between the fifty-first and one hundredth degree of west longitude, including Hudson's-bay; are bounded on the north by unknown lands and seas about the pole, on the east by the Atlantic ocean, on the south by the Gulph of St. Lawrence and Canada, and on the west by unknown lands. Were we to extend the country claimed by Great Britain as far as our mariners have discovered to the north, we might stretch it to eighty-one degrees thirty minutes north latitude; for so far captain Hudson and captain Baffin have sailed, and gave their names to the bays so called; but we are not solicitous to extend the bounds of the countries subject to Britain to regions where no Briton has ever settled, and which we have neither purchased nor conquered.

The knowledge we have obtained of these countries is owing to the repeated attempts that have been made to discover a north-west passage to the East Indies. But though these countries, which extend sixteen hundred miles in length, are claimed by Great Britain, and distinguished by English names, as the east coast by that of New Britain, and the west by that of New North Wales and New South Wales; yet very little advantage has been made of them, except by the Hudson's-bay company, who have several settlements on the coast of Hudson's-bay, and therefore an accurate and distinct account of them cannot be expected. With respect to the climate we shall give some account of it from Mr. Ellis, who sailed thither in 1746, and wintered in the country on the west side of the Bay.

This gentleman wintered in a creek about five miles above York Fort, in the fifty-seventh degree thirty minutes latitude, a situation so far to the south, that the weather might be supposed to be tolerable; but fearing that they might be froze to death in their ships, they built a house of thick pieces of timber, with the spaces between stuffed with moss, and plastered over with clay: the door was low and small, the fire-place was in the middle, and over it a chimney to let out the smoke. It was placed on an eminence surrounded with trees; about a hundred and fifty yards from the front was a handsome basin of water, called the Beaver-creek; and they were protected from the north and north-east winds by thick and tall woods. On the second of November the cold was so intense, that all the bottled beer was froze solid, though packed up in tow near a good fire; and on the sixth the cold became insupportable abroad. About this time they put on their winter-dress, which consisted of a robe of beaver-skins that reached to their heels, two waistcoats under it, a cap and mittins of the same lined with flannel, a pair of Indian stockings over their yarn ones, with shoes of soft tanned moose or elk-skin, under which they wore two or three pair of blanket or thick duffel socks; and a pair of snow-shoes about five feet long and eighteen inches wide, to prevent their sinking in the snow, completed their dress. This, with some alterations, is the garb of the Indians, who have taught it the English. They usually put at least an horse-load of wood at a time into their stove, which was built of bricks six feet long, two wide, and three high. When the wood was near

burnt they beat off the embers, threw out the brands, and then stopped up the top of the chimney. This caused a sulphureous suffocating smell, and so great a heat, that, notwithstanding the severity of the weather, they often sweat; yet if a door or window was but opened, the cold air rushed in with great fury, turning the inclosed vapours into small snow; nor could all the heat they could raise keep the windows, the sides, and ceiling, free from ice: those whose bed-cloaths touched the wall were generally froze fast to it in the morning, and their breath settled in a white hoar frost upon the blankets. This happened soon after the fire went out. As the house cooled, the sap that had been thawed in the timbers with the heat froze, splitting the wood in cracks, with a noise resembling the report of a musket.

No liquid can here withstand the cold; brandy, and even spirits of wine, froze; but the latter only to a consistence like oil. All liquors under the proof of common spirits became perfectly solid, and burst the vessels that contained them, whether they were of wood, tin, or even copper. The ice in the river was above eight feet thick, and they could keep their provisions sweet as long as they pleased, without the assistance of salt; for their game froze the instant it was killed. The hairs, rabbits, and partridges, which in summer are brown and grey, change in winter to white. Every animal is here furnished by nature with extraordinary furs, to resist the cold, which fall off as the warm weather returns; and even this is the case with the dogs and cats brought hither from Europe. If the men touched iron, or any other solid surface, their fingers were froze fast to it; or if in drinking a dram of brandy out of a glass, they touched it with their tongue or lips, in pulling it away the skin was left upon it. They buried their beer twelve feet deep in the ground, on a bed of willow and grass, both under and over it; and then covered it twelve feet deep with a soapy earth; yet some of the casks of small beer next to the sides were frozen, and the strong iron-bound casks burst, though the spirituous part remained fluid in the heart of the ice, and was strong; but the ice, on being melted, tasted quite vapid; other casks were not burst.

From this account of the severity of the winter one would imagine, that it must be extremely uncomfortable, and its inhabitants very unhappy; but this is far from being the case, for though the weather is cold, they have abundance of furs to shelter them from its violence, and many other conveniences that in some measure put them on a level with those who live in a milder climate; and however extraordinary it may appear, there are Englishmen who have lived in the company's settlements for some years, who prefer that country to any other.

There are here frequently seen parhelia or mock suns, and halos about the sun and moon, which are very luminous, and beautifully tinged with all the colours of the rainbow. Our author observes, that he has seen six of these parhelia at a time. The true sun also rises and sets with a large cone of yellow light perpendicular to it; and no sooner does it disappear than the aurora borealis spreads a thousand different lights and colours over the whole concave of the sky, with such resplendent beauty, that even the full moon does not efface their lustre, though they are more apparent when she does not shine; for then one may distinctly read by them, and the shadows of objects are seen upon the snow tending to the south-east. The stars seem to burn with a fiery red, especially those near the horizon.

In the southern parts of this country the soil is fertile, the surface being a loose dark mould, under which are layers

layers of different coloured clay. Near the shore the land is low and marshy, covered with trees of various sorts: and within land are large plains, with little herbage except moss, interspersed with tufts of trees, and some lakes. In the country are a great variety of shrubs and plants, with many of those known in Europe, as the gooseberry, currant, and cranberry, strawberries, angelica, wild auriculas, savine, many of the Lapland plants, and others that are unknown to us. There are great quantities of wild rice by the sides of the lakes and rivers; there is also long grass and good meadow ground, and at the factories are tolerable gardens, especially at York Fort, Albany, and Moose-river, where most kinds of English garden-stuff grow very well, as beans, peas, cabbages, turnips, and many kinds of fallads. Farther within land the country is much more fruitful, the summers warmer, the winters shorter, and less severe.

There are many sorts of minerals here: lead-ore is said to be found in plenty on the surface of the earth near Churchill-Fort: iron-ore is likewise to be met with, and the natives who live to the northward frequently bring pieces of copper to that factory. There are likewise a great variety of talcs, spars, and rock-crystals of different colours, as red and white, the former resembling rubies, and the latter, which are very transparent, shooting into pentangular prisms. In the northern parts is found a kind of coal; the asbestos, or stone-flax, is common here; and also a stone of a black, smooth, and shining surface, that easily separates into thin transparent leaves, which the natives use as looking-glasses. The country likewise abounds in various kinds of marble, some speckled with green, blue, and red; and others perfectly white.

Among the animals are deer, rabbits, beavers, and other beasts; with a great variety of birds, as swans, wild-geese, plover, ducks, and many others that fly to the northward in the spring to breed, and return to the southward in autumn. There are likewise eagles, hawks, partridges, pheasants, crows, and owls.

As the inhabitants of this country are clothed in the skins of beavers, and as the principal trade consists in those skins, with which they have supplied us by means of the Hudson's-bay company, it will be proper to give here a description of that curious animal. A large beaver is about twenty-eight inches in length, from the hind part of the head to the root of the tail, and weighs sixty or seventy pounds, but their colour is different; in some places they are black, in others white, and in others almost of the colour of the deer. The beaver lives to a great age; the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. Their jaws are furnished with two cutters and eight grinders; the upper cutter is two inches and a half in length, and the lower something longer. The upper jaw projects over the lower one; the head is shaped like that of a rat, and is small in proportion to its body; its snout is long, its eyes small, and its ears sharp and round; its legs are but about five inches in length, with paws formed like a man's hand; but the hind-feet are webbed like the toes of a goose. The tail is shaped like the blade of a paddle, and is four inches broad where it joins to the body, five or six in the middle, and three at the extremity: it is about fourteen inches in length, and about an inch in thickness. It is covered with a scaly skin, the scales being near a quarter of an inch long, and fold over each other, like those of a fish.

The ancient writers of natural history are mistaken in asserting, that the beavers bite off their testicles when pursued by the hunters; for what the physicians call castoreum, is the inguinal glands of this animal.

The industry, foresight, and good management of these animals is extremely surprizing, and scarce credible to those who never saw them. When they want to form a settlement, three or four, or more of them, assemble together, and first pitch upon a place where they may have provisions, such as the bark of trees, particularly roots, or grass, with every thing necessary for erecting their edifices, which must be surrounded with water; and if there be neither a convenient lake nor pond they make one, by stopping the course of some brook, or river, with a dam. For this purpose they cut down trees, above the place where they are resolved to build, and take

their measures so well, as always to make the tree fall towards the water, that they may have the less distance to roll it, when they have cut off the branches. This done they float it to the place appointed, and these pieces they cut bigger or less to suit their convenience. Sometimes they use the trunks of large trees, which they lay flat in the water; at others they fasten stakes in the bottom of the channel, and then interweaving small branches, fill up the vacancies with clay, mud, and moss, in such a manner, as renders the dam very tight and secure. In these works their tails serve them for carts and trowels, and their teeth for axes; their paws supply the place of hands, and their feet serve instead of oars.

The construction of their houses is no less admirable; they are generally built upon piles, at some distance from the shore, but sometimes close to the banks of the rivers; the first make holes at the bottom of the water for planting six posts, upon which each of their edifices is built in a most curious manner; their form is round, with a flat roof; the walls are two feet thick, and sometimes more; they are formed of the same materials as the dams just mentioned, and every part is so well finished, that no air can possibly enter; about two-thirds of the edifice is raised above the water; in this they lodge, and are careful to keep it clean. They have generally three or four different avenues to each house, which they enter under water. To provide provisions against the winter, they draw the sticks they cut from the trees, and thrusting one end into the mud, let them lie under the water to preserve the bark green and tender for their winter provisions. There are sometimes found eight or ten beavers in one house; at others not more than three or four; and let them be as numerous as they will, they all lodge upon one floor.

When the snows melt and raise the stream, they leave their dwelling, and separate till the season returns for repairing them, or for building new ones, which is in the month of July. The Indians lay traps for the beavers in the paths they frequent, and bait them with fresh-cut poplar boughs, which they are very fond of. Sometimes the Indians open the ice near the beaver-houses, at which opening one stands, while another disturbs the house; when the beaver hastening to make his escape at the opening, seldom fails of having his brains beat out the moment he raises his head above the water.

The beavers are excellent food, but the tongue and tail are the most delicious parts. The Indians sometimes roast these animals in the same manner as we do pigs, first burning off their fur.

The coasts are frequented by seals, and the rivers and lakes have very large sturgeon, pike, and trout; with two very delicious kinds of fish; the one called titymag, the other resembling an eel, spotted with yellow and white, and called by the natives muthoy: these are reckoned fattest in winter, when they are caught by making holes in the ice, and letting down a baited hook, at which the fish greedily bites. At the mouths of the rivers, especially those more to the north, are plenty of fine salmon, trout, and a fish called a sucker, which resembles a carp. There comes in with the flood tide a great number of white whales, which might easily be taken.

SECT. II.

The Persons, Dress, Manners, Customs, and Religion of the Indians on the western Coast of Hudson's bay; with a Description of York Factory.

THE natives are of the middle size, and of a copper colour: they have black eyes, and long, lank, black hair; but their features vary as in Europe. They are of a chearful disposition, good-natured, affable, friendly, and honest in their dealings.

In summer the men are clothed in a close coat made of blanket, which they buy of the English settled in their neighbourhood. They have a pair of leather stockings, which reach so high as to serve also for breeches, and they make their shoes of the same materials.

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The cloaths of the women differ from those of the men only in their generally wearing a petticoat, that in winter comes a little lower than their knees. Their ordinary apparel is made of the skins of deer, otters, or beaver, with the hair or fur on them. The sleeves of their upper habit are generally tied on with strings at the shoulders, so that their arm-pits, even in the depth of winter, are exposed to the cold, which they imagine contributes to their health: their diseases indeed are but few, and those chiefly arise from colds caught after drinking spirituous liquors, which they buy of the English; and it is a melancholy truth, that those who live near the settlements of the Hudson's-bay Company, are, by drunkenness, become meagre, small, indolent, and hardly able to encounter the hardships of the country; while those who live at a distance are hardy, vigorous, and active.

They dwell in tents covered with moose and deer-skins sewed together. These are of a circular form, probably on account of its being most capacious and convenient for their sitting round the fire, which is in the middle. They are formed of poles, which are extended at the bottom, and at the top lean to the center, where an opening is left to admit the light and let out the smoke. They strew the bottom with the top of pine-trees, and lie with their feet to the fire, and their heads to the sides of the tent. The entrance is generally on the south-west side, and they go in by lifting up one of the skins, to which is fastened a piece of stick, to make it flap close.

They have no dependance for subsistence on the fruits of the earth, but live entirely on the animals they take in hunting or catch in traps. They every season make a prodigious slaughter among the deer, from the absurd opinion that the more they destroy, the greater plenty will succeed; hence they sometimes leave three or four hundred dead on the plains, taking out only their tongues, and leaving their carcasses either to rot or to be devoured by the wild beasts. At other times they attack them in the water, and bring great numbers on floats to the factories. They also live upon birds, and even feed on eagles, hawks, crows, and owls, as well as on partridges, wild-geese, and ducks. They generally boil their flesh, and eat it by itself, drinking the water it is boiled in, which they esteem very wholesome; and in the same manner they dress their fish.

These ignorant people have many amiable qualities: they are influenced in their behaviour by a natural love of rectitude, that restrains them from all acts of violence and injustice, as effectually as the most rigorous laws. The chiefs of every family, or tribe, who are generally chosen from among the most ancient of the people, usually for their skill in hunting, their experience in trade, and their valour in the wars, in which they frequently engage, direct those who reside with them in their different employments; but their advice is rather followed through deference and respect than any compulsive obligation.

They have, however, some customs which must appear very whimsical, and others that are extremely cruel. It is esteemed a great offence for a woman to stride over the legs of a man when he sits on the ground, and they even think it beneath them to drink out of the same vessel with their wives. They have another custom that must appear shocking to every humane mind, and in which they are in some measure imitated by the Hottentots. The latter, as hath been mentioned in treating of California, expose their parents, when labouring under the infirmities of old age, to perish with hunger, or to be devoured by wild beasts, and these wretches strangle theirs; for when their parents grow so old as to be unable to support themselves by their own labour, they require their children to strangle them, and their performing it is esteemed an act of duty. This is done in the following manner: the old person's grave being dug, he goes into it, and after having conversed and smoked a pipe, or perhaps drank a dram or two with his children, he informs them that he is ready; upon which two of them put a thong about his neck, then one standing on one side, and the other opposite to him, pull violently till he has expired;

they then cover him with earth, and over that erect a kind of rough monument of stones. Such old people as have no children, require this office of their friends; but in this case it is not always complied with.

They have also a very strange maxim of policy, which is obliging their women to procure frequent abortions, by the use of a certain herb, common in that country, in order to ease themselves of the heavy burthen of an helpless family. Savage as this custom is, it is less barbarous than that anciently practised by the polite and civilized Greeks and Romans, as it is still by the Chinese and Hottentots, of exposing their children, and leaving them to perish with hunger or be devoured by wild beasts.

They acknowledge a Being of infinite goodness, whom they stile Uckewma, or the Great Chief, whom they consider as the author of all the blessings they enjoy, and sing a kind of hymns to his praise; in a grave and solemn tone, that is not altogether disagreeable; but their religious sentiments are very inconsistent and confused. They likewise acknowledge another being, whom they call Witticca, and represent as the author of all evil; of him they are much afraid; but it is not said that they use any methods to appease him.

Though these people spend the best part of their lives in procuring necessaries, and might easily lay up a store of provisions to secure them against want; yet they take little care of futurity. From their natural generosity they are very free of their provisions when they have plenty, and, except drying a little venison and fish, take no care to have a supply against winter. The Indians who come in the summer to trade at the factories, sometimes not obtaining the succours they expected, have been obliged to singe off the fur from thousands of beaver-skins, in order to feed upon the leather: but when they are thus reduced to the greatest extremity, they behave with a patience that is easier to admire than to imitate. They frequently travel two or three hundred miles, even in the depth of winter, through a wide open country, without meeting with any house to receive them, or carrying any tent for their protection. At the approach of night they raise a kind of fence with brushwood, by the side of which they kindle a fire, and having cleared away the snow, they lie down upon the ground, and sleep between the fire and the fence: but when they happen to be benighted where no wood can be obtained, they are obliged to lie down under the snow, as is practised in Siberia and some other countries; and by this means they are in a great measure sheltered from the sharpness of the piercing air.

As York-fort is situated on the west coast of Hudson's-bay, in the country, the manners of whose inhabitants we have just described, and is considered as the most valuable of the Hudson's-bay Company's settlement, we shall here give a description of it. It is seated on the southern branch of Port Nelson-river, called Hays's-river, within five miles of its fall into the sea, in the latitude of fifty-seven degrees twenty minutes, and in the ninety-third degree fifty-eight minutes west longitude. This fort and factory is in a clear space, surrounded on three sides by the woods, with an open front to the water. The fort is a square building, flanked with four small bastions, all of them covered, and at present converted either into lodging or store-rooms. There are three small pateraroes placed on each of the curtains; the whole is palisadoed: a battery of pretty large guns commands the river, and a small breast-work of turf is thrown up by way of defence of the battery; but even in time of war the number of people who reside there amount to no more than between thirty and forty. On the south-east of the fort is a dock for rebuilding or repairing sloops or boats, between which and the battery is a piece of land called The Plantation, where the Indians who come to the factory pitch their tents; and there are generally one or two tents of old infirm Indians, both men and women, who are maintained by the factory, from which this place is separated by two rows of high palisadoes: between these are store-houses, the kitchen, and some work-shops low built; and within the inner palisadoes are small spots sowed with turnips, colworts, fallads, and other garden-stuff. But however

formidable this fort may appear to the natives, it is incapable of defence, should it happen to be attacked by an European army.

S E C T. III.

Of the Persons, Dress, Manners, and Customs of the different Tribes of Eskimeaux, or Eskimows, chiefly seated on the East Side of Hudson's-bay.

IT would not be difficult, in treating of the countries which border on Hudson's-bay, to give the names and situation of the number of little islands, harbours, and creeks, but it is impossible to give a good account of any of them, that will either answer the purposes of instruction or entertainment; we shall therefore confine ourselves to the different inhabitants.

The principal inhabitants situated to the north of those just described are the Eskimeaux, which name is derived from an Indian word that signifies eaters of raw flesh; for after thoroughly drying the flesh of the beasts they kill, they eat it without any other preparation; and it is evident that to this Indian term is added a French termination; but to adapt it to the English pronunciation, it should rather have been written by our authors Eskimows.

These people are of several tribes, and we shall begin with those who live on the borders of the straits which enter into Hudson's-bay. They are of a middle size, robust, and inclinable to be fat. Their heads are large, and their faces round and swarthy; their eyes are black, small, and sparkling; their noses flat, their lips thick, and their hair lank and black: they have broad shoulders, and their limbs are proportionable; but their feet are extraordinary small.

The behaviour of the Eskimows is chearful and sprightly; but some nations of them are said to be subtle, cunning, and deceitful, great flatterers, and much addicted to pilfer from strangers; easily rendered bold by encouragement, but as easily frightened; and so attached to their own country, that some, who have been taken prisoners by the Southern Indians when they were boys, and brought to the factories, have for several years regretted their absence from their native country, and the enjoyment of what they loved when they were there: thus one of them, after having been fed on English diet, being present when an Englishman was cutting up a seal, from which the train-oil ran very plentifully, scooped up what he could save with his hands, and swallowing it, cried, "Ah! commend me to my own dear country, where I could get my belly-full of this."

The men's cloaths are made of seals-skins, and sometimes of the skins of land and sea-fowl sewed together; their coats have a hood like a capuchin, are close from the breast before, and reach no lower than the middle of the thigh: the breeches are close before and behind, gathered like a purse, with a string, and tied about their waists: they have several pair of boots and socks, which they wear one over another, to keep them warm and dry. The difference between the dress of the men and that of the women is, that the latter have a narrow flap behind to their jacket, that reaches to their heels. Their hoods are likewise larger and wider at the shoulders, for the sake of carrying their children in them at their backs; and their boots, which are a great deal wider, are commonly stuck out with whalebone, because when they want to put a child out of their arms, they slip it into one of their boots till they can take it up again. A few of them wear shifts of seals bladders sewed together. Their cloaths are in general sewed very neatly: this is performed with an ivory needle, and the sinews of a deer split fine, and used for thread. They discover a good deal of taste in adorning them with stripes of different coloured skins sewed in the manner of borders, cuffs, and robings for their cloths, which altogether appear handsome as well as convenient.

One singular part of their dress is their snow eyes, as they properly call them. These are bits of wood, or ivory, formed to cover the organs of sight, and tied at the back of the head: in each piece are two slits of the

same length with the eyes, but narrower, through which they see very distinctly. This invention prevents snow blindness, a very painful disorder, occasioned by the brightness of the light reflected from the snow, especially in spring. Their use strengthens the sight, and becomes so habitual to them, that when they would observe an object at a great distance, they commonly look through them, as we do through a perspective-glass.

The same spirit of invention is observable in their instruments for fishing and fowling, which, in several respects, resemble those of the Greenlanders. Their darts and harpoons are well made, as are also their bows and arrows. Their boats, which are easy of carriage, and quick in motion, resemble those of the Greenlanders, have their frames made of wood or whalebone, covered all over with seal-skin parchment, except a hole in the middle, which has a ring of wood or whalebone round it, to prevent the water running in from the deck, affording only room for one man to sit in, his feet being stretched forward; and sometimes the skin is laced about his waist at the above-mentioned rim, which effectually shuts out the water. They rub the seams with a kind of tize made of seals blubber. In these boats they carry their little conveniences, and their instruments for killing whales, sea-horses, sea-unicorns, seals, and the like. They also carry in their canoes slings and stones, with which they can do execution at a great distance. Their harpoons are headed and pointed with the teeth of the morse, one end of it serving for a spear, and the other for introducing into the body of the fish a barb tipped with iron, which remains there, while the other part of the harpoon readily disengages itself and comes out. To this barb is fastened a thong of the hide of the morse, at the end of which is a seal-skin blown up, which serves as a buoy, to shew them where the whale is when he goes down, and prodigiously fatigues him in swimming. As soon as he expires, they, with their canoes, tow him ashore, and strip him of his fat, which not only serves them for food, but to burn in their lamps during winter.

As the persons who traversed Hudson's-bay, in order to discover a north-west passage, had no leisure to examine the countries by which they passed, and had sometimes opportunities of observing the natives, they were enabled to describe the latter, without having it in their power to give much account of the former. In Mr. Ellis's voyage, which was attempted in order to find out that passage, the ship named the Resolution was driven upon a ridge of stones, when six boats of Eskimows came off with whalebone, which, notwithstanding their danger, they bought of them. These people, so far from taking advantage of their distress, behaved with the utmost civility, and endeavoured to relieve them: for when the tide had floated them off, an old man, who seemed better acquainted with the place than the rest, had the humanity to paddle before them, to point out the shoals, and direct their course, by keeping in deep water: thus, by his assistance, the Resolution escaped being lost, which is a sufficient proof that these people do not deserve to be termed artful and thievish, since they could not avoid being sensible that they would have reaped great advantage by the loss of the ship. Our author therefore justly observes, that whatever others may say to their prejudice, it is but justice to own, that they behaved not only with humanity, but with great kindness and friendship. Nothing can be more admirable than the ingenuity and industry of these people, who, for want of iron, are frequently obliged to make not only the barbs of their harpoons, but also their hatchets and knives, of stones, sea-horse teeth, and sea-unicorns horns; and it is difficult to conceive the dexterous use they make of materials that seem so very improper for the purposes to which they employ them. These seem to be originally one people with those just described; but are more affable and friendly, and likewise more skilful artists. The borders of their habits are generally fringed with cut leather, and are sometimes hung with the teeth of fawns. The women do not, like those of the other Eskimows, stick out the sides of their boots with whalebone: they also differ from them in wearing a cap made of the skin of a buffalo's tail, which,

which, though it has a frightful appearance, is of great use in keeping off the musketoos, which are here excessively troublesome. Indeed the hair hanging over their faces somewhat obstructs their sight, but it is easily removed with their hands; and, was it not for this defence, these insects would be insupportable. Hence their children wear them, while hanging at their mother's backs; and as, thus dressed, they make a most dismal figure, it is apt to raise a shocking idea of the barbarity of these harmless and inoffensive people. Their manner of kindling a fire appears very extraordinary, but is nearly the same in all countries where they have not the advantage of flints and steel: they prepare two pieces of dry wood, and making a small hole in each, fit to them a little cylindrical piece of wood, round which a thong is put; then by pulling the ends of the thong, they whirl the cylindrical piece about with such velocity, that the motion sets the wood on fire; when lighting a little dry moss, which serves for tinder, they make as large a fire as they please: but as the little timber they have towards the north of Hudson's bay, is only what is driven on shore, this fails them in winter, and they are obliged, like the Greenlanders, to make use of their lamps, for the supply of their family occasions.

These simple people were so far from being jealous of their wives, that they offered them to the English sailors, from an opinion that the children they had by them would be in every respect as much superior to those of their nation, as they took the English to be; for they imagine, says our author, that in the most literal sense every man begets his like, and that the son of a captain must infallibly be a captain.

On their going to sea, in order to catch fish, they usually take in their boats a bladder filled with train-oil, as our people do a dram-bottle, and seem to drink the contents with the same relish; and when their stock is out, they have been seen to draw the bladder through their teeth with much seeming satisfaction. They are probably convinced by experience of the salutary effects of this coarse kind of oil in this rigorous climate, which renders them so fond of it. They also use it for their lamps, which are made of stone, hollowed out with as much art as can well be expected, considering their tools.

We shall now leave Hudson's-bay, which, considering its great extent, may as well be called a sea as the Baltic, and several others that bear that name; and shall only observe, that in sailing to the northward from York-fort every thing dwindles, the men become lower in stature, and in the latitude of sixty-one degrees the very trees shrink into brushwood.

S E C T. IV.

Of NEWFOUNDLAND.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, and Produce; with a particular Account of the Manner of preparing the Cod in that Island.

NEWFOUNDLAND received its name from Cabot, who discovered it in 1497. It is of a triangular form, and situated to the east of the gulph of St. Lawrence, between the forty-sixth degree forty minutes and the forty-second degree seven minutes north latitude, and between the forty-first degree fifty-two minutes and the fifty-seventh degree forty minutes west longitude; it being bounded to the eastward and southward by the Atlantic ocean, on the north by the streights of Belleisle, and on the west by the gulph of St. Lawrence.

The coasts are extremely subject to fogs, occasioned by the vapours exhaled from the lakes, swamps, and bogs, with which the island abounds; yet the air is salubrious, and agreeable to most constitutions. The winters are severe, attended with almost continual storms of snow and sleet, the sky being usually overcast.

The soil is generally supposed to be barren, except only the banks of the rivers, which are tolerably fertile. There are however woods of different kinds throughout

almost all the country for several miles from the coast, which contain abundance of timber fit for ship and boat building, as well as for erecting stages for curing and drying fish; and beyond these woods, where the lands are cleared, are in many places good pasturage. The inland parts of the country rise into high hills, and sink into bogs and swamps; where such parts as are not covered with water, afford only shrubs, spruce, and white moss. It however contains many fine rivers, lakes, and rivulets, which abound with beaver, otters, and the like, and afford great plenty of salmon and other fish. The forests are stored with deer, moose, bears, wolves, and foxes in great plenty; but here are few cattle, sheep, or horses; instead of the latter, the inhabitants make use of dogs for drawing of wood and other necessities. These they manage with great dexterity, fixing them in leather collars, and yoking together what number they please. There are here great plenty of wild fowl, but the staple commodity of the island is cod-fish, which are here larger and in greater abundance than in any part of the world yet discovered; and a considerable part of Europe is at present chiefly supplied with this article from hence.

Great Britain and North America, at the lowest computation, annually employ upwards of three thousand sail in this fishery; on board of which, and on shore, to cure and pack the fish, are not less than ten thousand hands; so that it is at the same time, not only a very profitable branch of trade to the merchant, but a source of livelihood to so many thousands of poor people, and a most excellent nursery to the royal navy, which is hence supplied with a great number of able seamen: it might still be greatly enlarged; for notwithstanding the great trade carried on by the English here, the French are said to have by far the best part.

On these coasts are also taken a great number of whales, seals, porpuses, &c. whence above five thousand barrels of oil, besides a great quantity of whale-bone, seal-skins, &c. are annually exported from hence to different parts of the world; all which sufficiently shew the importance of the island, notwithstanding the severity of the climate, and the roughness and barrenness of the soil.

The number of English inhabitants on the island, is uncertain and fluctuating. They are indeed very inconsiderable, if compared with its extent, but there are not half the number in winter that there are in summer. The capital of the island, which is seated on the southern point, contains no more than between three and four-score houses.

As fishing is the staple commodity of Newfoundland and the adjacent islands, it will not, perhaps, be disagreeable to our readers, if we here give a concise account of the method of curing the cod, and preparing it for the market.

The vessels employed in this business are small shallops, which come to shore every day, where the fishermen throw the cod they have taken upon a stage prepared for that purpose. One of them, who is called the cut-throat, opens the fish with a two-edged knife, and cuts off his head; a second hands the fish to the carver, who stands opposite to him at a table erected upon the stage, who with a single-edged knife, six or eight inches long, and very thick on the back, to encrease its weight, splits the fish open; when it is conveyed to the salter, who places it with the skin undermost in a barrel, and then very slightly covers it with salt, laying the fish regularly one upon another.

After leaving the cod in salt three or four days, and sometimes twice as long, according to the season, they put it into a tub, wash it well, make it up in piles, and, in fair weather, spread it out with the skin undermost, on a kind of stage raised with wattles about two feet from the ground; before night they turn the skin uppermost, which they also do whenever it rains. When the fish becomes a little dry, it is raised into larger piles, where it rests a day or two; after which it is again exposed to the air, and turned according as there is occasion, before they again raise it into larger piles, where, after this is done, it sometimes remains fifteen days with-

out being moved; after which it is once more exposed to the air, and when almost dry, gathered together again, in order to sweat, which takes up twenty-four hours or more, according to the season: it is then opened and exposed to the air for the last time, and when thoroughly dried, housed.

Fish cured in this manner are not only more fair to the eye, but more grateful to the taste, than those which are partly prepared at sea; and that cured in the spring before the great heats, is generally the best.

S E C T. V.

Of CAPE BRETON, called by the French L'ISLE ROYAL.

Its Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, Climate, Soil, and Produce, with the advantages France received from it.

THE island of Cape Breton, which is seated fifteen leagues to the south-west of Newfoundland, is in the forty-sixth degree north latitude, and in the fifty-eighth degree thirty minutes west longitude, it being separated from the continent by a narrow passage on the west. This island is about one hundred and ten miles from the north-east to the south-west. Round it are several harbours and bays, which, from its situation in the gulph of St. Lawrence, have made it considered as the key of Canada, it being a safe retreat for ships bound either to or from Canada.

It is of a very irregular figure, and so cut through by lakes and rivers, that its two principal parts are held together only by an isthmus of about eight hundred paces in breadth; this neck of land separates the bottom of Port Toulouse from several lakes, which are called Labrador. These lakes discharge themselves into the sea to the east by two channels, formed by the islands of Verderronne and la Boularderie.

All its ports open to the east, turning a little to the south, and are within the space of fifty-five leagues, beginning at Port Dauphin, and continuing to Port Toulouse, which is almost at the entrance of the passage of Fronfac. In all other parts it is difficult to find anchorage. The northern coasts are very high, and almost inaccessible; and it is not easy to land on the western coast, till you come to the passage of Fronfac, near which, as we have already observed, is Port Toulouse, which is between a kind of gulph called Little St. Peter's and the island of St. Peter: from hence proceeding towards the south-east is the bay of Gaborie, at twenty leagues distance; this bay is a league broad, between islands and rocks, and two leagues in depth; but it is not safe to come near the islands. The harbour of Louisburgh, formerly called the English Harbour, is not above a league from the last-mentioned bay, and perhaps one of the finest in America, it being near four leagues in circumference, and having every where six or seven fathoms water. The town of Louisburgh is situated on the south-west side, in latitude forty-five degrees fifty minutes, and in fifty-eight degrees thirty-five minutes west longitude. It was pretty strongly fortified, with as much regularity as the situation would admit. It had a good rampart, with irregular bastions, a dry ditch, a covert-way, with an excellent glacis, and before two of the curtains a ravelin, with a bridge to the sallee-ports; but the chief strength of the place by land consisted in the thickness of the walls, and the impassable morasses, that extend from the foot of the glacis to a considerable distance. There was indeed one part without any walls for about a hundred yards, this being there absolutely unnecessary, the sea flowing close to the town, and therefore a palisade was thought a sufficient defence: nor can even small barks approach it for want of sufficient depth of water; and ships must keep at a very considerable distance, on account of the rocks and shoals. Besides, there were two collateral bastions, which flanked this part to very great advantage. In the center of one of the chief bastions was a strong building, with a moat on the side towards the town; and this was called the citadel, though it had neither artillery, nor was a structure proper for receiving any: indeed the entrance to it was over a draw-bridge, on one side of which was

a corps de garde, and advanced centinels on the other. Within this building were the apartments for the governor, the barracks for the garrison, the arsenal, and under the platform of the redoubt a magazine always well furnished with military stores. The parish-church, or rather chapel, was also within the citadel, and without it was another belonging to the hospital of St. Jean de Dieu, an elegant and spacious structure, built with stones. On an island at the entrance of the harbour was a strong fort, and on the opposite side a very high tower, serving as a light-house. Here was a large fortification called the royal battery, and beyond it was another fort built on a point farther within the harbour. When the town of Louisburgh was last taken from the French, it consisted of only several narrow lanes, and had few tolerable houses in it, they being of wood, with a foundation of stone carried about six feet above the ground.

There are several other excellent ports; which are the more necessary, as the sea round the island is subject to violent storms of wind, with snow and sleet, and such fogs that it is frequently impossible to see the length of a ship: but what is still more extraordinary, these fogs will, in the space of one frosty night, case over the rigging of ships with such thick ice, as to render them impossible to be worked till it is beaten off: the quantity beat off from only one of the ships employed in the conquest of the island in 1758, was computed to amount to six or eight tons weight; yet this amazing quantity was all congealed on the night of the fifth of May, when warmer weather might have been expected. These circumstances shew the advantages of an island filled with such a number of excellent ports, seated in such a tremendous sea.

The soil and climate nearly resemble those of Newfoundland, and consequently its produce is not very different. A considerable part of the land is barren; it, however, produces oaks of a prodigious size, pines for masts, and all sorts of timber fit for building. The most common sorts are cedar, oak, ash, beech, maple, aspen, wild-cherry, and plane-trees. It likewise produces some sorts of fruit, particularly apples, with herbs and roots, some kinds of grain, with hemp and flax.

It is observable, that the mountains may be cultivated up to the tops, and that the good soil always inclines towards the south. There are here great numbers of fowl, particularly very large partridges, which in their feathers resemble pheasants. There are here likewise animals brought from Europe, as horned cattle, hogs, sheep, goats, and poultry. The lakes, rivers, and bays, abound with beavers, otters, and excellent fish in the greatest plenty; and what is got by hunting, shooting, and fishing, is sufficient to maintain the inhabitants a good part of the year.

This induced the French, on their being excluded from Acadia and Newfoundland, to begin a settlement here in 1714, which they continued to encrease, and fortified it in 1720. They were, however, dispossessed in 1745 by the bravery of the inhabitants of New England, with little assistance from Great Britain; but it was again, by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, ceded to the French, who spared no expence to fortify and strengthen it. However, it was again reduced in 1758 by the British troops under general Amherst and admiral Boscawen, who found in that place two hundred and twenty-one pieces of cannon and eighteen mortars, together with a very large quantity of stores and ammunition; and was yielded for ever to the crown of Great Britain by the last peace, since which the fortifications have been blown up, and the town of Louisburgh dismantled.

The importance of this island to the French may be estimated from the advantages they reaped from it when in their possession. Though but a small number of ships fished near the harbour of Louisburgh, in comparison of those employed in the French fisheries on the banks of Newfoundland, the gulph of St. Lawrence, and the neighbouring shores, bays, and harbours; yet it is so situated, that all their fishing-vessels could repair to it on any danger, or emergency, especially those which fished in the gulph on the main, or at the north-west end of Newfoundland, none of which are above one or two days sail at

at most from thence ; as might also those vessels which loaded with mud-fish on the banks ; whence this island was the center and protection of their whole fishery.

According to a computation made by persons intimately acquainted with every branch of it, the quantity of fish they caught in the year before the last war was one million one hundred and forty-nine thousand quintals of dry fish, and three million nine hundred thousand mud-fish ; the value of both which, including three thousand one hundred and sixteen one quarter tons of train-oil, drawn from the blubber, amounts to nine hundred and twenty-six thousand five hundred and seventy-seven pounds ten shillings, according to the prime cost of the fish at Newfoundland ; and with the addition of its freight to the several markets where it is sold, makes nine hundred and forty-nine thousand one hundred and ninety-two pounds ten shillings sterling ; and if to this be added the consumption which is made of their coarse woollens by the men employed in the fishery, reckoning for each a blanket, watch-coat, rug, pea-jacket, &c. in the whole thirty shillings per man, with the brandy they consume ; and also the canvas, cordage, nets, hooks, grapplings, anchors, &c. that the ships and shallops of this fishery must expend at sea and on shore, the value of it will amount, at least, to one million sterling per annum, at which it is generally computed.

But in order to form a just estimate of the value of this branch of trade to the French, we should also take in its beneficial consequences, which principally consist in the following articles : First, the train-oil produced by it is necessary to the French in their woollen manufactory, in which they have already rivalled us with too much success ; and their sugar colonies abroad, which cannot do without it, are supplied with it from France out of this fishery.

Secondly, the trade it opens for them in the Mediterranean, and all the Roman Catholic states, where they carry their fish to market ; and by this means force a vent for the French manufactures ; which has been found so beneficial to their commercial interest, that they have been indefatigable in the cultivation of it, sparing no pains nor cost, and using every art to monopolize it.

Thirdly, the great increase of their navigation and seamen arising from this fishery, in which five hundred and sixty-four ships, besides shallops, and twenty-seven thousand five hundred seamen, were employed ; circumstances, especially the latter, which, considered with regard to their maritime force, were of themselves as valuable to France, as the revenue of the fishery itself : hence Charlevoix, in his History of New France, justly observes, “ That this fishery was a more valuable source of wealth and power to France, than even the mines of Peru or Mexico would be.”

This great branch of trade may be said to have depended upon the possession of the Island of Cape Breton, on account of its affording them a convenient harbour to supply and protect it ; but this they have since found means to carry on in a very profitable manner to themselves without it. However, there are other great advantages which the French received from their possession of this island. France has not one sea-port for the relief and shelter of her trading ships, either to or from the West Indies, open to them any where in North America to the northward of the river Mississippi ; and consequently the

whole trade must for the future be exposed to the English privateers from the northern colonies in time of war, without any place of strength to which they can retreat ; but Louisburgh served them as an harbour for their ships employed in this trade to resort to for wood and water, to clean or repair, for convoy from thence to Old France, and on account of any distress. To all this must be added, that the possession of this island put it into their power to annoy the trade of the British northern colonies in time of war, with their privateers from this harbour, to such a degree, that it has ever been called by the English the Dunkirk of North America.

S E C T. VI.

Of the Island of St. John.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce.

THOUGH the island of St. John is seated in the neighbourhood of Cape Breton, and lies partly between it and the continent, and consequently has nearly the same climate, yet it greatly exceeds the islands just mentioned, with respect to its pleasantness and the fertility of its soil. It is computed to be about sixty miles in length, and has not only a commodious harbour for carrying on the fishery, but abounds with a variety of useful timber and most kinds of game common to the neighbouring country. This island is so fertile, and was so well improved while possessed by the French, that it was justly stiled the granary of Canada, which it furnished with great plenty of most sorts of corn, as well as great quantities of beef and pork ; and, when last taken, had upwards of ten thousand head of black cattle, and some of the farmers raised twelve hundred bushels of corn annually. It has several rivers, which abound with salmon, trout, eels, &c. and the surrounding sea affords plenty of sturgeon, plaice, and most kinds of shell-fish. An island of this advantage was at once carefully cultivated, and its importance concealed from the English, lest it should induce them to make themselves masters of it, and by that means cut off the principal supplies from Quebec. In this island are yet considerable quantities of land uncultivated, which, by a proper improvement, would render it still more valuable.

When this island was surrendered to colonel Rollo, it had four thousand inhabitants ; and, to the disgrace of the governor, there were found in his house several English scalps, which were brought there to market by the savages of Nova Scotia ; this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on this barbarous and inhuman trade.

The important conquest of the islands of Cape Breton and St. John filled the whole kingdom with exultation ; and eleven pair of colours, taken at Louisburgh, were, by his majesty's order, carried in a pompous parade, escorted by a detachment of foot-guards, from Kensington-palace to the cathedral of St. Paul, where they were deposited as trophies, under a discharge of cannon, and other expressions of triumph and exultation.

Both this island and that of Cape Breton are at present under the governor of Nova Scotia, as are also several small adjacent islands.

C H A P. II.

OF NOVA SCOTIA, CANADA, NEW ENGLAND, NEW YORK,
the JERSEYS, PENNSYLVANIA, and MARYLAND.

S E C T. I.

*Of ACADIA, or NOVA SCOTIA.**Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Harbours, and History.*

ACADIA, or Nova Scotia, is the most eastern part of the continent of America. It is bounded by the gulph of St. Lawrence and the streights of Canso, which separates it from Cape Breton, on the east; on the south by the Atlantic ocean; on the west by the bay of Fundy and the province of Main, belonging to Massachusetts-bay; and on the north by the river of St. Lawrence, which divides it from Canada; extending from the forty-third degree thirty-seven minutes to the forty-ninth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and from the sixtieth degree fifteen minutes to the sixty-ninth degree west longitude. It is so indented by what is called the bay of Fundy, that the south-east part, towards the ocean, forms a triangular peninsula, only joined by a small isthmus to the other part.

It is in general a fine country, the climate being tolerably temperate, though pretty severe in winter, when the cold is sharp and the snow lies deep on the ground; but the air is there generally clear, with a bright sunshine, and azure sky: the summer is, however, hotter than in England.

The soil of this province is various, in some places barren, and in others exceeding pleasant and fertile; particularly round the bay of Fundy, and on the rivers which fall into it, where are large tracts of ground on both sides these rivers, for fifty or sixty miles into the country, and several miles from the bay, which were once marshy, but, by being dyked, are improved to great advantage. The eminences in this province are also very pleasant and fruitful, producing wheat, rye, Indian-corn, peas, beans, hemp, flax, and some kinds of fruit in great perfection, as gooseberries, raspberries, strawberries, which grow in the woods. Several parts yield fine timber, and particularly excellent oak fit for building of ships; with fir, spruce, birch, &c. It abounds with all the necessaries of life, particularly a great number of deer and other game, with plenty of wild-fowl, as teal, herons, wood-cocks, pigeons, bustards, partridges, wild-ducks, and great numbers of beavers and otters. The rivers abound with salmon and other kinds of river-fish. There are also several fisheries erected in the different harbours, which are carried on with great success.

The coast has the advantage of many bays, harbours, and creeks; and the land is enriched by many rivers, some of which are navigated for a long course by the native Indians. The harbour of Chebucto, upon which is seated the metropolis, may be justly esteemed one of the finest in the world, both for safety and convenience, it having good anchoring-ground, and water sufficient for the largest men of war. This is therefore made the place of rendezvous for the royal navy in America, it having a royal dock, and conveniences for the largest ships to heave down and careen. The entrance into it is from the south, with a large island of an irregular form, lying on the north-east side, named Cornwallis Island, from the first governor of Halifax. This island, as well as a smaller one that lies higher up the harbour, named George Island, is very commodiously situated for a fishery, and has conveniences of all sorts proper for drying and curing the fish.

On the west side of this harbour is seated the town of Halifax, which, though founded so lately as the year 1747, is now a considerable place, consisting of above

one thousand houses, laid out in handsome straight streets, and is the capital of the whole province.

There are also several other towns laid out round the bay, and partly inhabited; but the most considerable settlements are upon the bay of Fundy, and the rivers that fall into it.

About two miles up the harbour of Chebucto is a river on the south-west side, with a small harbour at its entrance. This river, which was called by the first settlers of Halifax Sandwich river, is at the mouth about as wide and deep as the Thames at London-bridge, and is salt-water for about four or five miles up, when it terminates, where a small fresh water rivulet falls into it from the north. From the mouth of Sandwich river to the opposite side of the harbour, is about two miles, with good anchoring-ground for the largest ships in any part of it, and a fine watering-place on the north-east side: the land on both sides is exceeding high, but covered with wood.

Four or five miles to the north of the above river, is a narrow entrance of half a mile, into Bedford-bay, which is about twelve miles in circumference, and has several creeks at the bottom of it, abounding with the finest salmon in the greatest plenty: there are also several islands in it, and on the western side of it, grow a great number of pines fit for masts. This bay, with the harbour, and Sandwich river, divide the peninsula from the main-land.

Upon the opposite shore are several large rivers, among which that of St. John is the most considerable. It is ten leagues distant from the gut of Annapolis, and has a very long course; but has two prodigious cataracts near its mouth, one of them no less than thirty fathoms deep, which is supposed to be chiefly occasioned by the great head of water above, and the channel being pent up between two steep mountains.

The inhabitants may be computed at about twenty thousand, who export to other parts chiefly lumber, as planks, staves, hoops, joists, and fish. The latter is, indeed, the staple commodity, and employs a considerable number of hands.

The king of Great Britain, who is sovereign of the soil, appoints the governor, the lieutenant-governor, and council, who form the upper-house; and the lower-house is formed of the representatives of the people, who are chosen by the freeholders.

This country was discovered by Sebastian Cabot in 1497, but lay long neglected before any considerable settlement was made in it. The French, however, had landed and built houses; but in 1614, captain Argal, by order of the governor of Virginia, sailed thither, and obliged them to depart.

In 1621, king James gave a grant of this province to Sir William Alexander, afterwards earl of Stirling, and secretary of state for Scotland, by whom it was called Nova-Scotia. The next year, Sir William sent a number of people, and all kinds of necessaries for beginning a settlement; but in 1632, Quebec and Cape-Breton, which had been taken from the French, were, together with this province, ceded to them by a treaty concluded between Charles I. and Lewis XIII. when a number of English removed out of it, and the French kept it in their possession till the year 1654, when Oliver Cromwell sent major Sedgewick, who took Port-Royal, and obliged the French to quit the country.

Nova-Scotia continued in our possession till the reign of Charles II. when it was again ceded to the French by the treaty of Breda. They kept it without molestation

tion till the year 1690, when the people of New England, finding the inconvenience of having the French so near them, prepared a fleet, with a proper number of land forces, and gave the command to Sir William Phipps, a native of that province; who sailing from New England, on the twenty-eighth of April 1690, arrived before Port-Royal, now Annapolis, in May following; and soon reducing that town, obliged the inhabitants there, and on St. John's river, amounting to about six thousand, either to consent to submit to the English government, or to be transported to Canada: when most of them, for the sake of keeping their estates and habitations, consented to become British subjects; but soon shewed that they were still bad neighbours to the people of New England. In 1710 queen Anne listening to their repeated complaints, sent a squadron and some land forces under colonel Nicholson, who took Port-Royal, which, in honour of the queen, he called Annapolis; after which Nova Scotia was yielded to Great Britain, by an express article in the treaty of Utrecht. Those of the inhabitants who chose to remain, were to become British subjects, and freely to enjoy their religion. However, in order to secure their obedience, and keep possession of the country, a garrison was kept at Annapolis, and a small one at Canso: but as no government was yet established, nor any proper encouragement given to the British subjects to settle there, the inhabitants, notwithstanding their oaths of allegiance, assisted a party of French, in 1744, in the reduction of the fort at Canso, and made an attempt upon Annapolis, but without success; that garrison being seasonably relieved from New England. They, however, still continued to commit secret hostilities, and to supply and encourage the Indians in their neighbourhood to perpetrate the most horrid acts of cruelty and barbarity on the English, upon the frontiers of New England, whose scalps, says major Rogers, were carried to market to Louisburgh, Quebec, &c. not only in time of war, but in peace, and there exchanged for powder, ball, or whatever they wanted. By these means there were at the conclusion of the peace, in the beginning of the year 1749, no other English in Nova-Scotia besides the garrison of Annapolis, and the inhabitants who lived within a few miles round that place.

The peace was, however, no sooner concluded, than the earl of Halifax projected the complete settlement of Nova-Scotia by the English, and used his utmost endeavours to carry it, in the most effectual manner, into execution. He, with the other lords commissioners of trade and plantations, having gained his majesty's approbation, they in March 1749, published proposals, offering proper encouragement to such of the officers and private men as, after the conclusion of the peace, had been dismissed his majesty's land and sea service, and were willing to accept of grants, in order to settle in Nova-Scotia. Fifty acres of land in fee-simple were offered to every private soldier or sea-man, free from the payment of quit-rent or taxes for the term of ten years, and at the expiration of that time, they were to pay only one shilling a year for every fifty acres. But this was not all, every private soldier or seaman who had a family, was to have ten acres for every person of which his family consisted, including women and children; and farther grants were to be made to them on the like conditions, in proportion as their families encreased, or to their abilities for cultivating the land.

The next care of the governor was to pitch upon a proper spot for the first settlement, and as the peninsula appeared preferable, both on account of its commodious situation, and the fertility of the soil, the able-bodied men on board each ship were employed in clearing ground in order to build a town at the south point, at the entrance of Sandwich river; but many objections being soon found against that place, another spot was chosen by the governor, at about the distance of a mile and a half from it, on the side of Chebucto harbour, and on the declivity of a rising ground that commands the whole peninsula, and would shelter the town from the north-west winds. The beach they found was a fine gravel, convenient for small boats, the anchorage was every

where good for large ships, within gun shot of the town, and small but navigable rivers of fresh and wholesome water flowed round it.

Here then they made a second, and more successful attempt; and, indeed, it would not have been easy to have chosen a more happy situation; they therefore cleared the ground in as expeditious a manner as possible, and having erected a large wooden house for the governor, with proper store houses, the ground was laid out, so as to form a number of straight and beautiful streets, crossing each other at equal distances, upon a most excellent plan, said to have been formed by the earl of Halifax. The work went on briskly; the people of New England brought several ships laden with planks, door-cases, doors, window-frames, and other parts of houses; and the people being employed in ships companies, this created an emulation, that rendered their labours remarkably successful; so that in about three years time, this town, which was named Halifax, from that nobleman to whom the settlement owed its beginning, was finished, and every family had a good house of their own, of which the master was landlord. Within the same space of time were also erected a church, and wharfs, the town was pallisadoed, and other fortifications erected: some land was also cleared for agriculture, and already planted, notwithstanding the opposition they met with from the French, and their tools the Indians.

To explain this last circumstance, it is necessary to observe, that in the beginning of the settlement, and soon after the landing of the English, a hundred black cattle and some sheep were brought them by land from a French settlement at Minas, a town about thirty miles from the bottom of Bedford-bay; and French deputies also coming to make their submission, it was proposed to cut a road thither, those deputies promising to contribute fifty men towards carrying on that work. The English also received the promise of friendship and assistance from the Indians, their chiefs waiting upon the governor for that purpose. But these submissions, and these promises, were soon broken by the perfidy of the French court, which disapproved of these proceedings, and resolved to harass the English before their town was built, and their fortifications erected. Instructions were therefore communicated to the descendants of the French in Nova-Scotia, and the scene was instantly changed; they engaged the Indians to use their utmost endeavours to prevent the new colony from proceeding; and the year in which peace was proclaimed, and Cape Breton restored, was not expired, when the town began to be frequently attacked in the night, and the English could not stir into the adjoining woods, without the danger of being shot, scalped, or taken prisoners. They however prosecuted the settlement with indefatigable industry, and the town was soon finished, notwithstanding all the endeavours of the French to oppose it.

It was however impossible to clear woods and plough lands, without separating into small parties; and this work was attended with great danger; for though the French and Indians did not dare to attack any considerable body of the English, yet they frequently fell upon small parties; and though they had been often repulsed, they always returned whenever they had an opportunity of doing it to advantage. Complaint of this open war, in a time of peace, was now made to the court of France, when his Most Christian Majesty proposed that commissaries should be appointed to settle the bounds of Nova-Scotia. This was done; but those of the French endeavoured by all the arts of sophistry to prove, that the Nova-Scotia ceded to the English by the treaty of Utrecht, was no more than the peninsula of that country. The British commissaries justified our claim to the whole by memorials filled with the strongest and most evident proofs; and the most trifling answers being returned to these, admiral Boscawen was sent to seize the French ships in North America; and France evidently appearing to have concerted the means of conquering all the British dominions on that continent, the late war was entered into to prevent it. During all this time, the French of Nova-Scotia continued their cruel and infamous practices, till at the beginning of that war, when
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the government being convinced that these French rebels, called neutrals, from their having sworn allegiance to the crown of Great Britain, were more inveterate and dangerous enemies than those who were under no such obligation; and finding that all methods to render them good subjects were ineffectual, they were forcibly deprived of their estates, and with their families were obliged to leave the province.

SECT. II.

Of CANADA, or NEW FRANCE.

Its Situation and Extent; a concise Account of its Rivers, Mountains, Vegetables, and Animals.

CANADA, the largest province upon the continent, is now bounded on the north-east by the gulph of St. Lawrence and St. John's river; on the south-west by lands inhabited by the Indians; on the southward by the province of New York, New England, and Nova Scotia; and on the north-westward by lands claimed by the Indians. Quebec, which is its capital, is seated near the centre, in lat. forty-six degrees forty-five min. and in sixty-nine deg. forty-eight min. west longitude; and the country extends, according to Major Rogers, about five hundred miles in length, from the north-east to the south-west, and upwards of two hundred miles in breadth.

The French comprehended under the name of Canada, a much larger territory, taking into their claim great part of the New England provinces, and of the provinces of New York and Nova Scotia; northerly to Hudson's-Bay; to the west as far as the Pacific Ocean; and to the southward extending it to the gulph of Mexico. They even endeavoured to support their claim, by erecting a chain of forts from the mouth of the river St. Lawrence to their settlements in Louisiana.

They began the settlement of this province in 1605 at Quebec, which is seated on the north shore of the river St. Lawrence, about three hundred miles from its mouth; and about the same time began to form settlements upon the island of Orleans, which is seated in that river, a little below Quebec; likewise on each side of the river, to its mouth, and on several smaller rivers that fall into it. They soon after began a settlement called Jecorty, about twenty miles up the river from Quebec, and erected a fort at Chamblee on the river Sorreil, near its influx into the lake Champlain. Soon after this the foundations of Montreal were laid on the island of the same name, in the river St. Lawrence, two hundred miles above Quebec. Another settlement was made at Trois Rivières, or the Three Rivers, so called from a river discharging itself by three mouths into that of St. Lawrence; and is seated about half way between Quebec and Montreal, in a very delightful spot, that affords the most agreeable prospect of any in the whole country. There are many other settlements on the banks of the river St. Lawrence, and of those which flow into it, as well as on the islands formed in it.

While the above settlements were forming Sir David Kirk, in 1629, with the English under his command, took Canada, which was then considered as within the limits of the British dominions, attacked Quebec, and made themselves masters of all the French settlements. But they were restored by the treaty of 1632, and continued in their possession till September 13, 1759, when Quebec was surrendered to the generals Monckton and Townsend, commanding the British troops that had been destined for the expedition against it the preceding spring, under the command of general Wolfe; and on the eighth of September, 1760, all Canada was delivered up to the English in the capitulation of Montreal; but we shall give a particular account of the taking of Quebec, after having described that city.

The climate here is cold, the winters long and tedious, especially in the north-easterly parts of the province; notwithstanding which the soil is in general very good, and in many parts both pleasant and fertile, producing most kinds of English grain and vegetables in great abundance,

especially the island of Orleans, and the islands and lands near it, which are remarkable for the richness of their soil.

The summers of Canada are exceeding pleasant, and are said to have so happy an effect upon the soil, that the farmer expects to reap his crop in sixteen weeks from the time of sowing his seed. The meadow grounds, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and breed vast quantities of large and small cattle; and where the land is well cultivated, it produces rich crops. The mountains abound with coal-mines. This province has in some parts very excellent timber, such as white pines, oak of different kinds, and spruce in great abundance.

The rivers branching through this extensive country are very numerous, and many of them navigable a considerable way; but they are all swallowed up by the river St. Lawrence. This river is eighty miles wide at its entrance into the sea at Cape Rosier's, and in its course forms a variety of bays, harbours, and islands; the most pleasant and fruitful of which is the island of Orleans, just mentioned, a little below Quebec, the soil of which is excellent, and being well improved, produces in abundance all the kinds of grain and vegetables common to the climate, it extending twenty-one miles in length, and three or four in breadth. The French, while in possession of this province, industriously represented the navigation of the river St. Lawrence to be difficult and dangerous; but the contrary has been since found to be the case, ships of the line meeting with no difficulty in sailing to Quebec.

The land in general on both sides of the river is low and level; but opposite to Quebec are two considerable mountains, called the Lady Mountains, which run from thence south-west through the continent to the country of the Creek Indians, on the north part of the Two Floridas, in one continued ridge; and wherever rivers pass through them they rise very steep on each side to their common height. This ridge of mountains is called the Apalachian hills.

The country affords plenty of stags, elks, bears, foxes, martins, ferrets, weazles, squirrels, hares, rabbits, and other animals.

The elk is near as large as a horse, but resembles the deer, and, like it, annually renews its horns. The Indians have a great veneration for this animal, and imagine that to dream of it portends good fortune and long life. The elk delights in cold countries, feeding upon grass in summer, and moss-buds, &c. in winter, when they herd together. It is dangerous to approach very near him when he is hunted, as he sometimes turns furiously on his pursuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the hunter throws his cloaths to him, and while the deluded animal spends his fury on these, he takes proper measures to dispatch him.

The wild-cats are great enemies to the elk; and, notwithstanding their being vastly inferior in size, often make a prey of him: for he has no other way to disengage himself from them, but by plunging into the water.

The Indians scarce undertake any thing with greater solemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed several in one day, is more eagerly sought after than that of one who has rendered himself famous in war; this chase supplying them both with food and raiment. The bears lodge during the winter either in hollow trees or caves; and, as they lay up no provisions, have no food during that season.

The bear is not naturally fierce, except when wounded or pinched with hunger. They run themselves very poor in the month of July; and it is somewhat dangerous to meet them till their hunger is satisfied, and they recover their flesh, which they do very suddenly. They are very fond of grapes, and most kinds of fruit. When provisions are scarce in the woods, they venture out among the settlements, and make great havock of the Indian-corn; and sometimes kill the swine. Their chief weapons are their fore-paws, with which they will hug any animal they seize immediately to death.

The skunk, or pole-cat, is very common, and called by the Indians the stinking beast, on account of its emitting a disagreeable smell to a considerable distance, when pursued

purfued or difturbed. It is about the fize of a fmall cat, has fhining hair of a grey colour, with two white lines that form an oval on its back. The fur of this animal, with that of the ermin, otter, and martin, make up what is called the fmall peltry.

The ermin is about the fize of the fquirrel, its fur is extremely white, its tail long, and the tip of it as black as jet.

The martin, or fable, lives principally among the mountains; is as long as a common cat, but very fletcher: their fur is very fine and valuable.

The mufk-rat refembles the beaver in every part, except its tail, which is round like that of a rat. One of thefe animals weighs about five or fix pounds. During the fummer feafon the male and female keep together, but feparate at the approach of winter; and each feeks a fhelter in fome hollow tree, without laying up any provisions.

The foxes here are of various colours, as black; grey, red, and white; who, by their craft and cunning, make great havock among the water-fowl in the lakes and rivers.

The country abounds with a vaft variety of fowls, and the rivers and lakes are well ftored with falmon, eels, and a multitude of various kinds of other fifh.

S E C T. III.

A Description of Quebec and Montreal; with a particular Account of the Conqueft of thofe Cities, by which all Canada became fubject to the Crown of Great Britain.

QUEBEC, the capital of Canada, feated about three hundred miles north-weft of Bofton, in New England, is a handsome and large city, ftrongly fortified. The harbour is flanked with two baftions, which at high tides are almoft level with the water. A little above one of them is a demi-baftion, which is partly taken out of the rock; and above it, on the fide of the gallery of the fort, is a battery of twenty-five pieces of cannon: above this is a fquare fort called the citadel, and the ways from one fortification to another are difficult to pafs. To the left of the harbour, on the fide of the road, are large batteries of cannon, and fome mortars. It is encompassed with walls, and has a caftle on the brow of a hill, about forty fathoms above the town; but it is irregularly built, and fortified with only two baftions, and no ditch towards the town. It has alfo another fort at Cape Diamond of folid rock, four hundred fathoms high: but it owes its greateft ftrength to nature. The firft place taken notice of upon landing here is a fquare of an irregular figure, with well-built houfes on one fide; on the back of which is a rock; on the left it is bounded by a fmall church; and on the right has two rows of houfes parallel to each other. There is another between the church and the harbour; as alfo another long row on the fide of the bay. This is called the Lower Town, which is moftly inhabited by merchants; but it is too much crowded. Between this and the Upper Town is a very fteep afcent, in which are fteps for the foot paffengers to go up. This has noble edifices, and between two large fquares is a fort, in which the governor refides. Oppofite the fort the Recollects have handsome houfes, and on the right is the cathedral, which is built in a mean ftile, but has a large, high, and well-built tower, that may be feen at a great diftance. Over-againft this is the Jefuits college, which is a fine building; and between them are well-built-houfes. The houfe of the Knights Hospitallers is a ftately ftructure, with two fine pavilions. In the fecond fquare are two defcents to the river of St. Charles, an hospital called Hotel-Dieu is in the midway, and from thence are fmall houfes, which reach to that of the intendant. On the other fide of the Jefuits college is a pretty long ftreet, in which is a nunnery. Almoft all the houfes are built of ftone, and there are above feven thoufand inhabitants. Befides the Lower and Higher Towns, there is another beyond the latter, on the banks of the river St. Charles, along which are feveral noble country feats.

In 1711 the Englifh fitted out a fleet, with a defign to conquer Canada: but the expedition failed, from the rafhnefs of the admiral, who, contrary to the advice of his pilot, failed too near the Seven Ifles, and thus loft his largeft fhips, with three thoufand of his beft failors. But it has fince been attacked with much better fuccefs.

It will not be improper to give here a particular account of the taking of this city, one of the moft difficult enterprizes that was ever effected by the united efforts of prudence and valour. The fituation of the place, and the fortifications with which it is fecured; the natural ftrength of the country; the great number of veffels and floating batteries the French had provided for the defence of the river; the fkill, labour, fuperior force, and uncommon vigilance of the enemy; their numerous bodies of Indians, who continually hovered about the pofts of the Englifh to furprize parties and harrafs detachments; thefe, and many other obftacles, formed fuch a combination of difficulties, as was fufficient to difcourage and perplex the braveft and moft intelligent general.

But the fpirit of Wolfe was not to be intimidated by danger; embarking the troops on board the transports, he paffed with them up the river; while admiral Holmes made a motion with his fhips to amufe the enemy, now pofted along the north fhore. But the transports being extremely crowded, and the weather very bad, the general thought proper to canton half his troops on the fouth fhore, where they were refrefhed. As no probability appeared of annoying the enemy above the town, it was agreed to convey the troops farther down in boats, and land them during the night within a league of Cape Diamond, in hopes of afcending the heights of Abraham, which rife abruptly with a fteep afcent from the banks of the river, that they might take poffeffion of the ground on the back of the city, where the fortifications were but indifferent: but the dangers and difficulties attending this undertaking were exceeding great. The fream was rapid; the fhore fhelving; the bank of the river lined with centinels; the landing-place fo narrow as to be eafily miffed in the dark; and the ground fo difficult as hardly to be furmounted in the day-time, had no oppofition been expected. Had the enemy received the leaft intimation from a fpy or deferter, or even fufpected the defign; had the embarkation been difcovered in confequence of the rapidity of the river, or the fteepnefs of the north fhore, near which they were obliged to row; had only one centinel been alarmed, or the landing-place much miffed; the height of Abraham muft have been infantly fecured by fuch a force as would have rendered the undertaking abortive; confufion would have neceffarily enfued in the dark; and this confufion would naturally have produced a panic, which might have proved fatal to the greater part of the detachment. Thefe objections did not efcape the penetration of the intrepid Wolfe, though he readily adopted the plan, and even executed it in perfon, though at that time afflicted with a fevere difentery and fever.

Having prepared for this dangerous enterprize, admiral Holmes moved with his fquadron farther up the river, about three leagues above the intended landing-place, in order to deceive the enemy, and amufe M. de Bougainville, whom Montcalm had detached with fifteen hundred men to watch the motions of that fquadron; but the Englifh admiral was directed to fall down in the night, and protect the landing of the forces; this he punctually performed. On the twelfth of September, at one in the morning, the firft embarkation, confifting of four complete regiments, the light infantry, commanded by colonel Howe, a detachment of Highlanders, and the American grenadiers, was made in flat-bottomed boats, under the immediate command of the brigadiers Monckton and Murray, though general Wolfe accompanied them in perfon, and was one of the firft who landed: and they began to fall down with the tide to the intended place of difembarkation, rowing clofe along the north fhore, in order to find it the more eafily. The boats glided gently along without any diforder; but by the rapidity of the tide, and the darknefs of the night, they overfhot the mark, and the troops landed a little below the place intended.

This remarkable success in landing without the least knowledge of the enemy, was in some measure owing to the following accident: two French deserters had been carried the evening before the embarkation on board the English fleet, and from them the general learned that the garrison of Quebec expected that night to receive a convoy of provisions, sent down the river in boats, from the detachment above, commanded by M. de Bougainville. The knowledge of this particular was of the utmost consequence, and tended to deceive the centinels posted along shore to challenge boats and vessels, and give the alarm. The first boat that contained the English troops being questioned accordingly, a captain of Fraser's regiment, who had served in Holland, and was perfectly acquainted with the French language and customs, answered without hesitation to *Qui vit*, which is their challenging word, *De la France*: nor was he at a loss to answer the second question, which was much more particular and difficult. When the centinel demanded *A quel regiment?* to what regiment? the captain replied, *De la reine*, which he knew by accident to be one of those that composed the body commanded by Bougainville. The soldier took it for granted that this was the expected convoy, and saying *Passe*, allowed all the boats to proceed without farther question.

The troops were no sooner landed, than the boats were sent back for a second embarkation, which was under the direction of brigadier Townshend. In the mean time colonel Howe, with the light infantry and Highlanders, ascended the woody precipice with admirable courage and activity; for the narrow path that slanted up the hill from the landing place had been broken up, and rendered impassable by cross-ditches: and in every other part the hill was so steep and dangerous, that the soldiers were obliged to pull themselves up by the roots and boughs of trees, growing on each side of the path. In their passage they dislodged a captain's guard, which defended a passage, by which alone the rest of the troops could reach the summit. After this the whole army mounted without molestation, and the general drew up the troops as fast as they arrived.

M. de Montcalm no sooner understood that the English had gained the heights of Abraham, than he determined to hazard a battle; and collecting his whole force without delay, marched towards the English.

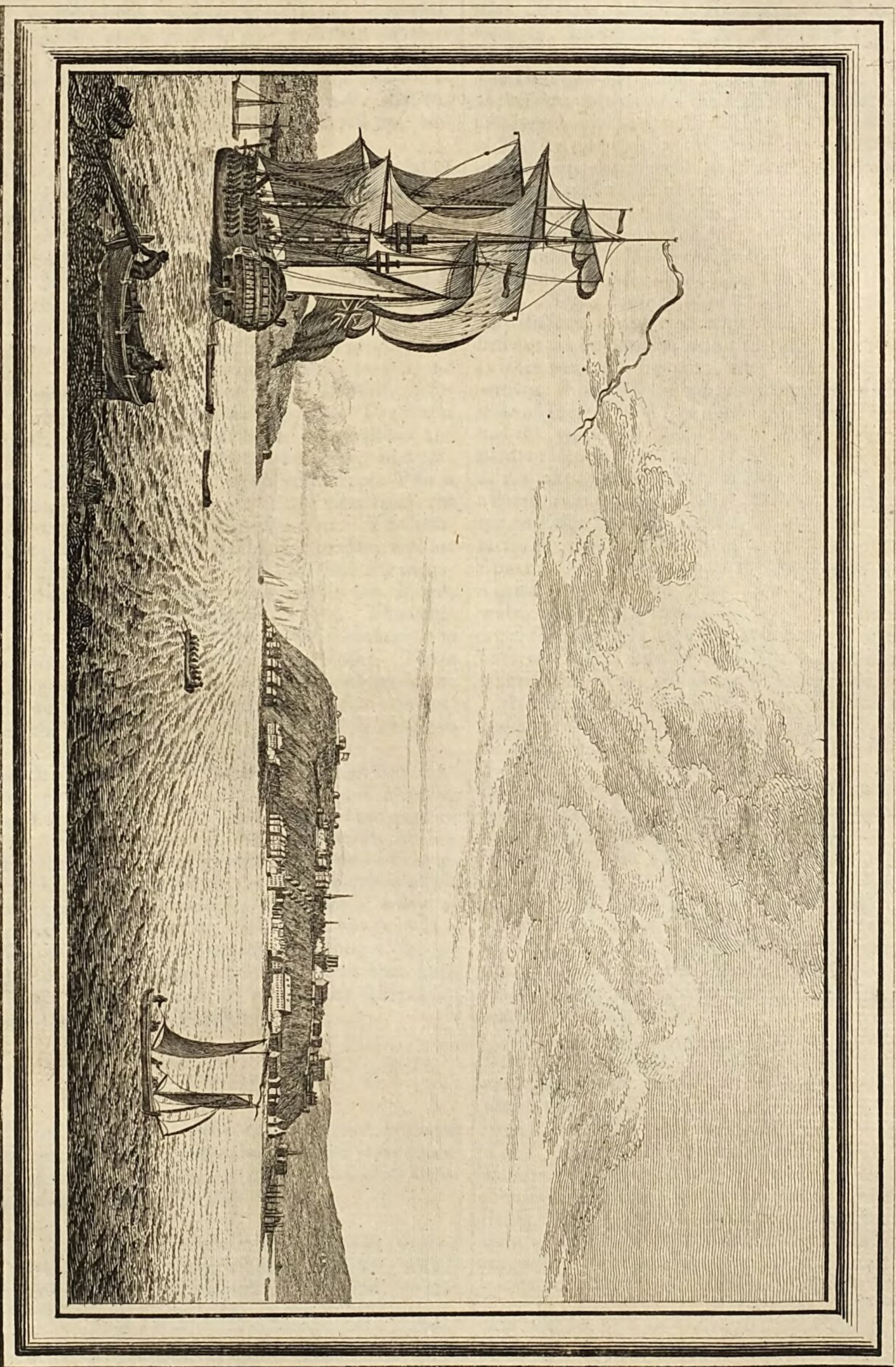
Mean while the brave general Wolfe, perceiving that the French were crossing the river St. Charles, formed his own line; the right commanded by brigadier Monckton, and the left by brigadier Murray, while colonel Howe, who had just returned with his light infantry from taking a four-gun battery, was posted in the rear of the left. M. de Montcalm advancing in such a manner as shewed his intention was to flank the left of the English, brigadier Townshend was sent with the regiment of Amherst, which he formed, presenting a double front to the enemy, and was afterwards reinforced by two battalions. The reserve consisted of one regiment, drawn up in eight sub-divisions, with large intervals. The enemy's right was composed of half the colony troops, and a body of Canadians and Indians: their center consisted of a column of two other regular battalions; and on the left were posted one battalion, and the remainder of the colony troops: the bushes and corn-fields in their front were lined with fifteen hundred of their best marksmen, who kept up an irregular galling fire, which proved fatal to several brave officers, who were singled out for destruction. This fire was indeed choaked by the advanced posts of the British line, who piqueered with the enemy some hours before the battle began. Both armies were almost entirely destitute of artillery; the French having only two pieces, and the English no more than one, which the seamen had with great difficulty drawn up from the landing-place; but this single piece, being well served, galled their columns severely.

The enemy advanced to the charge with great order and vivacity, about nine in the evening, though their fire was both irregular and ineffectual. The British forces, on the contrary, reserved their shot till the French approached within forty yards of their line, when they poured in a terrible discharge, and continued their fire

with such spirit and deliberation, as could not fail of producing a very remarkable effect. The general himself stood in the warmest part of the attack, at the head of Brag's regiment and the Louisburgh grenadiers, conspicuous in the very front of the line, where he was aimed at by the enemy's marksmen, and at last received a shot in his wrist, which, however, did not oblige him to quit the field: wrapping a handkerchief about the wound, he continued to give his orders, without the least emotion; and boldly advanced at the head of the grenadiers, with their bayonets fixed, when another ball unfortunately pierced the breast of the young hero, who fell at the moment when victory was crowning all his labours with success; for at that instant every regiment of the British army seemed to exert itself for the honour of its own peculiar character. While the right pushed on with their bayonets, brigadier Murray advanced briskly with the troops under his command, and soon broke the enemy's center; when the Highlanders, supported by Anstruther's regiment, drawing their broad swords, fell in among them with irresistible impetuosity, driving them with great slaughter into the city, and the works they had raised at the bridge over the river St. Charles. The action was less violent on the left and the rear of the English. Colonel Howe having taken post with two companies, behind a small copse, frequently sallied out on the flanks of the enemy during the attack, and often drove them into heaps, while brigadier Townshend advanced platoons against their front: so that the right wing of the French was prevented from executing their first intention. The brigadier himself continued at the head of Amherst's regiment to support this disposition, and overcome a body of Indians posted opposite to the light infantry, waiting for an opportunity of falling upon the rear of the British army.

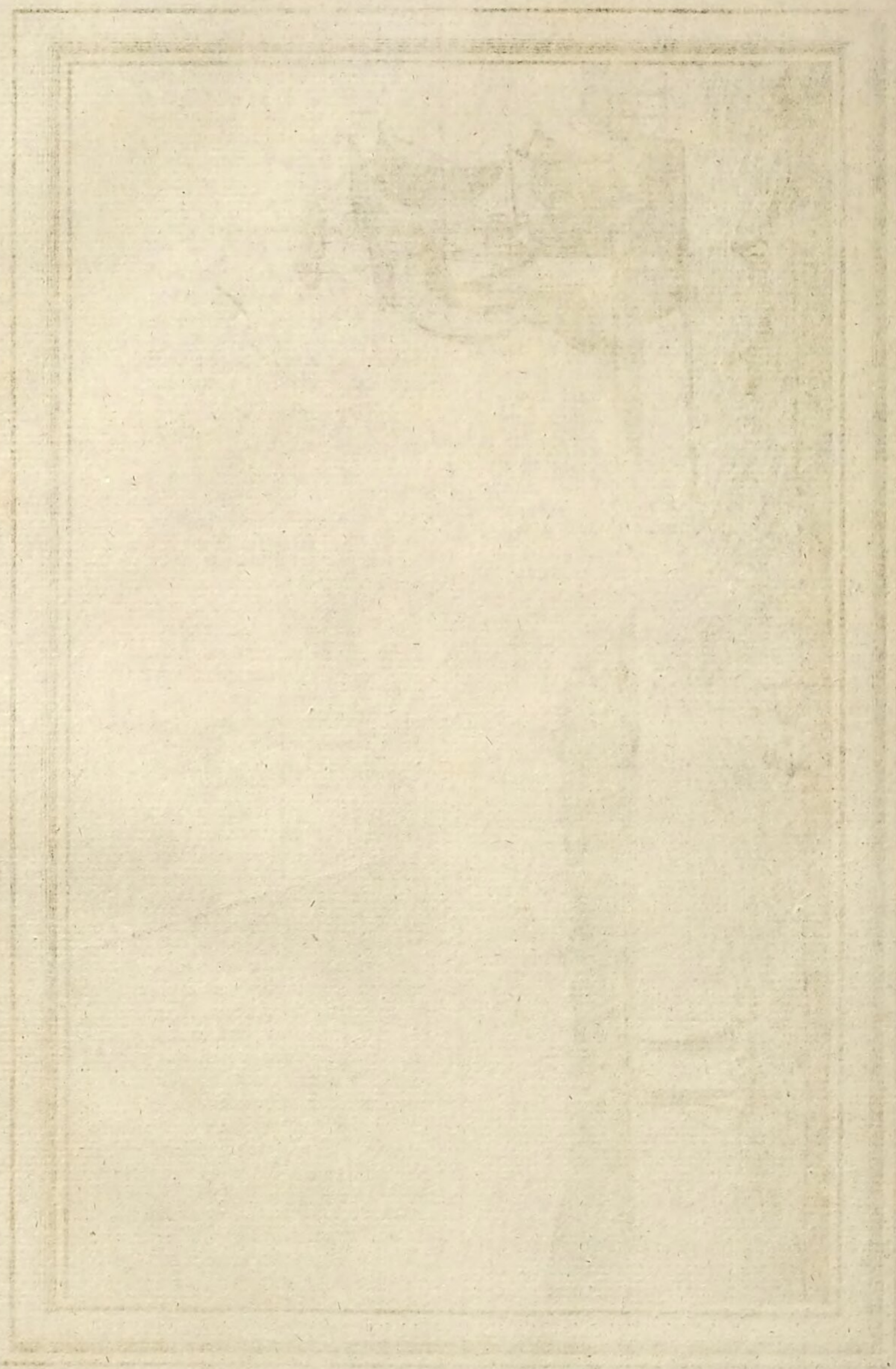
General Wolfe being slain, and Mr. Monckton dangerously wounded at the head of Lascelles's regiment, where he distinguished himself with remarkable gallantry, the command devolved on brigadier Townshend, who hastened to the center; and finding the troops disordered in the pursuit, formed them again with all possible expedition. He had hardly performed this necessary part of his duty, when M. de Bougainville, at the head of two thousand fresh men, appeared in the rear of the English. He had begun his march from Cape Rouge as soon as he received intelligence that the British troops had gained the heights of Abraham; but did not reach the field of battle soon enough to have any share in the action; for this body no sooner approached the British rear, than Mr. Townshend ordered two battalions, with two pieces of artillery, to advance; but the French prevented an attack by retiring among woods and swamps, whither general Townshend, who had already obtained a complete victory, wisely declined pursuing them; he having a great number of French officers prisoners, and being in possession of a very advantageous situation. M. de Montcalm, the French general, was mortally wounded in the battle, and conveyed into Quebec; but before he died wrote a letter to general Townshend, recommending the prisoners to that generous humanity which distinguishes the British nation. His second in command was left wounded on the field, and being conveyed on board an English ship, expired the next day. About a thousand of the enemy were made prisoners, including a great number of officers; and about eight hundred were slain on the field of battle. Among the English army, it is said that no more than fifty men were killed in gaining this important victory, and about five hundred wounded; but the death of general Wolfe was a national loss universally lamented.

This victory was no sooner obtained than admiral Saunders, who had all along heartily assisted the land-forces, for the advantage of the service, sent up all the boats of the fleet with artillery and ammunition; and on the seventeenth sailed up with all the ships of war, in a disposition to attack the Lower Town, while the Upper should be assaulted by general Townshend. That gentleman had employed his whole time since the action in securing the camp with redoubts; in forming a military-road for the cannon; in drawing up the artillery; preparing



A View of QUEBEC from the Basin.

Robert Smith.



paring batteries; and cutting off the enemy's communication with the country. But on the seventeenth, before any battery could be finished, a flag of truce was sent from the city, with proposals for a capitulation; which were accepted and signed at eight o'clock next morning. By these articles it was agreed, that the garrison should march out with all the honours of war, and be sent to France: that the inhabitants, on their laying down their arms, should be maintained in the possession of their houses and effects: that the effects belonging to the absent officers should not be touched: that the exercise of the Roman religion should be fully permitted: that the artillery and warlike stores should be delivered up; and the sick and wounded taken care of.

Thus was the city of Quebec taken by a handful of troops, and at the signing of the peace was confirmed to Great Britain.

The most considerable place, next to Quebec, is Montreal, which is seated on an island of the same name in the river St. Lawrence, upwards of two hundred miles above Quebec, and is nearly as large and populous as that city. The island of Montreal is exceeding fertile, and well improved, producing great plenty of greens, and some fruit. It is about twenty-eight miles in length, and ten in breadth. The town is pretty well fortified, and is much more pleasantly situated than Quebec. The streets are regular, and the houses well built, commodious, and agreeable. It stands by the side of the river, on a gradual easy ascent to what is called the Upper Town, whence you may see every house at one view from the harbour, or from the south side of the river. The public buildings exceed those of Quebec for beauty, and are equal to them in number. The Hotel-Dieu, the magazines, and the place of arms, are in the Lower Town, which is also the residence of the merchants. The seminary, the parish-church, the house of the Resolutes, the Jesuits-college, and nunneries, are in the Upper. There is also a general hospital, and a church belonging to the Jesuits, which is large and well built. The principal trade of the inhabitants has long consisted in the skins and furs they purchase of the Indians.

This island and city were taken on the eighth of September, 1760, by the generals Amherst and Murray, without firing a gun, which completed the conquest of Canada; for by the terms of the capitulation, all the French forces in that country were to be sent to France. Montreal has lately suffered by a most terrible fire, which consumed great part of the city, the houses of many of the merchants, and a number of stately buildings. This dreadful loss instantly awakened the humanity of the inhabitants of this kingdom, and great sums have been raised in the city of London, to remove the distresses of these new subjects to the British crown.

S E C T. IV.

Of the interior Country of North America beyond the present Government of Canada; with a concise Account of the Rivers and Lakes, their Cataracts, and a Description of the Countries and Indian Nations on their Banks.

THE river of St. Lawrence is represented as running through a considerable number of lakes, which some represent in Canada, and others on its southern and western borders; but surely nothing can be more improper, than to trace the course of a river through a number of lakes of a prodigious extent, merely because those lakes have in some part or other of them a communication by a streight.

As these lakes are generally described in treating of Canada, it will be proper here to give some account of them, and of the Indians who dwell upon their banks. The farthest of these lakes, from which the river St. Lawrence is injudiciously supposed to arise, is named Nippissong, which in the English language signifies a large body of water. It is seated to the north-west of Lake Superior, in the fifty-second degree of latitude. The northern bank of this lake is a bog, or morass, near four hundred miles in length, from the north-east to the south-west,

and about a hundred and fifty miles broad. To the north of this bog is a ridge of mountains, extending from the north-east to the south-west, the whole length of the marshy country, and beyond it to the westward: these are very high and steep, and are supposed to be the most lofty mountains in North America, whence they are called the Head of the country. To the south-east of these rises a stream, which is supposed to be the head of the river St. Lawrence; on the north-east rises the river Christino, which runs to the north-eastward, till it falls into Hudson's-bay; and from the south and south-west of these mountains rises the Mississippi, which runs to the southward, and at length discharges itself into the gulph of Mexico; so that by these rivers the country is divided into so many departments as it were from a center, which may be placed at the above mountains.

The Indians who inhabit the country round this lake are called the Lake Indians, and have about five or six thousand men. They chiefly live upon the west, south, and south-east sides of the lake, and on the islands it contains. Their country is of considerable extent, but of very difficult access; on which account they have had little or no connection with the English or French; and as they have no fire-arms, they hunt with bows and arrows. They seldom concern themselves with any other tribe of Indians, and live almost as independent as if they had the world to themselves. They never pretend to plant or improve the land by labour, but live on such food as the lake and the country affords them. From this lake a stream runs through a rough, broken, uninhabited country to Lake Superior, having in its course several cataracts, the most remarkable of which is about fifteen miles from the lake, where the water falls perpendicularly from a great height. The river here is a quarter of a mile wide, and a rock extending across the stream, it falls from thence with a noise that may be heard at the distance of several miles. Below these falls is great plenty of fish, especially of trout, which are very large and good.

At the entrance of this river into the lake is a town of Indians, called the Attawawas, or Souties, which dwell all along by the mouths of the rivers that fall into Lake Superior. They can raise about twelve thousand fighting men, and by carrying on a considerable commerce with the French, are more improved than the Nippissongs. They live in huts built in the form of cones; the base is generally from sixteen to twenty feet wide, and the top is left open for about two feet for a chimney and a window, their fire being kindled in the center. To render these huts a defence against the cold, they cover them with mats of rushes, which they weave very neatly, and place in such a manner as to render these dwellings, which commonly contain ten or twelve persons, very warm and comfortable.

When these people remove from one place to another for the sake of hunting, fishing, or any other convenience, they carry their external covering with them; by which means they are able, in a short time, to erect new towns, which have all the convenience of the old ones. They generally change their habitations in spring and autumn; spending the summer season upon the banks of the rivers and lakes, where they fish and raise corn; and living during the winter among the mountains, sometimes two or three hundred miles distant, for the sake of meeting with a great quantity of game in hunting. They as yet make but little use of spirituous liquors; nor do they make any kind of drink, except of the juice of the maple-tree: when in health they live upon the simple gifts of nature, and when sick the woods and lakes furnish them with all the drugs they use; in the application of which some are allowed to have a superior skill, but ask no fee or reward for their trouble. They have private property, which they transfer to one another, by way of bargain and exchange; which, if taken from them unfairly, brings contempt on the aggressor; but there can here be little temptation to fraud or robbery, as no individual or family is allowed to suffer by poverty, sickness, or any other misfortune, while their neighbours can supply their wants.

On the north of Lake Superior is another tribe of the Indians called the Bulls. These dwell round what is called the

the North Bay, and differ little from the Souties in their manners, they being originally of the same nation, as appears by there being such an affinity between the two languages, that they can perfectly understand one another. They can raise about four thousand fighting men, and their chief trade is to Hudson's-bay, where they carry fur and ermines in great abundance, and exchange them for blankets, arms, and ammunition.

Lake Superior is described by major Rogers as two thousand miles in circumference, and is very deep, except near the west end, where are several islands; and near the place where it is joined by the river is a large island, separated from the main by a strait five or six miles wide. The soil of this island is very good, and on it are several Indian towns. The banks to the north, south, and east, are very high and steep, they rising in some places above two hundred feet from the surface of the water, and almost perpendicular; so that it is very difficult landing, except where the rivers of this island fall into the lake. There are also some good islands in the north bay of the lake, forty or fifty miles in length, but not near so much in breadth.

The Indians in this territory enjoy the greatest plenty of the necessaries, and even of the luxuries of life. Here are beasts, fowl, and fish, of every size and kind common to the climate, in the greatest abundance; and it may become a rich and valuable country, should it ever be inhabited by a civilized people. It has not only rivers, but what may be termed a sea of its own, which, by its communication with the river of St. Lawrence, makes great amends for its inland situation, by affording all the advantages of trade and commerce, from one part of the country to the other, by a cheap and easy conveyance; nor do the Indians entirely neglect this advantage, but make great use of canoes on the rivers and lakes. These they form of the bark of birch, spruce, and elm; but those made of the former are said to be much the largest and best, as they are well suited to the country; since they will carry from four or five hundred to two thousand weight, and are so light that a single Indian, on his coming to a cataract, will carry it upon his back, till he thinks proper to take the water again.

Lake Superior has a communication with Lake Huron by a strait upwards of a hundred and fifty miles in length. The stream is here generally very rapid, and has one considerable cataract, round which the Indians are obliged to carry their canoes when they pass this way. The land near the strait between the two lakes is hilly and broken, but a great deal of it is capable of being improved to good advantage. The timber is thick and lofty; iron ore is here found in the greatest plenty; this is said to be the best in America: and there are streams sufficient for any kind of water-works.

Lake Huron, which is nine hundred miles in circumference, is of a triangular form; one of the extremities points to the north-west at the straits of Michlimacana; another to the south, where a strait runs into the lake of Erie; and a third to the north-east, where a considerable stream flows into it, called the Souties river, from which there is but a short carrying-place to the river of the Attawawas, which joins the river of St. Lawrence near Montreal.

The country about Lake Huron is to the north and north-west rocky and mountainous; but on the south-east the land is low, and covered with lofty trees, as oaks, white-pine, walnut, ash, and maple. On the south-west the land is level and plain, having few trees upon it of any kind, but the soil is pretty good and covered with tall grass; among which are great plenty of deer, elk, bears, and racoons. It also abounds in a great variety of land and water-fowl, and every thing necessary to supply the natural wants of mankind. There are about three thousand inhabitants who dwell round this lake, six hundred of whom are capable of bearing arms.

On the west side of the above plain is Lake Michigan, which is nearly of the same form as Lake Huron; but is larger, and extends farther to the south. Between these lakes a communication is formed by the strait of Michlimacana, which is fifteen miles wide, and forty

in length. At the point adjoining to Lake Michigan stands our fort of Michlimacana, which is a good stockade near twenty feet high. There are in this place some French inhabitants, who come here for the sake of trading with the Indians, and for the trout-fishery, which is here very valuable: the trout in these straits being in great plenty; and of an extraordinary size, some having been taken that weighed upwards of eighty pounds. The Indians annually resort hither from all the adjacent countries for the sake of these fish, and yet their numbers seem to be not at all diminished. On the south-east side of Lake Michigan are some towns of the Souties; and on the south and west sides live the Pottawatamies. In short, the Indians around this lake amount to about four thousand fighting men.

On the north-west side of Lake Michigan is a strait about forty miles wide, and a hundred long, in which are many islands, some of which are inhabited by the Attawawas, and others by the Pottawatamies. This strait leads into what is called the Green-bay, a lake of considerable extent, into which flows a large river that lies between Lake Superior and the Mississippi, and is called the river of Foxes. On the banks of this river live a nation called the Fox Indians, who have no less than four or five thousand men.

The extended country upon this river, and on the strait from the lake of Michigan to the Green-bay, is uniformly fertile and pleasant, and wants nothing but the cultivation of an industrious people to render it perfectly delightful. The timber is tall, but not so thick as to prevent the growth of grass, which is here so luxuriant as to rise five or six feet in height. This invites a multitude of buffaloes, wild cows, elk, deer, bears, beavers, and other animals, which, with plenty of wild game and fish, render this a most desirable region, for the air is no less agreeable than the soil. The winters are never severe, and, during great part of the year, the country wears a delightful verdure. Here also grow spontaneously a great variety of grapes, which are agreeable to the taste, and might be improved to considerable advantage. The Indians have learned that their juice will revive the spirits, and therefore make from them a kind of rough claret; but not knowing how to manage it properly, it is greatly inferior to what it might be made under the management of skilful persons; and this liquor they put in their empty rum-kegs. This country likewise produces a kind of wild oats, or rice, which grows in the greatest plenty in shallow water, above which it rises two or three feet. The ear resembles that of oats, but the kernel is more like rice; and there is so much of it, that canoes may be loaded in a short time. The Indians in this country raise Indian-corn, and have many horses. Their cabins resemble those described near Lake Superior.

From the south point of Lake Huron a strait, as hath been already observed, runs easterly about eighty miles into Lake Erie, passing in its way through Lake St. Clair. The country on both sides is level and good, abounding with tall oaks, maple, &c. The strait on its entering Lake St. Clair, or, as it is sometimes called, Lake Sinclair, is divided into several branches, which form five or six islands of various dimensions. Lake St. Clair is nearly circular, and about eighteen miles over. On the east side are large marshes, and at the lower end of that side a strait of a considerable size enters it, from which, by a short carrying-place, is an easy conveyance to Lake Ontario, used by the inhabitants who dwell on its banks.

The strait at the entrance of Lake Erie forms a bay, below which is the fort of Detroit, and the French are settled on both sides of the strait for about eight miles. The English fort is built of stockades: it is about twenty-five feet high, and twelve hundred yards in circumference. It is in a pleasant situation, the land is very good, and the inhabitants not only raise a great deal of wheat and other grain, but have plenty of cattle. They, however, chiefly enrich themselves by their trade with the Indians, which is here very lucrative.

Lake Erie extends three hundred miles in length from the south-west to the north-east; it is eighty or ninety miles

miles wide at the westerly end, and about forty at the lower end, where it tapers off to seven or eight miles, near the streight which joins it to Lake Ontario. At the west end of the lake the river Miamée flows into it, which has an easy communication with the Ohio by the river Walbach, there being no more than twelve miles land-carriage between the two rivers. At the south-west corner of Lake Erie the Lake Sandusky has a communication with it by a streight half a mile broad. This last lake is thirty miles in length, and eight or ten wide. Into it flows the river Sandusky, or Huron, upon the banks of which, and round the Sandusky, the Huron Indians have several towns in a very pleasant fertile country; they can raise about six or seven hundred fighting men, and differ in their manners from any of the Indians yet mentioned. They build regular houses, which they cover with bark, and are esteemed the richest Indians upon the whole continent, they having not only many horses, but some black cattle and swine. They likewise raise great quantities of corn, not only for their own use, but in order to supply other tribes, who purchase it of them. Their country extends a hundred and fifty miles to the westward of the lake, and is a hundred miles broad. The soil is not exceeded by any in this part of the world; the timber is tall and beautiful; the woods abound with game; here is the greatest plenty of water-fowl, and both the rivers and lakes contain a variety of fish. In short, if it was properly improved, the land would equal that in any of the British colonies on the sea-coasts.

The country on the south side is claimed by the Indians of the Five Nations, who do not inhabit it, but keep it for the sake of hunting. The country is level and very fine for several miles, having many streams flowing through it into the lake. Our fort at Presque Isle is on the south side about a hundred miles from the east end; and from this fort is a carrying-place of about twelve or fourteen miles, to a branch of the Ohio. From the east end of Lake Erie a streight runs north easterly about fifty miles, and nearly opposite to the place where it leaves the lake is Fort Erie, which has been lately built. The current from thence is rapid, on account of the rocks and falls of the water for about a mile; yet vessels are worked up by the help of windlasses. Lower down are several small islands, and at about six or seven miles distance the streight is divided into two branches, which form the Great Island, which extends almost to Little Niagara fort, and contains forty thousand acres of good land.

Near Little Niagara fort, which is nothing more than a stockade, is a remarkable cataract in the streight which runs into Lake Ontario, and is generally called the river of St. Lawrence. Its course is here south-south-east, and it is about half a mile wide, where the rock crosses it in the form of a half moon. Above the fall is an island, about half a mile in length, the lower end of which extends to the edge of the fall. The current of the streight above the island is quite slow, but on its approaching it, and being divided, it runs more swiftly, and, before it comes to the fall, with great violence, especially on the west side of the island, where the whole stream appears in a foam, for even here the descent is equal to the side of a pretty steep hill: but when it comes to the perpendicular fall, which is an hundred and fifty feet, no words can express the consternation of the traveller, on his first seeing so great a body of water falling, or rather violently thrown from such a height upon the rocks below, from which it again rebounds, appearing white as snow, it being all converted into foam, through these repeated violent agitations. The noise of this fall is frequently heard at the distance of fifteen miles, and sometimes much farther. The vapour that rises from it resembles a cloud, or pillar of smoke, and in it may be seen the appearance of a rainbow, whenever the sun and the position of the traveller favours it. Many beasts and fowls here lose their lives, by attempting to swim across the rapid stream above, and are found dashed in pieces below.

Farther down the stream are smaller falls for several miles, which render the streight unnavigable. Its bank on the east side is three hundred feet high, till you come to another English fort nine miles distant from Little Niagara; and this length goods are obliged to be carried by

land, on account of the cataract and the many lesser falls of the streight. Perhaps no place in the world is frequented by such a number of eagles as this, they being invited hither by the deer, elks, and bears, which are dashed to pieces.

The streight enters Lake Ontario at the south-west corner, at which place is Niagara fort, an handsome well-built fortification of considerable strength. This lake is of an oval form, two hundred and sixty miles in length, and a hundred and fifty wide in the middle. At its south-eastern extremity the river Oswego falls into it, where we have another fort, and a garrison kept up of considerable force. This is about two hundred miles from Niagara. The river Oswego rises from Lake Oneida, which is about thirty miles in length, and has at the east end a royal block-house, which is garrisoned to keep up a communication with the lakes: at the west end is Fort Brewerton, another post built for the same purpose; and about half way between this and Oswego is a block-house to command the ferry over the Seneca river.

The country between Oswego and the river St. Lawrence is level and good for several miles, and belongs to the Five Nations; several rivers flow through it, the most considerable of which is the Sable, which joins the Lake Ontario eighty or ninety miles east of Niagara, and rises near a branch of the Ohio. In it are several cataracts, and one higher than that of Niagara. About a hundred and fifty miles up this river are remarkable springs greatly esteemed by the Indians, as a remedy for many diseases: they are called the oil-springs on account of an oleous substance that issues forth with the water, and rises upon its surface. The water of these springs is drank by the Indians as a remedy for consumptions, asthmas, and various internal disorders; and they bathe in it with great success for rheumatic pains and strains. In the rivers round Lake Ontario are great plenty of salmon during the summer season; and at the entrance of the river St. Lawrence are in the winter abundance of what are called white fish, of which there are said to be none else in America, except a few at Long Point. In summer they disappear, and are supposed, during that season, to lie in deep water, out of soundings. They are about the size of a shad, very agreeable to the palate, and it does not appear that there are any of them in Europe. The country round the lake is, to appearance, fertile, capable of valuable improvements, and abounds with water-fowl and variety of game.

The Five Nations have their towns at some distance from the lake, chiefly upon the rivers that flow into it; but of these people we shall hereafter give a particular description.

The river St. Lawrence, on its taking leave of the lake, is ten or twelve miles wide, and has several islands; on the most northerly of which is a small fortress erected by the French, and now kept by us. A little to the south of this island it is joined by a considerable stream, that rises near Hudson's-bay, far to the north; it is called Oswegotchy, and has frequent falls, after ascending it forty or fifty miles. The above island is about twenty miles below the lake, and here the river grows narrower.

From Lake Ontario to the Cedars, the present western boundary of the province of Quebec, is about eighty miles; and from thence to Lake St. Francis is near the same distance, and is considered as the next stage of St. Lawrence.

We shall conclude this subject with a concise account of the river Christino, which runs far to the north, and shall leave the Mississippi and Ohio till we come to the more southern provinces subject to Great Britain.

The river Christino is so called from the Indians, who have the name of Christineux, or Christinos, who possess the country adjoining it. Its highest source is on the north-east of the Central mountains, called by the Indians the Head of the Country, where it rises in several streams, all which bend their course towards Hudson's-bay, and at different places unite, till in the course of about a hundred and fifty miles from their source they all join, and by their confluence form a large bay, round which live a tribe of Christians. Farther down the river are a few small lakes, and several small streams on each

side flow into the river; by which means its waters are encreased, till it discharges itself into Hudson's-bay, near two hundred miles to the north of York fort, and about five hundred from the Central mountains.

The country near this river is greatly inferior to that on the lakes and the river St. Lawrence, it extending from the fifty-fifth to the sixtieth degree of north latitude. The winters are long and severe, the snow continues long on the ground, and the soil, which is cold and barren, is scarce capable of any valuable improvements. The timber here is beech and maple, and for a considerable way up the river the land is high; and so thickly covered with spruce, hemlock, &c. that it is difficult to travel through it, without being entangled; but nearer the mountains the soil is better. In the river are many kinds of fish; and beaver are taken here in great abundance, with some ermines, elks, moose, bears, &c. There is likewise an animal which resembles the moose, but is much smaller, and seems peculiar to this country.

The inhabitants subsist entirely on their fish and game, for they raise no kind of grain, nor keep any animals, except dogs. The number of warriors in this country is supposed to amount to about two thousand. They generally cover their houses or huts with the skins of wild beasts; and not only make them warm and secure, but, according to their taste, both neat and elegant. These Indians have nearly the same language with those on the lakes; and, according to their own history, they all came round from the north into this country. Indeed, the only history they have is a verbal one, transmitted from father to son; yet they pretend to give an exact account for many generations back; for however negligent they are in the education of their children in almost every other respect, they are very careful in acquainting them with the story of their ancestors.

S E C T. V.

The most remarkable Beasts and Birds in the interior Part of North America.

THE beasts and birds we shall here describe are those principally found in the northern part of the extensive country of which we have been treating, and particularly those near the river Christino. The most remarkable of these are the porcupine, and the wolverene, or quick-hatch; the pelican, the white-tailed eagle, the brown and spotted heath-cock, and the white partridge.

The porcupine of this northern part resembles in shape and size the beaver; but the head has some resemblance to that of a rabbit: it has a flat nose, entirely covered with hair: its mouth is armed with two teeth above and two below, that are yellow and remarkably strong: its ears, which are short and small, scarcely appear through its fur: its legs too are remarkably short; but its claws, of which it has four on its fore-feet, and five on those behind, are very long, hollow within like scoops, and very sharp-pointed. This animal is covered all over with a pretty soft fur about four inches long; but beneath the hair on the head, body, and tail, it is thick set with sharp stiff quills, which are white with black points, bearded, and not easily drawn out when they have entered the skin. The porcupine usually makes his nest under the roots of large trees, and sleeps much. He chiefly feeds upon the bark of trees, eats snow in the winter to quench his thirst, and in summer drinks water; but carefully avoids going into it. The Indians eat these animals, and esteem their flesh a wholesome and pleasant food.

The wolverene, or quick-hatch, is another very extraordinary animal, and is of the size of a large wolf: the snout, with the upper and under jaw, as far as the eyes, is black; the upper part of the head whitish; the eyes dark; the throat and upper part of the neck white spotted with black; the ears small and round; the whole body of a reddish brown, darker at the shoulders and rump, and lighter upon the back and sides. The fur of the whole body is pretty long, but not very close: the feet as far as the first joint, are covered with short black hair; but the legs are brown, and the claws of a light colour:

most of the tail is brown, but towards the tip bushy and black. This creature in walking carries his head very low, so that his back rises archwise. He defends himself when attacked with great force and obstinacy, and it is said will tear traps and gins to pieces in a very surprising manner.

The pelican is somewhat bigger than a large tame goose; the upper mandible of the bill is narrower in the middle than at either end, and is received into the lower, except towards the point, which widens and receives the lower into it; the point is red, but the upper and under part towards the head are yellow: the pouch when dry resembles an ox's bladder blown, and is prodigiously large while the creature is living. The head and neck are covered with white feathers; the body is of a dirty ash-colour; the quills of the wings are black, and all the under part is of a dark ash-colour. The legs are short, with four toes webbed together; the middle toe is longer than the leg; the claws are dark, and both the legs and feet are of a dirty yellow mixed with green. These birds live chiefly on fish; they are found in many other countries, and in some places are much larger.

The white-tailed eagle is about the bigness of a turkey-cock, flat-crowned, short-necked, and full breasted, with brawny thighs. Its wings are very long, and broad in proportion to its body; but darker on the back, and lighter on the sides. The quills of the wings are black, and the breast spotted with white: the tail when closed is white both above and below, except the very tip of the feathers, which is black or brown: the thighs are covered with dark brown feathers, through which in some places a white down appears: the legs, to the very feet, are covered with soft feathers of a reddish brown. It has four toes on each foot, which are very thick and strong, standing three forward and one backward, covered with yellow scales, and armed with very strong and sharp claws of a shining black. There are also several kinds of falcons, hawks, and other birds of prey.

The great horned-owl is a very singular bird, with a head very little inferior in size to that of a cat; what are called the horns, are composed of feathers rising just above the bill, intermixed at the bottom with white, becoming of a red brown by degrees, and tipped with black. The great white owl of a bright shining colour, so as scarce to be distinguished from the snow, is also common in the northern part of this country, and continues there throughout the whole year, where it is frequently seen flying by day, and preys upon white partridges.

The white partridge is common in some other countries, but is no where in such plenty as in the northern part of this near Hudson's-bay. It is of a middle size, between that of our common partridge and the pheasant, shaped very much like the former, except its tail being somewhat longer. These birds are mostly brown in summer, but in the winter become perfectly white, except the outward feathers of the tail, which are black tipped with white. In that severe season they repose in the snow all night, and in the morning fly directly up to shake it off their feathers. They stay in these parts all the year, feed only in the mornings and evenings, and sun themselves in the middle of the day.

The brown and spotted heath-cock, which also continues in the north all the year, is somewhat bigger than an English partridge; it is likewise longer-bodied, and has a longer tail in proportion. The bill is black, covered with brown feathers; the skin above the eye red; the top of the head, the upper part of the neck, and down the back covered with feathers of a dark brown, mixed with a dull orange and ash-colour: the tail is of a dark brown, the throat under the bill of a yellowish white; the neck and breast of a dull orange, with spots in the form of half moons. The legs from the knee joint down to the feet are covered with a kind of hairy feathers of a brown colour, intermixed with black: the feet are of a reddish brown; and three toes forward have pretty long and black claws; these toes are jagged; but the hinder toes are smooth on the sides.

S E C T. VI.

A particular Description of the Persons, Dress, Customs, Manners, Religion, and Government of the Five Nations and other Indians: their Method of going to War, the Manner in which it is carried on, and Peace concluded, &c.

WE shall now more particularly describe the customs and manners of the Indians who inhabit the interior part of America. They formerly inhabited the sea-coasts, where they were very numerous; but have retired into the westerly parts of the country, so that few of them are to be found within less than two or three hundred miles of the sea: for though many of them have been instructed in the knowledge of Christianity, and parcels of land have been allotted them in several of the British colonies, where they have been formed into societies; yet it has been found that in proportion as they lay by their ancient customs, and conform to our manner of life, they dwindle away, either because the change is prejudicial to their constitutions, or because when settled among the English they have greater opportunities of procuring spirituous liquors, of which both sexes are generally inordinately fond; very little care being ever taken to prevent those who are inclined to take advantage of them in trade, from basely intoxicating them for that infamous purpose: this has a worse effect on their constitutions than on ours, and soon proves fatal, producing diseases to which they were formerly strangers. Thus where a few years ago there were considerable settlements of them, their name is almost forgotten; and those who still remain, have, for the most part, joined themselves to other nations in the interior part of the country, on the banks of the lakes and rivers.

The Indians of America are tall and straight beyond the proportion of most other nations: their bodies are strong; but it has been observed, that this is a strength rather suited to endure much hardship, and the exercises of the chase, than much hard labour, by which they are soon consumed; hence it has been said to be rather the strength of a beast of prey, than that of a beast of burden; an odious comparison when speaking of the human species: however, they have generally straight supple limbs, and the least degree of deformity is very rarely seen amongst them. Their features are regular, their complexion somewhat of a copper colour, or a reddish brown; their hair, which is long, black, and lank, is as strong as that of a horse; and what is very singular, is their not having any beards, nor hair on any part of their body but the head.

They generally wear only a blanket wrapped about them, or a shirt, both which they purchase of us: but when the Europeans first came amongst them they found some nations entirely naked, and others with a coarse cotton cloth, wove by themselves, round their waist: but in the northern parts their whole bodies were in winter covered with skins.

Among the various nations and tribes within the vast extent of country of which we have just given a description, the Five Nations deserve particular notice; these being dreaded and revered by all the others for their superior understanding, activity, and valour in war; in which constant practice has rendered them expert, they being generally at war with one nation or other, and sometimes with several at a time. Their manners, customs, and modes of dress, are, as near as possible, adopted by several of the other nations; and those are esteemed the politest and best bred, who the nearest resemble these. Their most northern settlement is a town called Chockonawago, on the south of the river St. Lawrence, opposite to Montreal; but their largest settlements are at the head of the rivers Mohocktanese, Oneida, and Oneneaga, between Lake Ontario and the provinces of New York and Pennsylvania. They claim the whole country that lies to the south of the river St. Lawrence, as far as the Ohio, and down that river to the Wabach, from the mouth of the Wabach to the bounds of Virginia: on the westward they extended to the lakes of Ontario and Erie, and to the river Miami: their eastern boundaries are Lake Champlain and the British

colonies. When the English first settled in America, they were able to raise fifteen thousand fighting men; but at present, including the Delawares and Shawanees, they do not amount to more than between three and four thousand. Thus have they been reduced by the perpetual wars they have carried on against the other Indians and the French in Canada.

The Mohocks, once the most numerous tribe among them, are now the smallest; yet still maintain a superiority over the rest, and are consulted and appealed to by the others in all great emergencies. About a hundred years ago they destroyed the greatest part of the Hurons, who dwell on the south side of the lake of Ontario; and the remainder fled for protection to the French in Canada; but most of them have since returned to their own country, and, by permission of the Five Nations, dwell on the lands at the west end of Lake Erie. The Mohocks also made prisoners of the whole nation of the Shawanees, who lived upon the Wabach, and afterwards, by the mediation of Mr. Penn, at the first settlement of Pennsylvania, gave them liberty to settle in the westerly parts of that province, giving them the appellation of cousins, and allowing them to claim kindred with the Five Nations, as their uncles. They about the same time conquered the Delawares, whom they brought into a like subjection; and also the Mickanders, or Mohegons, who dwelt on the banks of Hudson's river. The two last nations they suffered to live in any uninhabited part of their southern territories; but the latter upon condition of paying them an annual tribute. They also conquered several nations upon the frontiers of New England.

Some nations to this day are not allowed to appear painted at any general meeting, or congress, where the Five Nations attend; that being an express article in the capitulations. They have been the inveterate enemies of the French ever since their first settlement in Canada; and are almost the only Indians within many hundred miles that have been proof against their solicitations to turn against us; the greatest part of them having maintained their integrity, and been our faithful friends and allies. They once burnt great part of the city of Montreal, and put the French into great consternation. They have conquered most of the Abnaques, or eastern Indians; and now maintain a constant war with the Cherokees, Chickesaws, and Creeks, against whom many of their young men are annually sent; while others of them go against the Misauri; and, indeed, they sometimes carry their hostilities as far south as the isthmus of Darien; but have long lived in peace with the Indians on the lakes and the Tweeghtwees.

The Indians are far from being deficient in good sense and ingenuity, many of them shewing a great capacity for some art or science. They have strong imaginations, and their memories are so retentive, that when they have been once at a place, let it be ever so distant or obscure, they will readily find it again. Thus the Indians about Nova Scotia, and the gulph of St. Lawrence, have frequently passed over to Labrador, which is thirty or forty leagues, without a compass, and have landed on the very spot they intended: even in dark cloudy weather they will direct their course by land with great exactness, merely by observing the bark and boughs of trees; the north side in this country being always mossy, and the boughs on the south side the largest.

Poligamy is practised by some nations, but it is not general. In most they are contented with one wife; but a divorce is admitted for the same causes that it was allowed among the Greeks and Romans: but no nation of the American Indians is without a regular marriage, in which are many ceremonies, the principal of which is said to be the bride's presenting the bridegroom a plate of corn.

Though the women are incontinent before wedlock, their chastity after marriage is remarkable. The punishment of the adulterer, as well as the adulteress, is in the hands of the husband himself, and is often severe, as being inflicted by one who is both the injured party and the judge. Their marriages are not remarkably fruitful, they seldom producing above three or four children; and these are brought forth with much less pain than our women suffer upon the like occasions, and

are immediately followed but with little diminution of their usual strength. The mothers are so fond of their children, that they seldom wean them till they are upward of two years old, and carry them on their backs till the burden becomes quite insupportable. They can no sooner walk, than they are at liberty to go when and where they please; but their parents carefully instruct them very early in the use of arms, and frequently relate to them the exploits and great achievements of their ancestors; in order to lead them on to brave and heroic actions. They introduce them very young into their public councils, and make them acquainted with the most important affairs and transactions: this accustoms them to secrecy, gives them a composed and manly air, inspires them with emulation, and makes them bold and enterprising. They seldom chastise their children; for when they are young, they observe that they are not sufficiently endowed with reason; for if they were, they would not do wrong: when they are more advanced in life, they say that they do not then chastise them, because, being capable of judging, they ought to be masters of their own actions, and not be accountable to any one. In the same manner they excuse any ill treatment they receive from a person in liquor: "Should we blame" or punish him, say they, when he has not his reason, "and does not know what he does?" Yet when a mother sees her daughter act amiss, she generally bursts into tears, and upon the other enquiring the cause, she tells her the reason, and this admonition seldom fails of the desired effect.

The Indians do not always enter into a formal obligation of marriage; but take a wife for a longer or shorter time, as they please; but their children, on these occasions, suffer no disgrace, and enjoy all the privileges of those begotten in marriage.

The men are remarkable for their indolence, on which they even seem to value themselves, saying that labour would degrade them, and belongs solely to the women, while they are formed only for war, hunting, and fishing: it is, however, their business to make arms for hunting and lines for fishing; to form their canoes, and to build and repair their houses; but they frequently make the women assist them in these, besides attending all domestic affairs, and cultivating the land.

The Indians are generally possessed with an astonishing patience and equanimity of mind, with the command of every passion except revenge. They bear the most sudden and unexpected misfortune with calmness and composure, without uttering a word, or the least change of countenance. Even a prisoner, who knows not whether he may not in a few hours be put to a most cruel death, seems entirely unconcerned, and eats and drinks with as much cheerfulness as those into whose hands he has fallen. Their resolution and courage under sickness and pain, is really astonishing. Nothing is more common than to see persons of all ages, and both sexes, supporting themselves with the utmost constancy under the greatest pains and calamities; even when under the shocking torture to which prisoners are frequently exposed, they will not only make themselves cheerful, but provoke and irritate their tormenters by the most severe reproaches.

They treat those in alliance with them with an high degree of complaisance and good nature.

They are grave in their deportment upon serious occasions, observant of those in company, respectful to the old; of a temper cool and deliberate, by which they are never in haste to speak before they have well thought of the matter, and sure the person who spoke before them has finished all he had to say. In their public councils, every man is heard in his turn, according as his years, his wisdom, or his services to his country, have ranked him. Not a whisper, nor a murmur is heard from the rest, while he speaks; no indecent commendations; no ill-timed applause. The young attend for their instruction; for here they learn the history of their nation, are animated by those who celebrate the warlike actions of their ancestors; are taught what is the interest of their country, and how to pursue it.

The laws of hospitality are executed among them with the utmost generosity and good-will. Their houses,

their provisions, even their young women, are presented to a guest. To those of their own nation, they are likewise very humane and beneficent. If any one of them succeed ill in his hunting, if his harvest fails, or his house is burnt, he feels no other effect of his misfortune, than its giving him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his countrymen, who, for that purpose, have almost every thing in common. But to the enemies of his country, or to those who have privately offended him, the American is implacable. He never indeed makes use of oaths, or indecent expressions, but cruelly conceals his sentiments, till by treachery or surprize, he can gratify his revenge. No length of time is sufficient to allay his resentment; no distance of place is great enough to protect the object; he crosses the steepest mountains, pierces the most impassable forests, and traverses the most hideous deserts; bearing the inclemency of the seasons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirst, with patience and cheerfulness, in hopes of surprizing his enemy, and exercising upon him the most shocking barbarities; and when this cannot be accomplished, the revenge is left as a legacy, transferred from generation to generation, from father to son, till an opportunity offers of taking what they think ample satisfaction. To such extremes do the Indians push their friendship, or their enmity; and such indeed is, in general, the character of all uncivilized nations. They, however, esteem nothing so unworthy of a man of sense, as a peevish temper, and a proneness to a sudden and rash anger; and this has such an effect, that quarrels rarely happen among them, when they are not intoxicated with liquor.

On the other hand, they are highly sensible of the utility and pleasures of friendship; for each of them, at a certain age, makes choice of some one nearly of the same standing in life to be their most intimate and bosom friend; these two enter into mutual engagements, by which they oblige themselves to brave any danger and run any risque, to assist and support each other. This attachment is even carried so far as to overcome the fear of death, which they consider only as a temporary separation, being persuaded that they shall meet and be united in friendship in the other world, never to be separated more; and that there they shall need one another's assistance as well as here.

It does not appear that there is any Indian nation that has not some sense of a Deity, and a kind of religion; but this is so various, so perplexed, and confused, that it is difficult to give a minute description of it. Their ideas of the nature and attributes of the Deity are very obscure, and some of them absurd; but they all acknowledge him to be the Creator and Master of the world; yet how the world was created they know not, and have various conjectures about it, some imagining that men were first rained down from the clouds, and that brute animals descended with them. They seem to have some idea that there are spirits of a higher and more excellent nature than man; and supposing them to be every-where present, frequently invoke them, and endeavour to act agreeable to their desires. They likewise imagine that there is an evil spirit, who, they say, is always inclined to mischief, and bears great sway in the creation; this, indeed, is the principal object of their devotions; they generally address him most heartily, beseeching him to do them no harm: but supposing the others to be propitious, and ever inclined to do them good, they intreat them to bestow blessings upon them, and prevent the evil spirit from hurting them. To procure the protection of the good spirit, they imagine it necessary to distinguish themselves, and that in the first place they must become good warriors, expert hunters, and steady marksmen.

The Indians have great dependance on their dreams, and really believe that from the dreams of youth, may be collected the whole history of their future life. On this account, when they arrive at a certain age, dreaming is made a kind of religious ceremony, which is thus performed: they besmear their face all over with black paint, and fast for several days, in which time they expect that the propitious spirit will appear to them in some shape or other while they sleep. The effect this long fast

fast must naturally have on the brain of a young person, is doubtless considerable, and the parents and other old people take care, during the operation, that the dreams they have in the night be faithfully reported the next morning. In favour to some constitutions they sometimes limit the fast to a shorter term than is generally judged necessary; however, the propitious spirit being constantly the subject of the person's waking thoughts, becomes also the subject of his dreams; at least every phantom of their sleep is regarded as a figure of him, whether it be bird, beast, fish, tree, or, indeed, any thing animate or inanimate, and is particularly respected by them all their lives after.

Their priests often persuade the people that they have revelations of future events, and are authorised to command them to pursue such and such measures. They also undertake to unfold the mysteries of religion, and to solve and interpret all their dreams. They represent the other world as a place abounding with an inexhaustible plenty of every thing desirable, where they shall enjoy the most full and exquisite gratification of all their senses. This is, doubtless, the motive that induces the Indians to meet death with such indifference and composure; none of them being in the least dismayed at the news that he has but a few hours or minutes to live, but with the greatest intrepidity sees himself upon the brink of being separated from all terrestrial things, and with great serenity talks to all around him: thus a father leaves his dying advice to his children, and takes a formal leave of all his friends.

They generally bury their dead with great decency, and deposit in the grave such things as the deceased had made the greatest use of, and been most attached to; as his bow and arrows, pipes, tobacco, &c. that he may not be in want of any thing when he comes to the other country. The mothers mourn for their children a long time, and the neighbours make presents to the father; and he in return gives them a feast.

The feasts of an Indian, whether at a funeral, a triumph, or a visit, are very simple. Instead of endeavouring to make a splendid appearance, he makes his friends heartily welcome, and values not spending the fruits of a whole season's toil, to convince them that he is so. The guest is sure to be treated kindly, and that he shall not be the subject of ridicule while present, nor of cruel remarks when departed. On these occasions a servile regard is never paid to the distinctions of high and low, rich and poor, so as to lessen the spirit and pleasure of conversation, when the company happens to be made up a mixture of these.

Their physicians generally treat them, in whatever disorder, the same way: they first inclose them in a narrow cabin, in the midst of which is a stone red hot, on which they throw water till the patient is covered with warm vapour, and is in a profuse sweat, when they hurry him from thence and plunge him into the next river. This is repeated as often as they think necessary; and by this method extraordinary cures are sometimes performed: but it also frequently happens that persons die in the very operation; especially where they are afflicted with the new disorders brought to them from Europe; and it is partly owing to this manner of proceeding, that the small-pox has proved so much more fatal to them than to us. It must, however, be acknowledged that they have the use of some specifics of wonderful efficacy, the power of which they however attribute to the ceremonies with which they are administered.

Liberty, in its fullest extent, is their darling privilege; for it is the great and fundamental principle of their policy, that every man is equally free and independent; and that nothing can be a compensation for the loss of liberty. Avarice is unknown to them, and they are neither prompted by ambition, nor actuated by a love of gold; for the distinctions of rich and poor, high and low, noble and ignoble, do not so far take place among them as to create the least uneasiness, or excite the resentment of any individual; hence the brave and deserving, let their circumstances be what they will, are sure to be esteemed.

The generalissimo, who may be considered as their

king, among all the nations who speak the Roundock dialect, is elective, and his election is attended with singing and dancing: when chosen he makes a panegyric upon the person to whom he succeeds. He is rather revered as a father than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no prisons, no officers of justice.

The other forms, which may be considered as a kind of aristocracies, have not more power among the Iroquois or Five Nations; there is no other qualification absolutely necessary for their chiefs but age, with experience and ability in their affairs. However, there are generally in every tribe some particular stocks, which they respect, and who are considered in some sort as their chiefs, unless they shew themselves unworthy of that rank; and indeed there are some of the tribes themselves who, on account of their number or bravery, have a pre-eminence over the rest, which, as it is not exacted with pride, so it is never disputed where due.

This great council is composed of the heads of tribes and families, with such whose capacity has raised them to the same degree of consideration. They meet in a house, built in each of their towns for that purpose, and also receive ambassadors, to deliver them an answer, to sing their traditionary war songs, or to commemorate their dead. In these councils they propose all such matters as concern the state, and which have been already digested in the secret councils, at which none but the head men assist. The chiefs seldom speak much themselves at these general meetings, but intrust their sentiments with a person who is called their speaker, or orator, there being one of this profession in every tribe and town; and their manner of speaking is natural and easy, their words strong and expressive, their style bold, figurative and truly laconic, nothing being said but what is necessary either to inform the judgment, or raise such passions as the subject naturally excites.

When any business of consequence is transacted, they appoint a feast upon the occasion, of which almost the whole nation partakes. Upon matters of less general concern, are lesser feasts, to which none are invited but they who are engaged in that particular business. Before the entertainment is ready, the principal person begins a song on the remarkable events of their history, and whatever may tend to their honour or instruction. The others sing in their turn. They also have dances, chiefly of a martial kind; and no solemnity or public business is carried on without songs and dances. These ceremonies serve to preserve order, and contribute to fix all transactions in their memory.

It ought not to be omitted, that the same council of elders, which regulates whatever regards the external policy of the states, has likewise the charge of its internal peace and order. Their suits are few, and soon decided; they having neither property nor art sufficient to render them perplexed and tedious. Criminal matters, when so flagrant as to become a national concern, are brought before the same jurisdiction: but in ordinary cases, the crime is either revenged or compromised by the parties concerned. If a murder is committed, the family that has lost a relation prepares to kill the murderer; and when this is done, the kindred of the last person slain think themselves as much injured, and as justifiable in taking revenge, as if the violence had not begun among themselves. But, in general, things are determined in a more amicable manner: the offender absents himself; and his friends send a compliment of condolence to those of the party murdered; they offer them presents, which are rarely refused; and the head of the family appearing, delivers them in a formal speech, one by one, sometimes to the number of sixty articles; saying, "By this I remove the hatchet from the wound.—By this I dry up the flowing blood." And thus, in a figurative manner, take away, one by one, all the circumstances and consequences of the murder. If the murder be committed by one of the same cabin, that cabin has the full right of judgment within itself, without appeal, either to punish the guilty with death, to pardon him, or to force him to give some recompence to the wife or children of the slain. Mean while the supreme authority of the nation looks on unconcerned.

As the Indians are of a vindictive disposition, unrestrained by the influence of religion, the most trifling provocations frequently rouse them to arms, and prove the occasions of bloodshed and murder. Their petty private quarrels are often decided this way, and expeditions undertaken without the knowledge or consent of a general council. These private expeditions are winked at, and excused, as a means of keeping their young men in action, and inuring them to the exercises of war.

But when war becomes a national affair, it is entered upon with great deliberation. They first call an assembly of the sachems and chief warriors, to deliberate upon the affair, and every thing relating to it. In this general congress among the Northern Indians and the Five Nations, the women have a voice as well as the men. When they are assembled, the chief sachem or president, proposes the affair they have met to consult upon, and taking up the tomahawk, which lies by him, says, "Who among you will go and fight against such a nation? Who among you will bring captives from thence to replace our deceased friends, that our wrongs may be revenged; and our name and honour maintained, as long as the rivers flow, grass grows, or the sun and moon shall endure?" Then one of the principal warriors rising, harrangues the whole assembly, and afterwards addressing himself to the young men, enquires who among them will go along with him; and fight their enemies? When they generally rise, one after another, and fall in behind him, while he walks round the circle, till he is joined by a sufficient number.

On such occasions they have usually a deer, or some other beast roasted whole, and each of them, as they consent to go to war, cuts off a piece and eats, saying, "Thus will I devour our enemies," mentioning the nation they are going to attack. This ceremony being performed, the dance begins, and they sing the war-song, which has relation to their intended expedition and conquest, or to their own skill, courage, and dexterity in fighting, and the manner in which they will vanquish their enemies. Their expressions are strong and pathetic, uttered with a tone that inspires terror.

Such is the influence of their women in these consultations, that the issue depends much upon them. If any one of them, in conjunction with the chiefs, has a mind to excite one, who does not immediately depend upon them, to take part in the war, she presents, by the hands of some trusty young warrior, a string of wampum, to the person whose help she solicits, which seldom fails of producing the effect. But when they solicit an offensive or defensive alliance with a whole nation, they send an embassy, with a large belt of wampum and a bloody hatchet, inviting them to come and drink the blood of their enemies.

The wampum used upon these and other occasions, before their acquaintance with Europeans, was only small shells, which they picked up by the sea-coasts, and on the banks of the lakes. It now consists of a kind of cylindrical beads, made of white and black shells, which are esteemed among them as silver and gold are among us. The black they think the most valuable; both of them are their greatest riches and ornaments, answering all the ends of money among us. They have the art of stringing, twisting, and interweaving them into their belts, collars, blankets, &c. in ten thousand different sizes, forms, and figures, so as not only to be ornaments for every part of dress, but expressive of all their important transactions. They dye the wampum of various colours and shades; and as they are made significant of almost any thing they please, by these their records are kept, and their thoughts communicated to one another, as ours are by writing. Thus the belts that pass from one nation to another, in all important transactions, are carefully preserved in the cabins of their chiefs, and serve both as a kind of record or history, and as a public treasure; hence they are ever used on trifling occasions.

The calumet, or pipe of peace, is of no less importance, nor is it less revered among them. The bowl of this pipe is made of a kind of soft, red stone, easily wrought and hollowed out; the stem is of cane, or a kind of light wood, painted with different colours, and adorn-

ed with the heads, tails, and feathers of the most beautiful birds, &c. The use of the calumet, is to smoke either tobacco, or some other herb used instead of it, when they enter into an alliance or any solemn engagement; this being esteemed the most sacred oath that can be taken, the violation of which is thought to be most infamous, and deserving severe punishment in the other life. When they treat of war, the whole pipe, and all its ornaments, are red; sometimes it is red only on one side, and by the disposition of the feathers, &c. a person acquainted with their customs, knows at first sight the intentions or desires of the nation who presents it. Smoking the calumet is also, upon some occasions, and in all treaties, considered as a sacred oath, as a seal of their decrees, and a pledge of their performance of them. The size and decorations of their calumets are commonly proportioned to the importance of the occasion, to the quality of the persons to whom they are presented, and to the esteem and regard they have for them.

Another instrument of great importance among them, is the tomahawk. This is an ancient weapon, used by them in war, before they were taught the use of iron and steel; since which hatchets have been substituted in the room of them: but it still retains its use and importance in public transactions, and, like the pipe, is frequently very significant. This instrument is formed, in some respects, like an hatchet, having a long handle; the head, which is a round knob of solid wood, calculated to knock a man down, has on the other side a point, bending a little towards the handle; and near the centre, where the handle pierces the head, another point projects forward, of a considerable length, which serves to thrust with like a spear. The tomahawk is also ornamented with painting and feathers, disposed and variegated in many significant forms, according to the occasion and end for which it is used; and on it is kept a kind of journal of their marches and most important occurrences, in a sort of hieroglyphics. When the council is called to deliberate on war, the tomahawk is coloured red; and when the council sits, it is laid down by the chief; and if war be concluded upon, the captain of the young warriors takes it up, and holding it in his hand, dances and sings the war-song. When the council is over, this, or some other of the same kind, is sent by the hands of the same warrior, to every tribe concerned, who, with it, presents a belt of wampum, and delivers his message, throwing the tomahawk on the ground, which is taken up by one of the most expert warriors, if they choose to join; if not, it is returned with a belt of their wampum, suited to the occasion.

Each nation or tribe has its distinct ensigns, or coats of arms, generally consisting of some beast, bird, or fish. Thus the Five Nations have the bear, otter, wolf, tortoise, and eagle: by these names the tribes are generally distinguished, and the shapes of these animals are pricked and painted on several parts of their bodies. Generally, when they march thro' the woods, they, at every encampment, cut the figure of their arms on trees, especially when they have had a successful campaign, that travellers may know they have been there; recording also, in their way, the number of prisoners and scalps they have taken.

Their military appearance is very odd and terrible. They cut off all their hair, except a spot on the crown of the head, and pluck off the eyebrows. The lock left upon the head is divided into several parcels, each of which is stiffened, and intermixed with beads and feathers of various shapes and colours; the whole twisted and connected together till it takes a form much resembling the modern pompadour upon the top of the head; which is painted red, down to the eyebrows, and sprinkled over with white down. The gristles of their ears are slit almost quite round, and hung with ornaments that have generally the figure of some bird or beast drawn upon them. Their noses are likewise bored and hung with beads, and their faces painted with various colours. On their breasts are a gorget or medal of brass, copper, or some other metal; and by a string which goes round their necks, is suspended that horrid weapon the scalping-knife.

Thus equipped, they march forth, singing their war-song,



A Sachem exhorting the Indians to War.

song, till they lose sight of their village; and are generally followed by their women, who assist them in carrying their baggage, whether by land or water, but commonly return before they proceed to action.

They have generally one commander for every ten men; and if the number amounts to one hundred, a general is appointed over the others, not properly to command, but to give his opinion. They have no stated rules of discipline, or fixed methods of carrying on a war; but make their attacks in as many different ways as there are occasions, but generally in flying parties, equipped for that purpose, with a thin light dress, usually consisting of nothing more than a shirt, and sometimes they are almost naked.

The weapons used by those who trade with the English and French, are commonly a firelock, hatchet, and scalping-knife; but the others use bows, tomahawks, and pikes. As the commander in chief governs only by advice, and can neither reward nor punish, every private man may return home when he pleases, without assigning any reason for it, or any number may leave the main body, and carry on a private expedition in whatever manner they please, without being called to an account for it.

Every morning the commander harrangues his detachment, and gives his advice for the conduct of affairs during the day. If he wants to detach a party on any occasion, he proposes the affair, and gives his opinion how, and by what number, it should be performed; and it seldom happens that he is opposed in any of his measures. For so greatly are the Indians influenced by a sense of honour and love of their country, that upon these occasions they are in no need of penal laws to restrain them: but then it must be observed, that the qualifications necessary to recommend a person to the chief command, are his being fortunate, brave, and disinterested; and they cheerfully obey a person in whom they believe that all those qualifications are united.

When the Indians return from a successful campaign, they manage their march so as not to approach their village till towards the evening. They then send two or three forwards to acquaint their chief, and the whole village, with the most material circumstances of the campaign. At day-light next morning they give their prisoners new cloaths, adorn their heads with feathers, paint their faces with various colours, and put into their hands a white staff, tasseled round with the tails of deer. This being done, the war-captain sets up a cry, and gives as many yells as he has taken prisoners and scalps; and the whole village assemble at the water-side. As soon as the warriors appear, four or five of their young men, well clothed, get into a canoe, if they come by water, or otherwise march by land: the two first, carrying each a calumet, goes singing to search the prisoners, whom they lead in triumph to the cabin, where they are to receive their doom. The owner of this cabin has the power of determining their fate, though it is often left to some woman who has lost her husband, brother, or son, in the war; and when this is the case, she generally adopts him into the place of the deceased. The prisoner has victuals immediately given him, and while he is at this repast, a consultation is held; and if it be resolved to save his life, two young men untie him, and taking him by the hands, lead him to the cabin of the person into whose family he is to be adopted, and there he is received with all imaginable marks of kindness. He is treated as a friend, as a brother, or as a husband; and they soon love him with the same tenderness as if he stood in the one of those relations to them.

But if the sentence be death, how different their conduct! these people, who behave with such disinterested affection to each other, with such tenderness to those whom they adopt, here shew that they are truly savages; the dreadful sentence is no sooner passed, than the whole village set up the death-cry; and, as if there were no medium between the most generous friendship and the most inhuman cruelty, the execution of him whom they had hesitated whether he should not have a tender relation to them, is no longer deferred than they can make the necessary preparations for rioting in the most diabolical cruelty. They first strip him, and fixing two posts in

the ground, fasten to them two pieces from one to the other; one about two feet from the ground, the other about five or six feet higher: then obliging the unhappy victim to mount upon the lower cross piece, they tie his legs to it, a little asunder: his hands are extended and tied to the angles formed by the upper piece. In this posture they burn him all over the body, sometimes first daubing him with pitch. The whole village, men, women, and children, assemble round him, every one torturing him in what manner they please, each striving to exceed the other in cruelty, as long as he has life. But if none of the bye-standers are inclined to lengthen out his torments, he is either shot to death, or inclosed with dry bark, to which they set fire: they then leave him on the frame, and in the evening run from cabin to cabin, superstitiously striking with small twigs the furniture, walls, and roofs, to prevent his spirit from remaining there to take vengeance for the evils committed on his body. The remainder of the day and the night following is spent in rejoicing.

This is the most usual method of murdering their prisoners, but sometimes they fasten them to a single stake, and build a fire round them; at other times they cruelly mangle their limbs, cut off their fingers and toes, joint by joint, and at others scald them to death.

What is most extraordinary, if the sufferer be an Indian, there seems, during the whole time of his execution, a contest which shall exceed, they in inflicting the most horrid pains, or he in enduring them: not a groan, not a sigh, not a distortion of countenance escapes him, in the midst of his torments. It is even said, that he recounts his own exploits, informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death: that he even reproaches them for their ignorance of the art of tormenting; points out methods of more exquisite torture, and more sensible parts of the body to be afflicted. But perhaps these instances of intrepidity are somewhat exaggerated. However, they frequently kill their prisoners on the spot where they have taken them; or in their way home, when they find it inconvenient to carry them farther, or have any fear of their escape.

These instances shew the inconsistencies to which human nature is subject, and the benefit these people would receive from a divine revelation, breathing an uniform humanity, and the forgiveness of their enemies; for had they these dispositions, and were they taught to treat their enemies in the manner our holy religion inspires, how consistent, how amiable, would be their character!

S E C T. VII.

Of NEW ENGLAND.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Vegetables, Beasts, Birds, Fishes, and Rivers; with a particular Description of Maize, or Indian Corn; and, among the Animals, of the Moose.

NEW ENGLAND, the most powerful colony in North America, is situated between the forty-first and forty-third degree fifty minutes north latitude, and between the sixty fourth degree forty minutes and the seventy-third degree west longitude; it being bounded on the north east and east by Nova Scotia and the bay of Fundy, on the north-west by Canada, on the west by the province of New York, on the south by the Sound, and on the south-east by the Atlantic ocean. Its extent from Kennebec river to the south-east boundary of New York, according to the late Rev. Mr. Neale, three hundred and thirty miles, from the south-west to the east-north-east is four hundred and eighty miles, and it is a hundred and ninety miles broad from Cape Cod to the north-east bounds of New York.

The summer-season is here warmer than ours, and generally accompanied for two months together with a clear sky, which renders the country extremely wholesome; so that none of our plantations are more agreeable to the constitutions of the English; yet the winters of New England are much severer than ours; and, though it lies considerably farther to the south, the frosts continue longer,

longer, and are much sharper than with us. The sun rises at Boston on the longest day at twenty-six minutes after four in the morning, and sets at thirty-four minutes after seven in the evening; and on their shortest day it rises at thirty-five minutes after seven in the morning, and sets at twenty-seven minutes after four in the afternoon: thus their longest day is about fifteen hours, and the shortest about nine.

The land next the sea is generally low, and in some parts marshy, but farther up it rises into hills, and on the north-east is rocky and mountainous.

The country abounds with mines of excellent iron, and some of copper; in the woods and swamps is plenty of good timber: oak, elm, ash, cypress, pine, chestnut, walnut, cedar, beach, aspen, and sassafras, are common here; as are also spruce and fir trees, which are of an extraordinary growth, producing pitch, tar, rosin, and turpentine, with masts, yards, and planks, as the oak does other ship-timber; so that more ships are said to have been built in this province than in all the other parts of America. The dwarf oak grows wild here. It likewise abounds with fruit-trees; so that it is easy for a planter to make a hundred hogheads of cyder in a season. They have besides as good hemp and flax as any in the Baltic; great plenty of roots, as turnips, parsnips, carrots, radishes, much larger and richer than ours, though their seeds came originally from hence; with a great quantity of onions, cucumbers, squashes, pompions, and water-melons.

When the English arrived here they found a variety of fruits that grew wild, particularly grapes, currants, raspberries, strawberries, &c. and Mr. Dudley, one of the council in New England, observes, that the peaches here are very large, all standards, and the fruit better than ours; and that they commonly bear in three years from the stone. They have likewise a great variety of plants different from those of England.

Nothing is so much planted here as Indian corn, which in some parts of America is called maize; it has an ear a span long, containing eight rows of grain, or more, according to the goodness of the soil, and about thirty grains in a row. It is of almost all colours, sometimes in the same field, and even in the same ear; but the white and yellow are the most common. The stalks grow six or seven feet high, are jointed like a cane, with long flags at every joint, yielding a juice like the sugar-cane, from whence a sweet syrup has been often extracted. Mr. Dudley says this corn generally produces twelve hundred, and often two thousand grains for one; that six quarts of grain will plant an acre; and that an acre of good soil commonly produces fifty bushels.

New England produces great plenty of beasts, both tame and wild: among the former are cows, sheep, goats, hogs, and horses, all originally brought from hence; but their horses are generally smaller than ours, though larger than the Welsh, and are extremely serviceable. Among the wild beasts are deer, elks, racoons, bears, wolves, which are only a kind of wild dogs, and if taken when young may be made tame; with ounces, foxes, hares, rabbits, squirrels, opossums, fables, beavers, otters, minks, and martens. One of the most singular animals of this and the neighbouring countries is the moose, of which there are two sorts; the common light-grey moose, which resembles the ordinary deer; these herd sometimes thirty together: and the large black moose, whose hair is ten or twelve inches long on the ridge of his back. Of this sort there are seldom more than four or five together. This is made much like a deer, as it parts the hoof, chews the cud, has no gall, and his ears are large and erect. A stag-moose is bigger than a large horse. The horns, when full grown, are about four or five feet from the head to the tip, and have shoots or branches to each horn, which generally spread about six feet. When the horns come out of the head they are round like those of an ox, but at about the distance of a foot begin to grow a palm broad, and farther up are still wider; and of these the Indians make good ladles that will hold a pint.

When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays his horns back on his neck,

not only to place them out of his way, but to secure himself from being scratched in the woods; and these prodigious horns are shed every year. This animal does not spring or rise in going, like a deer; but a large one in his common walk has been seen to step over a gate five feet high. When a moose is unharboured he will run a course of twenty or thirty miles before he turns about or comes to a bay; but when chased he generally takes to the water. He is, however, not so swift as the common deer, though he runs much farther. As the moose is tall, and has a short neck, he does not graze like other cattle; for when he eats grass, it is only the top of that which grows very high, or on steep rising-grounds. These animals are fond of water-plants, for which they will wade far and deep. In summer they also feed upon other plants, herbs, and young shrubs; and in winter live upon the tops of bushes and young trees. The flesh of the moose is very good food; it is more substantial than common venison, and will bear salting. The nose is admired as a great dainty.

There is hardly any where greater plenty of fowls, as turkeys, geese, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, swans, heath-cocks, herons, storks, black-birds, all sorts of barn-door fowl, vast flights of pigeons, which come and go at certain seasons of the year, cormorants, ravens, crows, bats, &c.

With respect to the disagreeable reptiles, there are rattle-snakes, frogs, and toads, which swarm in the uncleared part of the country, where, with the owls, they make a most hideous noise in the summer evenings. But wherever the country is planted by the English, it is pretty well freed from all noxious animals.

The sea and rivers afford a vast abundance of excellent fish, as sturgeon, salmon, cod, thornback, mackarel, herrings, lampreys, whales, grampuses, porpoises, seals, sharks, and other fish great and small. The best months for fishing are March, April, May, and June.

There are few countries better watered with springs, rivers, and lakes, though the latter are much smaller than those to the north and west. Of its rivers seven are navigable, these are the Thames, which rises from a lake to the north of Massachusetts's country, and running directly south falls into the sea below New London.

The river Patuxet, which rising in the north-west, runs south-east through Providence plantation, and falls into a noble bay of the sea, near Swansey. The river Piscataway, which runs from west to east, and falls into the sea near Portsmouth, in Hampshire, with a mouth that resembles an arm of the sea, and is capable of receiving the largest ships; the Casco river, which runs parallel with the former, and falls into a bay of its own name; Connecticut river; the great river Merrimac; and the river Saco, of which we shall give an account in treating of the rivers which flow from the White Mountains in the province of New Hampshire. To the east of these are many other considerable rivers, which rising far to the north, run almost due south, and fall into the sea to the north-east of Casco-bay.

It is owing to the conveniency of so many fine rivers that this country is so full of large and populous towns; and in the country between the rivers is such plenty of springs, that there is scarce any place where water may not be had by sinking a well to the depth of ten feet.

S E C T. VIII.

Of the Divisions of New England, and a particular Account of the Manner in which its first Settlements were formed.

THIS territory is divided into four distinct governments; the most northerly, which was formerly called the province of Main, and now the county of York, is under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts's-bay; next to this county, and between it and Massachusetts's-bay, is the province of New Hampshire; next to the bay government is the colony of Rhode Island; to the south and west of these is the colony of Connecticut. These several districts took their rise from the first settlement made by the English in this country, which was the

the colony of Plymouth, seated near Cape Cod, which now, as well as the province of Main, is incorporated into that of Massachusetts-bay.

It will not, therefore, be here improper to give some account of the settlement of this colony. In 1614 the North Virginia company employing captain John Smith and captain Thomas Hunt to fish on this coast, the former went on shore, took a particular view of the country of the Massachusetts, and had some skirmishes with the natives; after which he ordered Hunt to dispose of his fish, and then return to England; but Hunt treacherously enticing twenty-seven of the Indians on board his ship, set sail with them to Malaga, and had the villainy to sell them to the Spaniards for slaves, keeping only an Indian called Squanto. This outrage was so resented by the Indians, that all commerce between them became impracticable, and no thoughts were entertained of making any settlement there till a congregation of Brownists, or Independents, who had been persecuted in England, were obliged to fly to Holland, where they formed the design of seeking an establishment in the New World; and having, by means of interest, obtained the consent of king James I. contracted with some merchants for a settlement on the banks of Hudson's river.

This congregation sold their estates in order to make a common bank to carry on the undertaking; then hired a ship of one hundred and eighty tons, which they freighted with proper goods and merchandize, and the whole company, consisting of one hundred and twenty persons, with Mr. Robinson their minister, first returned to England, embarked on board their vessel on the sixth of September 1621, and fell in with Cape Cod in November following; and finding a safe harbour, fixed upon the place for their present settlement, called Plymouth from the place of their embarkation, which name it still retains; and as this was out of the limits for which they had obtained a grant, they associated themselves into a body politic, by a formal instrument; in which, having declared themselves the subjects of the crown of England, they solemnly engaged submission to the laws that should from time to time be made for the good of the country.

The planters who agreed to stay in this place were about one hundred, including women and children, and of these there were only nineteen families; but such were the fatigues endured by this infant colony during the first winter, that fifty persons out of the hundred died within the space of two months; and had the Indians attacked them, they had probably all perished.

The adventurers, however, saw none of the natives till the middle of March, when one of their chiefs came to them in a friendly manner, made them understand that they were welcome, and that his people would be glad to trade with them. The next day coming again with other Indians, he made them understand that Massassoiet, their sachem, had his residence three days march to the northward, and intended them a visit. He accordingly arrived a few days after, attended by sixty people; and being received by captain Standish, was conducted to a kind of throne prepared for him. His face was painted red, and smeared with oil; he had a deer-skin mantle; his breeches and stockings, which were of a piece, were of the same materials, and his arms were covered with wild-cats skins. His attendants were dressed in the same manner, and there appeared little distinction between him and his followers. This chief had not been long seated when Mr. John Carver, whom they had chosen governor, came in with a guard of musketeers; upon which Massassoiet rose up and kissed him, and then both sitting down, an entertainment was provided, of which no part appeared more acceptable to the sachem than the brandy, of which he drank very plentifully.

In the retinue of this chief was Squanto, who had been carried to England by Hunt, where he had been treated kindly; and, after living here several years, had been brought back to his country. He had entertained an affection for the English, and from his favourable representation the sachem had made them this visit, in which, by his means, was concluded an offensive and defensive alliance; which being founded upon the mutual interests of the contracting parties, was inviolably maintained for many years.

This infant colony was annually reinforced by fresh adventurers from the mother country, driven thither by the spirit of persecution; so that by the year 1628 their number and improvements were considerable; and that year they obtained a grant from the North Virginia company of this colony, and another of all the lands within three miles north of Merrimac river to three miles south of Charles river, where it falls into the sea at the bottom of Massachusetts-bay: and the next year six ships with three hundred and fifty passengers arrived at Salem, with a large stock of cattle of all sorts; and other necessaries.

This new colony, which settled the town called Salem, was supported with the same spirit and vigour as the former, and soon after obtained a patent from king Charles I. whereby they were incorporated by the name of the governor and company of Massachusetts-bay, and were empowered to make laws for the good of the plantation not repugnant to those of England; and liberty of conscience being granted to all who would settle there, great numbers of those who could not obtain that privilege in England went over, and in a little time new settlements were made, particularly one styled Charles Town, on the south side of Charles river, and that of Dorchester, at the bottom of Massachusetts-bay. Soon after part of the inhabitants of Charles Town, passing over to the opposite shore, erected Boston, the present capital of New England.

In the mean while those who had strenuously contended for liberty of conscience in favour of themselves, became actuated with that spirit of persecution which had driven them from their native country, and Mr. Roger Williams, a minister of Salem, advancing some religious sentiments contrary to those which had been generally received, and refusing to recant, these people were so void of charity as to expel the minister and his followers from Massachusetts colony: upon which they built a new town, which they called Providence, upon Newport river, near Rhode Island.

Hitherto they had not been in the least molested by the Indians, but now a nation called the Pequots, who lived on Connecticut river, committed some murders; on which it was considered, that a town and fort on Connecticut river would make a good frontier on that side. Agents were therefore sent to view the country, who made such an advantageous report of the fertility of the soil, and the largeness of the river, as induced many of the planters in several of the towns, where they were streightened for room, to remove thither. Mr. Hooper put himself at the head of about a hundred of these new adventurers, who set out in the month of July, and travelling on foot with their children and baggage, they arrived at the banks of the river, where they began a town which they called Hartford. After these came another draught, who built a little town which they called Windsor; a third detachment built Weathersfield; and a fourth Springfield.

In 1635 no less than twenty sail loaded with goods and passengers arrived at Boston, with whom came Mr. Henry Vane, afterwards Sir Henry Vane, intending with these people to begin another settlement on Connecticut river; but being chosen governor the year ensuing for the Massachusetts, he laid aside the design of beginning a new colony for the present; but the next year he being inclined to favour the Baptists, they left him out, and chose their old governor Mr. Winthrop. Upon which it was thought expedient for both parties to make a settlement upon Connecticut river, and towns were accordingly built on both sides of it; but this being out of the limits of the other colonies, they formed themselves into a separate government, and for that purpose obtained a charter from king Charles II. authorizing them to elect their own governor, council, and magistrates; and to enact such laws as should be most advantageous to the colony, provided they were not opposite to those of England.

The persecution of the Protestant dissenters in England still continuing, great numbers of people removed to New England; and the old colonies being over-stocked, there was an absolute necessity of forming new plantations; and therefore, in 1637, Theophilus Eaton, Esq; and the Rev. Mr. Davenport, finding there was not room

at Massachusset's-bay, purchased from the Indians the lands lying on the sea-coast between Connecticut river and Hudson's river, where they built a town, and named it New Haven, from whence the colony derived the name of the New Haven colony.

While the south-west parts of New England were thus filling with inhabitants, others, induced by the profits arising from the fur-trade, settled to the north-east between the rivers Merrimac and Kennebec, forming two distinct colonies, one named New Hampshire, and the other, still farther to the eastward, was called the province of Main.

Thus in the space of about twenty years New England had above forty towns, and the English had taken possession of this country from the river Kennebec on the north-east almost to Hudson's river on the south-west, an extent of upwards of four hundred miles on the sea-coast. Such was the first rise and origin of the New England colonies, which, from these small beginnings, are now become rich and of great importance.

SECT. IX.

Of the Province of Massachusset's-Bay ; its Situation, Extent, Soil, Produce, and Government ; with a Description of the Towns of Boston and Cambridge.

THE province of Massachusset's-bay contains what were formerly the colonies of Plymouth, Massachusset's-bay, and the county of York ; the latter of which is separated from the others by New Hampshire, which runs in between them, and is about thirty miles wide upon the sea. That part of this province called the province of Main, or county of York, is bounded on the westward by New Hampshire ; on the northward by Canada ; on the north-eastward by Nova Scotia ; on the south-eastward and southward by the sea for near two hundred miles. The other part of this province is bounded on the north by New Hampshire ; on the east and south by the sea ; on the south and west by the colonies of Rhode Island, Connecticut, and the province of New York.

That part of the province called the county of York has a very cold soil, great part of it towards Canada being mountainous, and entirely unfit for agriculture ; and that towards the sea-coast is low, covered with spruce, white and yellow pines, and some oaks, except near the banks of the many rivers which fall from the mountains, on which a great number of saw-mills are erected ; and on their banks is plenty of oak, ash, and maple. There are several safe and convenient harbours along the sea-coast, the principal of which is Casco-bay. This part of the province is well stored with wild game, and from it are exported considerable quantities of furs and skins.

The other part of the province has a variety of soil, it being in some places very barren, and in others extremely fertile, producing great quantities of Indian corn, rye, oats, barley, peas, flax, and on the western parts wheat. The surface is generally rocky and uneven, except near the rivers, where are some pleasant fields. Several fisheries are carried on to great advantage from the sea-coasts of this province to the banks of Newfoundland, the isle of Sable, &c. especially from the town of Marblehead, where is the most considerable fishery in New England.

His Britannic majesty appoints the governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary, and officers of the admiralty in this province ; and the freeholders elect a house of representatives, who choose a speaker and council, or upper house. However, the governor can put a negative on their choice ; yet both he and all the officers in the province, except the comptroller of his majesty's customs, receive their salaries by a vote of the two houses, who have never yet been persuaded to settle a salary even upon the governor, who has it generally in his instructions from the king to insist upon their doing it. They, however, commonly grant him one thousand pounds sterling per annum.

The established religion is that of the Independents ; but there are a number of churches of the episcopal per-

suasion. Great care is taken of the education of children, free-schools being established and supported by law in most of their towns, which are generally supplied with able masters ; and at Cambridge, about six miles from Boston, is an university, or public seminary.

This colony is divided into several counties : thus in the division stiled New Plymouth are the county of Bristol, the county of Plymouth, and the Barnstable county. In Massachusset Proper are the counties of Suffolk, Middlesex, and Essex ; to which must be added the county of York, already mentioned, and in each of these counties are several considerable towns.

Boston, the capital of this province, is seated in the county of Suffolk, in the province of Massachusset's-Proper, in the forty-second degree twenty-one minutes north latitude, and in the seventy-first degree west longitude, at the bottom of a fine bay in a peninsula about four miles in circumference. At the entrance of this bay are several rocks, which appear above water, and upwards of a dozen small islands, some of which are inhabited. There is but one safe channel to approach the harbour, and that so narrow that two ships can scarce sail through a-breast ; but within the harbour there is room for five hundred sail to lie at anchor. The entrance is defended by the castle of Fort William, one of the finest pieces of military architecture in British America, it being surrounded by a covert-way, and joined by two lines of communication from the main guard to a redoubt. The castle is defended by a hundred guns, twenty of which lie on a platform level with the water ; so that it is scarce possible for an enemy to pass the castle. To prevent surprize, they have a guard placed on one of the rocks at about two leagues distance, from whence they make signals to the castle, when any ships come near it. There is also a battery of great guns at each end of the town, to the fire of which an enemy would be exposed, if he should be so fortunate as to pass the castle. At the bottom of the bay is a pier near two thousand feet in length, with ware-houses for the merchants on the north side ; and to this pier ships of the greatest burthen may come and unload, without the help of boats. The greatest part of the town lies round the harbour in the form of a crescent ; the country beyond it rising gradually, and affording a delightful prospect from the sea. The town has several streets little inferior to the best in London, the chief of which runs from the pier up to the town-house, a handsome building, with walks for the merchants, as in the Royal Exchange in London ; and in this edifice are not only the courts of justice, but the council-chamber and the house of representatives. The town contains between four and five thousand houses, which are in general well built ; and several of the public structures are very spacious and elegant. It has seventeen churches, or places appropriated to Divine worship. The episcopal church is handsomely built and adorned, and the congregation is said to amount to about a thousand. The church-furniture, and some pieces of plate, were given by king William and queen Mary ; it has an organ, and there is a magnificent seat for the governor, when he happens to be of the church of England. The governor has also a very fine house. Among the other buildings is Fanniuel-hall, thus named from Mr. Fanniuel, who was its founder. The shipping of this port was some years ago computed at between six and seven hundred. The inhabitants of the town amount to about twenty-five thousand, and there is said to be two hundred thousand in the province.

Cambridge, the principal town of the county of Middlesex, in this province, is seated on the north branch of Charles river, six miles to the north-west of Boston, and has several fine houses and good streets. It was originally called New Town, but on founding the university changed its name to Cambridge, and contains two spacious colleges, called by the names of Haverford-college and Stoughton-hall, with a public library, said to be the best furnished with books of any in that part of the world. It consists of a president, five fellows, and a treasurer. The governor of the province, deputy-governor, and all the magistrates of the Massachusset's colony, with the ministers of six neighbouring towns for the time being, are visitors. This university never conferred any degree

above that of master of arts, till it obtained a new charter from king William and queen Mary, by which it had the power of creating doctors of divinity; but has seldom made use of it.

S E C T. X.

Of the Province of New Hampshire; its Situation, Extent, Soil, and a particular Description of the White Mountains, and the Rivers that flow from them: its Produce, Government, and a Description of the Town of Portsmouth.

THE province of New Hampshire is bounded on the south by Massachusetts-bay, on the west by the province of New York, on the north by Canada, and on the north-east by the county of York, having only thirty miles of sea-coast.

The soil is various, and the northerly parts of it are mountainous and barren. The most considerable mountains in this province, and indeed of all the British dominions near the coast, are called the White Mountains, from their appearing like snow, they being generally supposed to consist of a white flint, from which the reflection of the sun is very brilliant and dazzling. From their prodigious height they are to be seen at a very great distance, and it is not certain that any person was ever on the top of them. Major Rogers says, that he has often been told by the Indians that they have frequently attempted them in vain, on account of the change of air they met with; which, he says, he is inclined to believe, he having ascended them himself till the alteration of air was very perceptible, though he had not advanced half way up, and yet the valleys below were concealed from his view by the clouds. The basis of these mountains is a tract about fifty-five miles square, from which they rise in craggy heads one above another, in an irregular manner all the way to the top. For the first four or five miles as you ascend them you find beech, hemlock, and some white pines; higher up the growth is chiefly black spruce for six or seven miles, then the sides are cloathed with a white moss; and if you advance still farther, you find scarce any thing growing, which alone would render the ascent very difficult, the mountain being extremely steep.

Many streams of water gush out of the sides of these mountains, which run down with great rapidity. Indeed the largest and best rivers in New England rise from some part of them. Saco river rises from the south in several small rivulets, which join in the course of a few miles, and run through the county of York, falling into the sea between Cape Porpoise and Cape Elizabeth. On the banks of this river are some fine meadows and fields, which are annually overflowed when the snows melt, and thereby greatly enriched. The rivulets that break out from the south-west of the mountains, after various windings, fall into a lake called Winnipisiokee, out of which issues the river Merrimac, which, from the waters that join it, soon becomes a considerable stream. Upon it are several vales, overflowed and enriched like the former. This river runs through the province of New Hampshire, and part of the Massachusetts, discharging itself into the sea between Salisbury and Newbery. From the north and west parts of these mountains rises Connecticut river, which runs to the southward across the provinces of New Hampshire, the Massachusetts, and Connecticut, till, after running a course of at least two hundred miles, it empties itself into the sea, or sound, between Connecticut and Long Island. This river, like the others, annually overflows its banks, and enriches the adjacent fields, which in some places are very extensive, particularly through a tract called the Cohas, in New Hampshire, twenty miles in length, and six in breadth, which for its fertility and beauty may be stiled the garden of New England. The river Kennebec, which is a considerable stream, likewise rises on the east side of these mountains, running through the county of York, and is endowed with the same properties as the former. Another river rising from the north of them runs into the province of Quebec, and falls into the river St. Lawrence. A part of the river Shedoir also rises at these

mountains, and joins the river St. Lawrence twelve miles above Quebec.

In the province of New Hampshire are raised great quantities of Indian corn, rye, oats, and peas, it being too cold for wheat. It likewise produces some hemp and flax. It has great plenty and variety of timber, and its forests abound with all kinds of game common to the climate. There are here likewise bred black cattle, horses, sheep, &c. but in no great abundance. Its rivers abound in salmon, shad, trout, eels, &c. Some fisheries are carried on in the sea-ports; but its scanty limits on the sea prevents the inhabitants engaging so considerably in the fishery as their neighbours.

The governor, lieutenant-governor, council, and secretary, with the officers of the admiralty in this province, are appointed by his majesty, who is absolute sovereign of the soil. The several towns and districts choose their representatives; but all the inferior officers of the executive power are appointed by the governor, with the advice of the council.

The religion of this province is the same as in Massachusetts-bay, and there is only one episcopal church erected, which is at Portsmouth.

The town of Portsmouth, the metropolis of the province, contains about seven hundred dwelling-houses, and is pleasantly seated on Piscataqua-bay, having a safe and convenient harbour, where the largest ships may ride securely, and five places of religious worship. Here the courts of justice are held; but as this is the only place where causes are tried in this province, and it is seated on one of its extremities, the inhabitants are sometimes obliged to travel a hundred and fifty or two hundred miles on any trifling occasion. From this port annually sail about two hundred vessels, loaded chiefly with timber, pipe-staves, fish, &c. for the West Indies; which having disposed of, they load there, and proceed from thence to Europe, where they sell both their vessels and cargoes, and the mariners return passengers.

The other principal towns for trade in this province are Hampton, Cochecha, Exeter, and Londonderry, an inland town about thirty-five miles from Portsmouth, which is chiefly peopled with the natives of Ireland, and has a considerable manufacture of linen. The number of inhabitants in this province amounts to about seventy thousand; these have been greatly increased since the entire reduction of Canada, settlements being annually begun and new towns formed where formerly they did not dare to attempt it, for fear of the Indians.

S E C T. XI.

Of the Colony of Connecticut; its Situation, Extent, Produce, Trade, and Government.

THE colony of Connecticut contains not only the original colony of the same name, but that of New Haven, they being incorporated into one in 1692, and still retains, by the charter then granted them, all the privileges of their ancient charters; but ever since their union they have kept up two seats of government, namely, at Hartford and New Haven, at which places their general court, or assembly, sits alternately for transacting the affairs of the colony. It is bounded on the north by the Massachusetts, on the east by Rhode Island and a part of Massachusetts-bay, on the south by the Sound, and on the west by New York, extending in length from Stoniton to Rye, in the borders of New York, about a hundred miles, and in breadth from Saybrook to the borders of New Hampshire about seventy.

The soil of this colony is various, a great deal of it being uneven, rocky, cold, and barren; but in other parts it is fertile and exceeding pleasant, particularly on Connecticut river, where the fields produce all kinds of grain and fruit common to the climate in great abundance, seldom disappointing, and frequently exceeding the hopes of the husbandman. In this colony are bred great numbers of black cattle, horses, and swine; and the inhabitants raise a considerable quantity of flax and hemp. A town called Weathersfield, seated on the river Connecticut, is remarkable for the production of onions,

onions, with which it annually loads several vessels to the neighbouring provinces.

The inhabitants of this colony carry on a very considerable trade to foreign parts, they being chiefly supplied with foreign commodities from Boston and New York; in exchange for which they send beef, pork, flaxseed, onions, &c. In this colony are some iron works, which are carried on to great advantage; and they ship some horses and lumber to the West Indies, with considerable quantities of saffrafras to England and Holland.

The inhabitants of this province have the privilege of annually choosing their own governor, lieutenant-governor, assistants, and representatives, by whom all executive officers are appointed and authorized. They generally allow their governor a very handsome salary, and have good funds for other public exigencies.

The religious persuasions here are the same as in the other New England governments, but there are more people of the church of England than in all the others. Particular care is here taken in the education of their children; the several towns being provided with schools, supplied with able masters.

This colony has many fine towns, agreeably seated on the river Connecticut and along the Sound, the principal of which for trade and commerce are New London, Hartford, and New Haven: the latter is seated on New Haven-bay, and is elegantly laid out in regular streets, having a beautiful parade in the center. It contains about two hundred dwelling-houses, besides public buildings, among which is a college that makes a very handsome appearance.

The number of inhabitants in this colony is supposed to amount to no less than two hundred and ten thousand.

SECT. XII.

Of the Colony of Rhode Island; its Situation, Soil, Produce, Government, and Trade.

THIS colony contains only Rhode Island and Providence, which were united by charter about the same time as the colony of Connecticut, and like that the inhabitants retain the rights and privileges at first granted them in their separate state, having also two seats of government at Newport and Providence, where their general court is alternately held. This colony has but a small territory, it lying somewhat in the form of a heart, and is bounded on the north and east by Massachusetts-bay, to the southward by the ocean, and to the westward by Connecticut.

The climate of Rhode Island is much more favourable than that of Boston, though it only lies about sixty-five miles to the south of that city: it being much warmer in the winter, and being surrounded by the sea, is less affected in the summer with hot land breezes than the places on the opposite continent.

The soil is generally low, rocky, and stony; yet, when properly improved, produces Indian corn, rye, oats, peas, hemp, flax, and some wheat; with most kinds of fruit common to the climate in great perfection, especially on Rhode Island, which for its beauty and fertility is much admired, it being exceeded perhaps by no spot in New England. They raise cattle, sheep, and horses in abundance, and the latter is esteemed the best on the continent. They likewise make considerable quantities of butter and cheese.

The form of government is in every respect the same as in the colony of Connecticut; and the number of the inhabitants are computed to amount to seventy thousand.

Liberty of conscience is here granted in the fullest extent, but the greatest number of people here are Quakers. Here is so little bigotry, that every man is left to think and act for himself; and, while he observes a good moral conduct, no body give themselves any trouble about his religious principles, for which he is only accountable to God. There are here also a pretty many Jews. The education of children is, however, said to be not much attended to, there being not one free-school in the whole colony.

The principal towns are Newport, which is pleasantly seated on Rhode Island, and has a safe and good harbour for ships of a moderate burthen, with its entrance defended by a fort, on which are planted three hundred guns; and Providence, which is also delightfully seated on a river of the same name, and is a thriving town, with a considerable trade.

The chief commodities exported from hence are horses, sheep, cheese, and the produce they procure from the neighbouring provinces, as lumber and fish from the Massachusetts and New Hampshire; beef, pork, and flour from Connecticut, New York, and Philadelphia, which they commonly pay for in rum, sugar, and molasses imported from the West Indies. They are charged with carrying on an illicit trade with our enemies in time of war, by carrying beef, pork, and flour to the French islands; but this is no more than has been performed by the merchants of Great Britain.

We shall conclude this account of New England with giving a cursory view of the commerce of that province in general, which extends over a great part of America and Europe. From thence our sugar-colonies are furnished with fish, cattle, dried beef, bacon, boards, hoops, pipe-staves, bark, skins, butter, cheese, oil, tobacco, corn, apples, turpentine, &c. and that in such vast abundance, that it is computed the island of Barbadoes alone takes off to the value of two hundred thousand pounds every year. They deal with the other sugar-colonies; sometimes with the French; largely with the Spaniards, and ship off prodigious quantities of fish to Italy, Spain, and Portugal. They take from us all kind of mercery goods, linen and woollen cloths, stuffs, stockings, shoes, sail-cloth, cordage, haberdashery-ware, vessels of tin and copper, hardware, and a vast quantity of other things: in return, they build a prodigious number of ships for our merchants, and export to England a great deal of iron, and a vast quantity of masts, planks, and yards for the royal navy; and also pitch, tar, turpentine, skins, furs, oil, whale fins, logwood, saffrafras, and other commodities.

SECT. XIII.

Of NEW YORK.

Its Situation, Climate, Soil, Produce, and Rivers. A Description of Long Island, and several other Islands within this Province; with a concise Account of the City of New York, its Trade, Government, and History.

NEW York is situated between the fortieth and forty-fourth degree of north latitude, and between the seventieth and seventy-sixth degree of west longitude, it being bounded on the east by New England, on the north by Canada, on the north-west and west by part of Pennsylvania and the lands of the Five Nations, and on the south and south-west by the province of New Jersey and the Atlantic ocean; extending two hundred miles in length from north to south, but not above twenty-five in breadth, particularly between Connecticut colony and Jersey.

As this country lies to the south of New England, the climate is more temperate; the soil is generally pleasant and fertile, producing in great abundance all sorts of grain and fruit common to the climate, particularly wheat, one bushel of which is said to have produced here an hundred. The many fine, large plains on the banks of its extended rivers are remarkably fruitful.

The principal river of New York is Hudson's river, which rises within twenty or thirty miles of Lake Champlain, and runs south for about fifty or sixty miles, crossing in its way some lakes, the most considerable of which is at Scanderoon; then bends more easterly to the Carrying-place, where is Fort Edward, and then southward till it discharges itself into the sea at New York, or Sandy-hook. This river is navigable for vessels of one hundred tons as high as Albany, and shallops may go up eight or ten miles higher.

The next considerable river of this province is the Mohawk river, which rises in the Mohawk country, and

is navigable, except where there are some falls, for large boats, upwards of an hundred miles: it runs easterly, and has on its banks many fine plains, particularly that called the German-flats, from its being settled by the Germans, and extends along the river fifty miles in length, and about two in breadth. This tract is exceeded by none in America, it being easily cultivated, and producing, in the greatest abundance, wheat, barley, peas, hemp, and flax. This river discharges itself by several mouths, called the Spouts, into Hudson's river, about eight miles above Albany; and about two miles above its confluence with that river it has a cataract, where the whole stream falls perpendicularly about seventy feet. This part of the province abounds with saw-mills, it having plenty of timber.

These rivers abound in great plenty of fish; and in this part of the province are several excellent iron works, some of which are said to manufacture the best iron in America.

There are very fine lands upon the East river, or Sound, though it is very rocky, as indeed are most of the high lands of this province on the continent; these being mountainous, and at present hard to cultivate; but afterwards they richly reward the labour of the husbandman. There are likewise several pleasant and fruitful islands belonging to this province, among which Long Island is the most worthy of notice.

Long Island is about a hundred and fifty miles in length, and in some places twenty, but generally about twelve miles broad; the middle of it is indeed somewhat barren, but both ends have most excellent soil, which perhaps is improved to as great advantage as any lands in America; producing corn and fruit to great perfection, and abounding in horses, cows, sheep, and swine, more than any other part of the province. It is even said that the produce of some single acres at the west end, which is conveniently situated for the market of New York, annually amounts to near a hundred pounds sterling. In the midst of the island is a celebrated plain sixteen miles long, and four broad, to which they have given the name of Salisbury-plain, from its having as fine turf as that of Salisbury-plain in England. As there is an excellent breed of horses in the island, they have races here every season, to which the gentlemen of New England and New York resort, as people do here to Newmarket.

There are indeed several other islands belonging to the province not at all inferior to this in pleasantness and fertility of soil, though they are of much less extent, as Staten, or Streighten Island, which is opposite to the west end of Long Island, and forms the narrows or streights through which ships pass that are bound to or from the sea to New York: Fisher's Island lies in the Sound between Long Island and the colony of Connecticut; and Manahattan, upon which the city of New York is built: there are several others both in the bay and Sound, one of which, called Barn Island, about twenty-five miles from New York, has lately obtained a charter for erecting a city.

This province is divided into ten counties, which, proceeding from north to south down Hudson's river, lie in the following order; Albany, Ulster, Dutchess, Orange, King's-county, Chester, New York, Queen's-county, Suffolk, and Richmond counties, which abound in farms, but have not many great towns: the principal are the city of New York, Schenectada; Albany, and West Chester.

New York is extremely well situated for trade, it having a safe and commodious harbour, accessible three different ways for ships of common burthen, namely, by way of the Sound, by the streights between Long Island and Staten Island, which is the most usual and easy entrance, and between Staten Island and the shore of Jersey. There are also easy conveyances to it by water from the rivers and lakes, except a few carrying-places, both to Montreal and Quebec on the northward, and to the lakes Erie and Ontario on the westward, for six hundred miles; and upon the sea it has not only the advantage of its coasts, but also of Connecticut and the Jerseys, their trade in a great measure centering here, where they exchange their several commodities for foreign goods.

This city is seated in the fortieth degree forty minute north latitude, and the forty-seventh degree four minutes west longitude, at the south end of York county, in an island at the mouth of Hudson's river, about fourteen miles long, and three broad. It stands upon an eminence, and contains between two and three thousand houses, generally pretty well built with brick and stone; but the streets are very irregular, defended by a wall and fort, which are formed so as to answer the purposes both of ornament and defence. It has several spacious public buildings, among which the college; the court-house, and the governor's house within the fort, are the most considerable. Hence there is scarce any town in North America that makes a better appearance. Public worship is every Sunday performed in different churches in the English, the German, the Dutch, and French languages. There are two handsome churches belonging to those of the church of England, with others belonging to the Swedes of the Lutheran persuasion, to the Dutch Calvinists, to the French refugees, and the English dissenters; the Jews have also a synagogue.

The city is governed by a mayor and aldermen, and abounds with wealthy merchants, who trade very largely to foreign parts, and are observed to deal very much upon honour. The trade from New York to the sugar islands is very considerable, and consists in corn, flour, beef, pork, bacon, smoked beef, peas, apples, onions, staves, plank; and to England flax-seed, pig and bar iron, with some copper. Of late great encouragement is given to several manufactories, especially that of hemp, the raising of which is encouraged by a bounty given by the province; and in the city of New York a society is formed to consult methods for promoting the various branches of trade and husbandry, and the manufacturing of iron, wool, linen, &c. considerable premiums being allowed to such as excel in these branches, which has doubtless a tendency to preserve the credit of this province, to enrich the inhabitants by increasing their exports, and to render them less dependent on other countries.

The next considerable place in this province is Albany, which is seated on the west side of Hudson's river, a hundred and fifty miles to the north of New York city, and has a fort erected for its defence. It contains near four hundred houses, and here the chiefs of the Five Nations used to meet the governors of the northern colonies.

The number of inhabitants in the whole province amounts to about a hundred and fifty thousand.

His majesty is absolute sovereign of the soil of this province, and appoints the governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary, and council; but the freeholders of the several counties elect their own representatives, in order to form a legislative body with the others. The cities of New York and Albany have likewise by their charters the privilege of making bye-laws for themselves, provided they are neither inconsistent with the laws of the province, nor of those of England. These bye-laws are enacted by the mayor, aldermen, and common-council of the respective cities; annually elected by the freemen of each; these also form a court of judicature, called the mayor's court.

The religious persuasions in this province are pretty numerous, there being Episcopalians, Lutherans, Baptists, Presbyterians, Moravians, Quakers, and Jews, who perform religious worship here in different languages. Learning has lately been much encouraged in this province, in which is established a college under the government of a president, professors, and tutors. It has also a good library, and both the city and country in general are well furnished with schools.

The English have a double right to this province by discovery and conquest. The coast was first viewed by Sebastian Cabot, and in the reign of queen Elizabeth it was considered as a part of the province of Virginia. Afterwards, in 1608, that famous navigator Hudson discovered the river that bears his name, with the adjacent country, which he afterwards, without any legal authority, sold to the Dutch, who found some Swedes settled here; and being reinforced from Holland, soon became the strongest party, and obliged the Swedes to acknowledge them as the sole proprietors of the country, paying

no regard to the claim of the English, who had not only discovered, but traded to it before. They were, however, soon after dispossessed by captain Argall, who was sent for that purpose with a proper force by the Virginia company. Upon this the Dutch West India company begged permission of king James I. for some of their people to settle in the country, pretending it's being convenient for their ships to call at for refreshment in their passage to and from the Brasils, which then belonged to them.

The king granted their request, upon condition that the people who settled there should acknowledge themselves subjects of the king of England. This they did for some years; but taking advantage of the troubles that arose in the reign of king Charles I. the states of Holland gave their West India company a formal grant of the country, and under this grant they appointed governors, erected forts, and called it Nova Belgia, or the New Netherlands, and afterwards refused to pay to king Charles II. the sum they had paid to his father and grandfather for leave to fish on the coast of Great Britain. This did not occasion an immediate rupture; but soon after king Charles II. made a grant of what is now the province of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, to his brother James, duke of York, who, in 1664, sent a fleet under the command of Sir Robert Carr, with a sufficient number of land-forces, to take possession of the country, who soon reduced the forts the Dutch had erected there, and obliged them either to become British subjects, or to leave the country. The people gladly accepted of the former, and hence many of the best families in New York appear by their names to be of Dutch extraction. Hence New Amsterdam, which was made the metropolis, had its name changed to that of New York, in honour of the proprietor's title; and from the name of the city the whole province received the same appellation. Orange-fort also received the name of Albany from the duke's other title.

Sir Robert having thus subdued the country, took with him the greatest part of the land-forces, leaving colonel Nichols governor; and as the States General seemed to give up all pretences to it, many people removed thither from England; whence it soon became a very flourishing colony, Mr. Nichols making it one of his first studies to enter into a treaty of peace with the Five Nations of the Indians, who have ever since continued faithful allies, and been of great service to this province.

In the year 1673, when a war broke out between England and the States General, the Dutch sending a fleet, reduced this colony to their obedience; but they kept possession of it only a short time, for it was ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty concluded the next year. Ever since that time it has been under the English government, and the people have shewed themselves peaceable and obedient subjects, ready upon all occasions to exert themselves in defence of the rights of Great Britain, particularly in opposing and repelling the encroachments of the French settled in Canada, with whom they have had various engagements, in which they were always assisted by the Mohawks, with three hundred of whom, and the same number of English, colonel Schyler, in the reign of William III. obtained a complete victory, near the river St. Lawrence, over seven hundred French regulars, and an equal number of Huron Indians, commanded by the governor of Quebec. The same brave officer repulsed them again in 1716, and destroyed a fort they had erected near the lake of Onondago, in order to cut off their communication with Lake Ontario. Soon after our fort at Oswego was erected, where has since been carried on the greatest Indian trade of any in America.

SECT. XIV.

Of NEW JERSEY.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Exports; its Sub-divisions; a particular Description of Perth Amboy, and Burlington; and a concise History of the Province.

THE entire province containing the two Jerseys, is seated between New York and Pennsylvania, in a

triangular form; it being bounded on the north by Hudson's river, which separates it from the province of New York; on the east by the Atlantic ocean, which washes its coast, from the mouth of Hudson's river to the mouth of Delaware river; and on the southward and westward by Pennsylvania. It lies between the thirty-ninth and fortieth degree north latitude, extending in length, on the sea-coast and also along Hudson's river, above an hundred and twenty miles, and sixty in breadth from east to west.

The soil of this province is very uniform, and produces wheat and all other kinds of English corn: it likewise abounds in all sorts of fruit proper to the climate, and is said to produce the best cyder of any place on the continent. The timber is tall, and the oaks are esteemed for ship-building. It abounds in streams of water, which afford great convenience for mills, furnaces, and any other kind of water-works; and as it affords great quantities of iron, it has several furnaces and iron-works, besides one flitting-mill. This province is also supposed to be rich in silver and copper ore, some of both kinds having been found in several parts; and one copper-mine in particular is worked to great advantage, several fine estates having been obtained from it.

The lands in this province are chiefly taken up and improved; so that they have but little wild game of any kind.

There are no remarkable rivers that extend far into the province; that named Passaic, which discharges itself into the sea to the northward of it, has a remarkable cataract about twenty miles from its mouth, where the river falls, like the cataract on Hudson's river, from a perpendicular rock about seventy or eighty feet.

This province has a considerable disadvantage, which prevents the inhabitants thriving so much as might be expected from the goodness and fertility of its soil, and their making those improvements of which the country is capable. This is the great uncertainty of their titles, and the continual disputes and law-suits which on this account arise among the inhabitants; hence it is said, that no people here grow rich so fast as the gentlemen of the law. Besides, the inhabitants suffer the same fate from Philadelphia and New York, that those of the colony of Connecticut do from New York and Boston; for as they have no considerable foreign trade of their own, they exchange their commodities at those two places for foreign goods, and consequently give them the profit which they might enjoy among themselves.

The principal exports of the Jerseys are wheat, flour, timber, copper ore, pig and bar iron, and black cattle, which they drive in great numbers to Philadelphia, on whose rich pastures they are generally grazed for some time, before they are sent to market and killed.

This province has the same form of government as that of New York, and the religious persuasions are no less numerous. Here is likewise a college founded at Prince-town, about thirty miles from the city of Philadelphia, much resorted to by the young gentlemen of this and the neighbouring provinces.

This province contains East and West Jersey; the former of which is the largest and best inhabited, and is divided into Bergen-county, Essex, and Middlesex, on the south side of the river Raritan, and Monmouth-county on the south. West Jersey contains the same number of counties, which are Burlington, Gloucester, Salem, and Cape Mary. These were originally two provinces, and in the hands of different proprietors; but, on the twenty-second of April, 1702, the proprietors made an assignment of their rights to the crown.

The chief towns in the Jerseys are,

Perth Amboy, the capital of the county of Middlesex, in East Jersey, which is pleasantly seated at the mouth of the river Raritan, and is so commodiously situated for trade, that ships of three hundred tons may come up in one tide and lie before the merchants doors.

Burlington, the capital of the county of the same name, and of all West Jersey, is seated on an island in the middle of the river Delaware, to the northward of Philadelphia, in Pennsylvania. The houses are handsomely built with brick, and laid out into spacious streets, with

with commodious quays and wharfs, to which ships of two or three hundred tons may come up. It has likewise a handsome market-place, a town-house where the courts of justice were formerly held, and two good bridges over the river, one called London-bridge, and the other York-bridge. It has likewise an easy communication both with Philadelphia and the ocean, by means of the river Salem, which falls into Delaware-bay; but though these places have the privileges of a city, they are neither remarkable for the number of their inhabitants nor the greatness of their trade.

This province, like that of New York, was first settled by the Swedes, who had three towns here, named Christina, Elsinburg, and Gottenburg: they, however, made but little progress in their plantations; while the Dutch, who had settled in the northern part, had greatly the advantage, for this country they included under the name of Nova Belgia. It was also contained in the grant made by king Charles to his brother James in 1663, who the following year made a grant of that part now called New Jersey to lord Berkley and Sir George Carteret. These two proprietors sent Philip Carteret, Esq; as governor; and the lands being granted to the settlers for six or seven years free of quit-rents, induced many of the Dissenters of England to settle in the country: thus the inhabitants being a mixture of Swedes, Dutch, and English, were far from agreeing about the form of government, but continued to behave within some bounds, while they were excused paying quit-rents; but when that indulgence was no longer allowed them, and they became considerably in arrears, the proprietors no sooner insisted on their payment than they broke into open rebellion, deposed the governor, and set up a kind of government of their own, under which they continued till the year 1673, when they were attacked and conquered by the Dutch; but the country being again restored to the crown of England by the treaty concluded the following year, Mr. Carteret returned to his government; and the proprietors making some concessions, the inhabitants continued pretty quiet for some time. Lord Berkley soon after assigned over his right to Mr. William Penn, and three other assignees, with whom Sir George Carteret agreed to divide the country into two equal parts, by running a line from the south-east point of Little Egg-harbour almost due north. The easternmost part of this division was allotted to Sir George, whose family was of the isle of Jersey, and from this circumstance was called East New Jersey; while the other part, which was allotted to Mr. Penn and the other proprietors, was then distinguished and still retains the name of West New Jersey: and thus they became for some time two separate and distinct governments. After Sir George's death his trustees sold his right to Mr. Penn and eleven other purchasers, and they not long after sold a part of theirs to the earl of Perth and eleven others. These divisions and sub-divisions caused the land to be branched out into so many shares, that the respective owners thought them so inconsiderable that they took little or no concern about them; and no proper care being taken to settle and fix the boundaries of their estates, it became difficult, if not impossible, to ascertain their respective rights; which caused great uncertainty of property, the people rose in frequent mobs, till the proprietors being quite wearied out, surrendered the entire government of both the Jerseys to the crown, only reserving to themselves their other rights and privileges, and stipulating for some privileges in favour of the people, which were to be given in charge to the governors appointed by the crown as part of their instructions.

Upon this surrender the crown annexed the government of the two Jerseys to that of New York, in which state they continued till the year 1736, when they became one government, and Lewis Morris, Esq; was appointed their first governor; but they still retain a seat of government in each division, at which their assembly and supreme court of judicature sit alternately, namely, at Burlington in West Jersey, and at Perth Amboy in East Jersey.

S E C T. XV.

Of P E N S Y L V A N I A.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Vegetables, Animals, and Rivers. The Divisions of the Country; with a Description of Philadelphia, the other Towns in this Province, and a concise Account of its Commerce.

PENNSYLVANIA was also esteemed by the Dutch a part of Nova Belgia, and as such was supposed to be included in king Charles the Second's grant to his brother James, duke of York, in the year 1663. It is seated between the thirty-ninth and forty-second degree north latitude, and between the seventy-second and seventy-eighth degree west longitude; it being bounded on the north-east by the Jerseys, on the south by Maryland, on the west by the Apalachian mountains, and on the north by the lands of the Five Nations; extending in length about three hundred and thirty miles, and two hundred in breadth.

The air is here sweet, serene, and clear. Autumn begins about the twentieth of October, and lasts till the beginning of December; after which frosty weather is very common, and sometimes the river Delaware, notwithstanding its breadth, is frozen over; but in such seasons the air is dry, clear, and agreeable. The spring lasts from March till June, during which the weather is more inconstant. In the summer months, July, August, and September, the heats are very great, but are alleviated by cool breezes that render them very tolerable. During this season the wind is south-west; but in spring, autumn, and winter, it is generally north-west. The earth is extremely fertile, and easy to be cleared, as the roots of the trees lie near the surface of the earth.

Pennsylvania produces almost all sorts of trees, which are in some respect different from the European, though they are called oaks, beech, walnut, red, white, and black ash, Spanish chesnut, cypress, and red and white cedar; but the most durable are gum-wood, hickory, sassafras, and poplar. They have also apples, pears, pines, cherries, grapes, cranberries, musk-melons, and several other fruits; with all sorts of corn, as wheat, barley, oats, rye, peas, beans, Indian corn, and likewise hemp and flax, with snake-root, sarsaparilla, and many other medicinal woods and roots. There are here also a great variety of garden plants, and of those proper for the kitchen.

Among the animals they have such plenty of horses, cows, and sheep, that it is common for farmers to have four or five hundred of the latter in a flock; they have moose deer, rabbits, racoons, beavers, and a great number of other wild beasts. Among the reptiles are snakes of several kinds; and among the fowl they have fine bustards of forty or fifty pounds weight, pheasants, heath-cocks, partridges, swans, geese, teal, snipe, braindes, pigeons, dunghill fowls, ducks, and a great variety of small birds distinguished by their beautiful plumage. The fish are sturgeons, herrings, perch, eels, smelts, &c. with oysters, cockles, muscles, and other shell-fish. In short, no province on the continent is less dependent on its neighbours for either the necessaries, conveniences, or luxuries of life.

The largest river in this province is the Delaware, which rises in the country of the Five Nations, and flows into the sea at Delaware-bay. It is navigable for near a hundred and fifty miles up, after which it has some falls; the settlements upon this river extend a hundred and fifty miles from the city of Philadelphia. The lands on its banks are excellent, and generally reward the labour of the husbandman with great profusion. Its course is nearly south-east, and it affords great plenty of all such fish as are common to the climate, especially sturgeon, which are here cured and sent abroad in greater abundance than in any other part of America.

The Susquahanah rises in the same country, at the distance of about ninety miles from the Apalachian mountains, and runs nearly parallel to the Delaware, till it discharges itself into Chesapeak-bay in Maryland. This
river

river is likewise navigable a great way up the interior country, and, if possible, exceeds the other in the pleasantness and fertility of the soil on its banks, which produces in great abundance all sorts of corn, especially wheat. This extraordinary plenty is not confined to the plains near the banks of the rivers, for the intermediate lands are generally fruitful and extremely well improved; they being divided among the farmers in such proportions as they are able to manage to advantage, for which they pay an annual quit-rent to the proprietor.

But we ought not to omit to mention the river Schoolkill, or Schuylkill, which has also its source in the same country, running almost parallel to the two other rivers, till at length it falls into the Delaware, near the city of Philadelphia, above which it is navigable for boats at least a hundred miles higher up the country.

These rivers, with the numerous bays and creeks in Delaware-bay, capable of containing the largest fleets, render this province admirably suited to carry on a foreign trade. The country also abounds in streams fit for mills, and all other kinds of works invented to ease the labour of man; hence there is here manufactured the greatest quantity of iron of any province on the continent.

This famous settlement is divided into three upper and three lower counties. The three upper are those of Buckingham, Philadelphia, and Chester; and the lower counties are Newcastle, Kent, and Suffex. The three first are those Mr. Penn obtained by a grant from king Charles II. and the three last by a grant from James duke of York.

Philadelphia, the capital of this province, is seated in the county of the same name, in the fortieth degree fifty minutes north latitude, and in the seventy-fourth degree west longitude. It is built upon one of the finest plans that ever was formed, it being laid out by Mr. Penn himself, and far excels any other city belonging to Great Britain in North America. It is seated between two navigable rivers, the Delaware on the north, and the Schoolkill on the south, which join each other a few miles below, and is near a hundred miles above the bay, into which the river discharges itself. It is an oblong of near two miles in length, extending nearly to each of those rivers, where the front facing each is a mile in length. The streets are wide and spacious, with a dry defended walk on each side, and are exactly straight and parallel to each other: the houses are in general well built, and make a handsome appearance, especially several of the public buildings, which are not exceeded by any in the country. The High-street, which runs the whole length of the city, is a hundred feet wide, parallel to which run eight streets that are crossed by twenty more at right angles, all of them thirty feet wide. Every owner of a thousand acres has his house in one of the two fronts facing the rivers, or in the High-street, running from the middle of one front to the middle of the other. In the center of the city is a square of ten acres, encompassed by the town-house and other public buildings, and in each quarter of the city is a square of eight acres. Several canals are let into the town from each river, which add to the beauty and convenience of the place. It has noble barracks for the reception of the king's troops, and the finest market of any on the continent, it being of a prodigious extent, well built, and as well regulated and supplied. Its quay is two hundred feet square, to which ships of four or five hundred tons may come up, and lay their broad-sides close to it; with wet and dry docks for building and repairing of ships, besides magazines, warehouses, and all other conveniences for exporting and importing of merchandize. The proprietor's seat, which is the usual place of the governor's residence, and is about a mile above the town, exceeds any private building in British America, both in its magnificence and the pleasantness of its situation. In short, scarce any thing can appear more beautiful than the city and the adjacent country, which for some miles may be compared to a fine and flourishing garden. The city contains about four thousand houses, and about twenty thousand inhabitants, among whom are many very wealthy merchants, who carry on a considerable trade with the English, French,

Spanish, and Dutch colonies in America; with the Azores, the Canaries, and the Madeira islands; also with Great Britain and Ireland, Spain, Portugal, and Holland.

The other principal towns in the county of Philadelphia are German-Town and Oxford; the former a thriving and populous place, chiefly inhabited by the Germans, who there speak and transact their business in their own language. In the same county is likewise the city of Radnor on the south-side of School-kill river, which is the capital of a large district planted by the Welsh. To the south of the county of Philadelphia, lies that of Chester, the capital of which is the town of Chester, seated on the river Delaware; and to the southward of Chester lies the town of Chichester. At either of these two last towns are ports sufficient to receive and secure the largest fleets from storms. The county of Newcastle lies south of that of Chester; its capital of the same name is remarkable for the briskness of its trade, and has also an iron-mine in its neighbourhood. The town of Aquoquinemink is seated on the river Delaware, south of Newcastle, and has a good trade. Kent lies south of the last-mentioned county, and Dover, its chief town, has a very commodious port. The most southern county is that of Suffex, the capital of which is Lewes; this town has a secure harbour, and also carries on a considerable trade. On the other side of the province, Lancaster, which is about sixty or seventy miles from Philadelphia, on the road to Pittsburg, may justly be reckoned the second town in Pennsylvania, it being near as large as the city of New-York.

The number of inhabitants in the whole province of Pennsylvania amounts to upwards of three hundred and fifty thousand.

The trade of this province is extensive, large, and valuable, no less than three hundred sail annually clearing out from Philadelphia alone to Europe, the West-Indies, &c. Their trade into the interior country with the Indians is likewise very extensive and lucrative; of them they take the skins and furs of wild beasts; while the Indians in return receive shirts, blankets, arms, ammunition, rum, and other spirits. Their commerce to Europe and the West-Indies chiefly consists in their exporting all sorts of grain, as wheat, rye, Indian corn, barley, oats, pease, and beans; beef, pork, salted and barrelled fish, horses, furs and skins, with pig and bar-iron, hogsheds, pipe-staves, hoops, and flax-seed. In return for which they import from the islands and other places, silver and gold, sugar, rum, molasses, salt, wine, &c. and from Great Britain cloathing of all kinds, hard-ware, tools, toys, furniture, &c.

S E C T. XVI.

A History of the first Settlement of Pennsylvania, and its Government.

WE shall now give a concise account of the settlement of this province, which was the best projected, and is the most flourishing of all our colonies. But it is necessary just to observe, that the Dutch were the first planters here as well as at New York, and living near the bay in the neighbourhood of that province, applied themselves chiefly to trade. Afterwards some of the inhabitants of Finland settled near the Freshes of Delaware, the country being so called above and below the falls of that river for a considerable length; there they applied themselves to husbandry, and had a governor appointed them by the king of Sweden, their own sovereign. Between these two neighbouring settlements there happened frequent disputes, till the Dutch becoming too powerful for the Swedes, the latter submitted to their stronger neighbours, and the Swedish governor made a formal surrender of the country to the governor, for the States General; after which this province continued subject to that republic till the English drove the Dutch out of New York.

Admiral Penn, who, in conjunction with colonel Venables, conquered the island of Jamaica, and was afterwards knighted, being in high credit with king Charles

II. and the duke of York had the promise of a grant of this country from that king as a reward for his past services; and some years after his death, his son strenuously solicited the promised grant; which, as the king owed considerable sums to his father, he obtained in the year 1679, and the original patent was dated the fourth of March, 1680. Mr. Penn afterwards, as hath been already intimated, obtained part of Nova Belgia, or New York, which was added to the country he had acquired by the first grant, and both together, from his own name, he called Pennsylvania, or Penn's country.

Mr. Penn, who had turned Quaker during the lifetime of his father, had the more earnestly solicited the above grant on account of the persecution of the Dissenters; and particularly of his friends the Quakers, who were harrassed all over England by the spiritual courts, he himself being many times thrown into prison both for preaching, and for being only present at their assemblies. There were at this time a few English in Pennsylvania, over whom he placed as governor, colonel William Markham, his nephew, to whom both the Dutch and Swedes submitted. Mr. Penn, being continually under the hand of persecution, resolved now to put himself at the head of as many as would go with him, and remove to this country; but first sent over a body of settlers from London, Liverpool, and Bristol, who purchased considerable quantities of land at the rate of twenty pounds for one thousand acres, and paying a small quit-rent. The male and female servants were to have fifty acres when their time was out; and the owners of land fifty acres per head for as many servants as they carried over. In order to secure the new planters from being molested by the Indians, he appointed commissioners to confer with them about the land, and to confirm a league of peace: by these first adventurers, he also sent a very affectionate and friendly letter to the native Indians, and the same year went to Pennsylvania himself, taking with him a great number of people, who, with those he had sent before, and that immediately followed him, amounted to two thousand persons.

As soon as he arrived, he took the government into his own hands; entered into a treaty of peace with the Indian chiefs; and, instead of immediately taking advantage of his patent, purchased of them the lands he had obtained by his grant, judging that the original property and eldest right was vested in them; and at the same time engaged the several nations of Indians, inhabiting or claiming this territory, to promise that they would not sell or dispose of any of their lands but to him, or such as should be authorized by him to purchase them; giving orders to his agents not to take possession, or suffer any person to take possession of any lands, till they had first made a fair purchase of them from the Indians. This generous behaviour not only recommended him strongly to the natives, who conceived a very high opinion of his honour and integrity, but laid a foundation for a lasting peace with them, and effectually prevented many of those tragical calamities which several of the American provinces suffered in their infant state.

He then settled the constitution and laws of the country by the consent of the inhabitants, who unanimously agreed to the fundamental constitution of Pennsylvania, which he himself had drawn up and published in England, That none who believe in the existence of a God, and live peaceably, shall be molested on account of their religious sentiments, or be compelled to frequent or support any religious worship contrary to their declared opinion; and that all persons who profess to believe in Jesus Christ, shall not be incapable of serving the government in any capacity, on account of any particularities in their religious opinions, they solemnly promising, when required, allegiance to the crown of Great Britain, and fidelity to the proprietor and governor of the province.

He likewise determined that no laws should be made there, nor money raised but by the consent of the inhabitants, who were empowered to enact what laws they pleased for the prosperity and security of the province. He established courts of justice in every county, with proper officers to prevent law-suits and contentions, and that three peace-makers should be chosen by every coun-

ty-court in the nature of common arbitrators, to hear and put an end to all the differences that arose between man and man: he also ordained, that every spring and autumn an orphan's court should be held in each county, to inspect and regulate the affairs of the widows and orphans.

Mr. William Penn staid there two years till he had settled every thing to his own and the people's satisfaction, during which he behaved in such a manner to the Indians, that he inspired them with the most extraordinary love and esteem both for him and his people. Their descendants received from them the same sentiments of this benevolent man, and still speak of him with the greatest gratitude and affection; and whenever they would express an extraordinary regard for any Englishman, they say, "We esteem and love you as if you were that good man William Penn himself."

"What crowned all," says an ingenious author, on speaking of the inhabitants who formed this settlement, "was the noble charter of privileges by which he made them as free as any people in the world, and which has since drawn such vast numbers of so many different persuasions, and such various countries, to put themselves under the protection of his laws. He made the most perfect freedom, both religious and civil, the basis of this establishment; and this has done more towards the settling of the province, and towards settling it in a strong and permanent manner, than the wisest regulations could have done upon any other plan."

The unbounded latitude given to liberty of conscience in this country, has occasioned its being inhabited by people of almost every religious sentiment in Europe. Here you see Quakers, people of the church of England, Lutherans, Catholics, Presbyterians, Independents, Baptists, Moravians, and the Dimplers, a sort of German sect, who live in common, forming a kind of religious society, wearing long beards, and a habit resembling that of friars; but marry and live in a peaceable manner by cultivating the earth: in short, the diversity of the people, religions, nations, and languages, is here prodigious, and the harmony in which they live together no less edifying. When there is far from being an union of sentiment, nothing can be more amiable than an union of affection: it affords a beautiful prospect to see men take and give an equal liberty; to see them live, if not as belonging to the same church, yet to the same Christian religion; and if not to the same religion, yet to the same fraternity of mankind.

We have already mentioned the terms upon which Mr. Penn settled this plantation; namely, twenty pounds for a thousand acres, reserving only a shilling quit-rent for every hundred acres, and this in some of the best situated parts of the province; but it is necessary to add, before we conclude this article, that now at a great distance from navigation, land is granted at twelve pounds the hundred acres, with a quit-rent of four shillings reserved; and the cleared lands near Philadelphia rent for twenty shillings an acre. In many places, even at the distance of several miles from that city, land that has been cultivated sells for twenty years purchase.

S E C T. XVII.

Of M A R Y L A N D.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Face of the Country, Soil, Produce, and Rivers. Of the Trade of this Province, with an Account of its Trade and Settlement.

THIS province is bounded on the north by Pennsylvania and Delaware bay; on the east by the Atlantic ocean; on the south by Virginia; and on the west by the Apalachian mountains. It is situated between the thirty-eighth and fortieth deg. north lat. and between the forty-fourth and forty-eighth deg. west long. extending in length from north to south about one hundred and forty miles; but its breadth is not so considerable. This country is divided into the eastern and western divisions by the great bay of Chesapeak.

Though the air in summer is excessive hot, and in

winter very cold, when the north wind blows, yet their heats are seldom very troublesome, and only in a perfect calm, which seldom happens above two or three days in the year, and then but a few hours at a time; when this inconvenience is rendered very tolerable, by their cool shades, their open and airy rooms, harbours, and grottoes. In spring and autumn the weather is as pleasant as can be wished; even the winters do not last above three or four months, and in these they have seldom one month's bad weather. During all the rest they have a clear air and a bright sun, and are scarce ever troubled with fogs. They have indeed sometimes hard frosts, but they last no longer than while the wind blows from the north and north-west points, which is seldom more than three or four days; and at other times they have no frost at all. Their rains, except in the depth of winter, are pleasant and refreshing, and in summer continue but a few hours. However, these summer showers are very heavy for the time they last. That part of the country which lies on the bays of the sea, and the mouths of the rivers, is certainly hot and moist, but higher up in the country the air is more agreeable, especially since their lands have been cleared of wood. In the heat of summer they have however dreadful thunder, but as it cools and refreshes the air, the people rather wish for it than fear it.

The face of the country may be divided into the low lands next the sea, the hilly country towards the heads of the rivers, and the Apalachian or Allegany mountains, which are exceedingly high, and extend from the north-east to the south-west, parallel to the Atlantic ocean.

The low lands formerly consisted of swamps covered with woods, and were in a manner a continued forest, till the English cleared part of it, either to make room for their plantations, in building of ships and houses, or the making of tobacco-casks and pipe-staves for exportation. All these have, at length, made such havock among the woods, that the people begin to want timber; especially near their forts and rivers, towards the heads of which is a mixture of hills and valleys covered with a variety of timber and fruit-trees; and where these are wanting are large savannahs, or meadows, where the grass grows to a surprising height.

The soil is here as fruitful as in any other country, the principal part being a large plain interspersed with hills of so easy an ascent, and of such a moderate height, that they rather seem an artificial than a natural ornament. An abundance of rivers and brooks diffuses fertility throughout the country, and there is no tree, plant, or grain that grows in Virginia but thrives as well here; and as the animals and every thing else are the same in both countries, we shall avoid repetition, and refer our readers for these particulars to the description of Virginia.

This country is watered by innumerable springs, and many fine rivers; the principal of these are Potowmac, which, rising in the mountains on the north-west, runs to the south-east, separating Maryland from Virginia, and then falls into the middle of Chesapeak-bay. Potowmac, which issues near the ocean, runs directly south, till turning to the west, it falls into Chesapeak-bay, near Watkins's point. The river Patuxent rises in Arundel county, and running to the south-east, falls into Chesapeak-bay, about twenty miles to the northward of the river Potowmac. The Severn rises on the north-west, and running south-east falls into the upper part of the same bay. Sassafras-river rises in the north-east, and running almost due west, discharges itself into the north of the same bay. Wicomico-river rises on the eastern shore, runs to the south-west, and falls into the same bay, almost opposite the mouth of Potowmac river.

There are many other rivers capable of receiving large ships, which with the numerous bays and creeks where-with the land is on every side indented, affords the advantage of bringing vessels to the very doors of the planters.

Maryland is divided into ten counties, of which the four following are on the east side of the bay, Somerset, Dorchester, Talbot, and Cecil county. Those on the west side of the bay are St. Mary's county, Charles-county,

Prince George-county, Anne Arundel-county, and Baltimore-county.

The capital of the province is Annapolis, which is situated on the Severn; but though the governor resides there, and the courts of justice, with the general assemblies, are held in the town, it does not much exceed a hundred houses; for, throughout the whole colony of Maryland, the English live in their several plantations, which are almost all situated upon some navigable creek or river with which the province abounds, by which means the planters have the convenience of shipping their own produce to England and other parts, and of being supplied from thence with foreign commodities. Hence all the towns are extremely small; indeed, every plantation is a little town of itself provided with provisions and necessaries, a considerable planter's warehouse being a kind of shop, where he not only supplies his own family, but inferior planters, servants, and labourers, and has commodities to barter for tobacco and other goods, there being but little money in the province, and but little occasion for it, tobacco answering all the uses of gold and silver; and indeed there are but few shopkeepers who live entirely by buying and selling. The tobacco of this province called Oronoko, is sold to great advantage, and the planters of Maryland find so good vent for it in foreign markets, that several hundred sail of ships are annually employed in the commerce between Great Britain and this country. The number of inhabitants amount to about eighty-five thousand whites, and twenty-five thousand negro slaves.

Maryland was esteemed a part of Virginia till the year 1632, when king Charles I. made a grant of all the country not then planted on the north of Potowmac river to lord Baltimore, a Roman-catholic nobleman, and his heirs; and the country was called Maryland in honour to queen Mary, consort to king Charles. His lordship sent Leonard Calvert, Esq; with some popish gentlemen and other adventurers, to the number of two hundred, to take possession of the country; who, sailing from England in November 1633, arrived at the mouth of Potowmac river in March following, and having fixed on a proper place for beginning a settlement, purchased the land of the natives. The place they chose was near a small bay at the mouth of the above river, and was a town belonging to the Yoamaco Indians, who, having been defeated by the Susquahana Indians, had resolved to leave the town and retire farther into the country. The English arriving at this happy juncture, and fulfilling their agreement, were immediately put into possession of one half of the town.

The English having thus by purchase become masters of a spot of cleared ground, they not only began to build a town, which they called St. Mary's, but to plant corn; they also purchased all the corn they could of the Indians, by which means they had very soon a plentiful supply; and as they prudently took care to cultivate a friendship with the Indians, they avoided the distresses to which the neighbouring colony of Virginia had often been reduced. While they were cultivating the ground, and raising large quantities of Indian corn, the natives went every day into the woods to hunt for game, bringing venison and turkies to the English colony in great plenty, for which they received knives, tools, and toys.

Thus both nations lived in the greatest friendship, doing mutual good offices for each other, till some of the English in Virginia envying the happiness of this thriving colony, had the baseness to suggest to the Indians, that these strangers were not really English, as they pretended, but Spaniards, and would enslave them, as they had done many of their countrymen. Having thus sowed the seeds of suspicion and enmity in the minds of these inoffensive people, who now made preparations to attack them, the new planters prepared to defend themselves, built a good fort with all expedition, and took every other necessary precaution for their defence; but continued to treat the Indians with such kindness, that partly by the effect this had upon them, and partly by the awe of their arms, the ill designs of their enemies were defeated.

Being thus happy in the enjoyment of peace and plenty, they soon received reinforcements from England, many popish families of rank and fortune retiring thither to avoid the penal laws which were at that time made against them in England. After the king's death, Cromwell deprived the proprietor of his rights, and Maryland remained under the governors appointed by the parliament and Cromwell, till the Restoration, when lord Baltimore was reinstated in his former possessions, which he cultivated with his usual wisdom, care, and moderation. No people could live in greater ease and security; and his lordship, willing that as many as possible should enjoy the benefits of his mild and equitable administration, gave his consent to an act of assembly, which he had before promoted in this province, for allowing a free and unlimited toleration for all who professed the Christian religion, of whatever denomination. This liberty, which was never violated, encouraged a great number, not only of the church of England, but of all kinds of dissenters, to settle in Maryland, which before that time was almost wholly in the hands of Roman catholics.

Though this nobleman was guilty of no mal-administration in his government, though he was a zealous Roman catholic, and firmly attached to the cause of king James II. this could not prevent his charter being ques-

tioned in that arbitrary reign, and a suit being commenced to deprive him of the property and jurisdiction of a province granted by the royal favour, and peopled by himself at a vast expence: but it was the error of that weak reign neither to know its friends nor its enemies. Upon the Revolution the lord Baltimore had no reason to expect any favour, yet he met with more than king James himself had intended him: he was indeed deprived of his jurisdiction, but was allowed the profits of his province, which were far from being inconsiderable; and when his descendants conformed to the church of England, they were restored to all their rights. At present but a small part of the province is vested in lord Baltimore, he having conveyed to others the greatest part of it.

This colony and Pennsylvania were for a long time free from being harrassed by the calamity of any war, offensive or defensive, with their Indian neighbours, with whom they always lived in the most exemplary harmony. Indeed in a war which the Indians made upon the colony of Virginia, they by mistake made an incursion into the bounds of Maryland; but they were soon sensible of their error, and atoned for it. The late war, however, changed every thing; for the Indians were then taught by the French to laugh at all their ancient alliances.

C H A P. III.

Of the Southern Part of the British Colonies on the Continent of AMERICA, particularly of VIRGINIA, CAROLINA, GEORGIA, and FLORIDA.

S E C T. I.

Of VIRGINIA.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, and Face of the Country. Of Chesapeak-bay, with the Rivers and Soil of Virginia. Of the Vegetables, containing a Description of the Tobacco Plant and its Preparation; of the Flowers; the Myrtle-berry, and the Candles made of the Wax extracted from them; the wild Fruits, their Kitchen-Gardens, and a general View of the Beauties of the Country.

VIRGINIA contains a very extensive territory, it being seated between the thirty-sixth and thirty-ninth degree north latitude, and between the seventy-fourth and eightieth of west longitude; it extending about two hundred and forty miles in length from north to south, and about a hundred and twenty miles in breadth from east to west. It is bounded on the north by the river Potowmac, on the east by the bay of Chesapeak, on the south by Carolina, and on the west by the Alleghany mountains.

With respect to the climate, the heat and cold both here and in Maryland are governed by the winds; the north and north-west winds are commonly cold and clear; but the south-east moist, hazy, and very hot. In winter the air is dry and clear; and though the snow falls in great quantities, it seldom lies above a day or two: the frosts are quick and sharp, freezing the river over, though three miles across; but do not continue long. Their spring is somewhat earlier than ours; in April they have frequent rains: May and June are very pleasant months, the heat being greatly tempered by cooling breezes; but July and August are generally very sultry, the air sometimes growing in a manner stagnant, which produces dreadful thunder and lightning; but even then the heat is rendered tolerable by the refreshing sea-breezes; and in September and October the rains fall, when the inhabitants become liable to agues and intermitting fevers. The weather is changeable, and the changes sudden and violent. Their winter frosts come on without the least warning: thus, after a warm

day, towards the setting in of winter, so intense a cold often succeeds, as to freeze the rivers in one night; but these frosts, as well as their rains, are rather violent than of long continuance.

The whole face of the country is so extremely low towards the sea, that when you come within fifteen fathom soundings, you can hardly distinguish land from the mast-head. All this coast of America has one useful particularity, that you know your distance exactly by the soundings, which uniformly and gradually diminish as you approach the land. The trees appear first as if they arose out of the water, and afford the stranger a very uncommon and not disagreeable view. In sailing to Virginia, or Maryland, you pass a streight between two points of land called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a passage into the bay of Chesapeak, one of the largest and safest bays perhaps in the world; for it enters the country near three hundred miles from the south to the north, having the eastern side of Maryland, and a small part of Virginia on the same peninsula, to cover it from the Atlantic ocean. This bay is almost eighteen miles broad for a considerable way, and seven where it is narrowest, the water in most places being nine fathoms deep. Through its whole extent it receives both on the eastern and western side a vast number of fine navigable rivers; for, besides those of Maryland from the side of Virginia, it receives James-river, York-river, the Rappahannoc, and the Potowmac.

These, in the order they are here mentioned, discharge themselves, with several smaller ones, into the bay of Chesapeak; and are not only navigable themselves for very large vessels a prodigious way into the country, but have so many creeks, and receive such a number of smaller navigable rivers, as renders the communication of all parts of this country infinitely more easy than that of any other country. The Potowmac is navigable for near two hundred miles; it is nine miles broad at its mouth, and for a vast way not less than seven. The other three are navigable upwards of eighty; and in the windings of their several courses approach one another so nearly, that the distance between them is in some parts not more than ten,

ten, and sometimes not above five miles; while in others there is fifty miles between each of these rivers. The planters, as in Maryland, load and unload vessels of great burthen each at his own door; which, as their commodities are of small value in proportion to their bulk, is a very fortunate circumstance.

The soil in the low grounds of Virginia is a dark fat mould, which for many years, without any manure, yields plentifully whatever is committed to it. The soil as you leave the rivers becomes light and sandy, but, though sooner exhausted than the low country, yields corn and tobacco extremely well. The land higher up the rivers, throughout the whole country, is generally a level ground, with shallow valleys, which abound with springs and streams of clear water, there being interspersed some small hills and extensive vales. The lands next the rivers are stored with large oaks, walnut-trees, hickories, ash, beech, poplar, and many other sorts of timber of a surprising size. Towards the mouth of the rivers the land has a moist and fat mould, for the most part well stored with oaks, poplars, pines, cedars, cypresses, and sweet gums; the trunks are often thirty, forty, and some sixty or seventy feet high, without a branch or limb. It likewise produces great variety of evergreens, as the holly, sweet myrtle, and many others. The heads of the rivers afford a mixture of hills, valleys, and plains, adorned with fruit and timber trees.

There are also found great variety of earths, as antimony, talc, yellow and red ochre, fuller's earth, and tobacco-pipe clay. In these upper parts are likewise coal, slate, flat paving-stones in vast quantities, and likewise pebbles, though some travellers have said there is not a stone in the country; besides, near the falls of the rivers are vast quantities of stone fit for all uses.

There is no better wheat than what is produced in this province and in Maryland; it also produces other sorts of English grain, as barley, oats, rye, peas, &c. but the cultivation of tobacco employs all their attention, and almost all their hands; so that they scarcely raise corn enough for their own consumption.

As the great produce of this country is tobacco, and as Virginia is celebrated for producing the best, it will be proper here to give a particular account of the management of this plant so well known in England. This plant at its full height is as tall as a common sized man; the stalk is straight, hairy, and clammy; the leaves alternately of a faded yellowish green, and towards the lower part of the plant of a great size. The tobacco seeds are first sown in beds, where having remained a month, the young sprouts are in the first rainy weather transplanted, and the earth raised about them: within the space of another month they grow near a foot high; after which the people top them and prune off the bottom leaves, leaving only seven or eight on the stalk, that they may be the better fed; after which these leaves in six weeks time come to their full growth. The planters prune off the suckers, and clear them of the hornworm twice a week, which is called worming and suckering. This last work lasts three weeks or a month, by which time the leaf, from being green, begins to turn brownish, and to spot and thicken, which is the sign of its ripening. They cut the plants down as fast as they ripen, heap them up, and let them lie a night to sweat. The next day they carry them to the tobacco-house, where every plant is hung up at a convenient distance from each other, for about a month or six weeks: they take them down in moist weather, else they will crumble to dust. After this they are laid upon sticks, and covered up close in the tobacco-house for a week or a fortnight to sweat; and then opening the bulk in a wet day, they are stripped and sorted, the top leaves being the best, and the bottom the worst tobacco. The last work is to pack it in hogheads, or to bundle it up, which is also done in a wet season; for in the curing of tobacco, wet seasons are as necessary as dry to render the leaf pliant.

There is no commodity of such advantage to the revenue as this, for while it produces a vast sum, it seems to lay but a very inconsiderable burthen upon the people in England, all the weight in reality falling upon the planter. Near three hundred thousand pounds sterling per annum is received by the government for the duty on

this article only; and the exported tobacco, the far greater part of the profits of which come to the British merchant, brings almost as great a sum annually to the kingdom.

The country is all over interspersed with a surprising variety of curious plants and flowers. They have a sort of briar growing somewhat like the sarfaparilla; the berry of which is as big as a pea, and of a bright crimson colour, very hard and finely polished. The flowers grow spontaneously in a surprising variety: among these is a most beautiful crown imperial; the cardinal flower, which is of a beautiful scarlet; the moccasin flower, and a thousand others; for almost all the year round the levels and vales are beautified with flowers of one colour or another, which render the woods as fragrant as a garden. From these materials the wild bees make vast quantities of honey; but their magazines are often rifled by bears, racoons, and the like. There is also found the fine tulip-bearing laurel-tree, which has the pleasantest smell in the world, and keeps blossoming and seeding several months together: it delights much in the gravelly banks of the brooks, and perfumes the very woods with its odour; as does also the large tulip-tree; the locust, which resembles the jessamine; and the perfuming crab-tree, during this season. With one sort or other of these, and by many other sweet flowering-trees not mentioned, the woods are almost every where adorned.

At the mouth of the rivers, and all along upon the banks of the sea and bay, and likewise near many of the creeks and swamps, grows the myrtle, which bears a berry of which the inhabitants make a hard brittle wax of a beautiful green colour, which by refining becomes almost transparent. Of this they make candles, which are never greasy to the touch, nor melt with lying in the hottest weather; nor does the snuff ever offend the smell, like that of a tallow candle; but instead of being disagreeable, if a candle be put out it yields a pleasant fragrance, which is diffused all over the room; so that nice people frequently put them out on purpose to smell the incense of the expiring snuff.

The melting of these berries is said to have first been discovered by a surgeon, who performed wonderful things with a salve made of them. The method of managing these berries is by boiling them in water, by which all of them dissolve, except the stone or seed in the middle, which amounts to about half the bulk of the berry, the biggest of which is something less than a pepper-corn. Cedar berries have been found to yield the same sort of wax; but their berries are as much larger than pepper, as those of the myrtle are less.

The fruits natural to the country are in great abundance, the several species of which are produced according to the difference of the soil, and the various situation of the country.

Peaches, nectarines, and apricots, that grow upon standard trees thrive here extremely; and of the two first there are finer sorts than in England. The best sort of these cling to the stone, and will not come off clear; are they call plum-nectarines and plum-peaches. Some of these are twelve or thirteen inches in compass. These sorts of fruits are raised so easily there, that some good husbands who live at a distance from the woods, plant large orchards of them purposely for their hogs; and others make a drink of them, which they call mobby, and either drink it like cyder, or make brandy of it by distillation, it making the best spirit next to grapes.

Of the cherries which grow wild in the woods there are at least three sorts, two of which grow upon trees as large as the common English oak; the fruit of one of them grows in bunches like grapes. Both these sorts are black without, and but one of them red within: this last is more palatable than the English black cherry, it not having its bitterness. The other, which hangs on the branches like grapes, is water-coloured within, of a faintish sweet, and is greedily devoured by the small birds. The third sort, which is called the Indian cherry, grows higher up the country, and is commonly found by the sides of rivers growing on small slender trees that are scarce able to support them; but this is the most delicious cherry in the world: it is of a dark purple when ripe, and grows upon a single stalk like the English cherry;

cherry; but is very small. They are, however, so greedily devoured by the small birds, that they seldom remain long enough on the tree to ripen.

The plums which grow wild are of two sorts, the black and the murrey-plum, both which are small, and have much the same relish with the damson.

The persimmon is a kind of Indian plum of several sizes, between the bigness of a damson and a Burgamot pear; but, till they are fully ripe, the taste of them are so very rough as not to be endured: however, they are pleasant fruit when fully ripe. These, like most other fruits, grow as thick upon the trees as ropes of onions; so that the branches are often broke down by them.

An incredible variety and plenty of grapes grow wild, some of which are very sweet and pleasant to the taste, and others very harsh and rough. There are two sorts of them as large as the Dutch gooseberry, which are very fine eating: one species of them is white, the other purple, but both of them are much alike in flavour.

We ought not here to omit the honey and sugar-trees, which grow near the heads of the rivers. The honey-tree bears a thick swelling pod full of honey, appearing at a distance like the bending pod of a bean or pea. The sugar-tree yields a kind of sap, or juice, which by boiling is made into sugar. The juice is drawn off by making an incision in the trunk of the tree, and placing a receiver under it. The Indians make one pound of sugar out of eight pounds of the liquor. This sugar has a large full grain, and its sweetness resembles that of good muscovado.

They have musk-melons, water-melons, pompions, cushaws, macoas, and gourds. The musk-melons here resemble the large Indian kind, and generally fill four or five quarts. The water-melons are much larger, and of several kinds, distinguished by the colour of their meat and seed; some of them are exceeding pleasant to the taste, and very beautiful. One sort has the rind of a lively green, streaked and watered, the meat of a carnation colour, and the seed black and shining. Their pompions are much larger and finer than those in England. Their cushaws are a kind of pompion of a bluish green, streaked with white when fit for use, and larger than the pompion. The macoas are a smaller sort of pompion, of which there are many sorts, all of which are here called by the Indians by this name; but by the more northern Indians they are called the squash. These being boiled whole when young and the shell tender, and melted butter or cream poured over them, are very good with all sorts of butcher's meat.

There are here great variety of berries, all very good in their kind. They have three sorts of mulberries, two black and one white, of which the long black sort are the best; these being about the size of a boy's thumb. The other two kinds are of the shape of the English mulberry, but are of a faintish sweet, without any tartness.

There grow naturally two sorts of currants, one red and the other black; but these are far more pleasant than those of the same colours in England.

The wild strawberries are as delicious as any in the world, and grow almost every where in the woods and fields, where they are so plentiful, that few persons take care to transplant them. Here are also wild raspberries, cranberries, and hurts, with various kinds of nuts. Besides these they have all the other fruits common in England.

A kitchen-garden thrives no where better or faster; they have all the culinary plants that grow in England, in far greater perfection, with many others that will not grow there. Besides these they have many medicinal plants, roots, and wood fit for medicine and dying. The snake-root here is a great antidote in all pestilential distempers; the rattle-snake-root is the most admirable remedy ever discovered for curing the bite of that reptile, which has sometimes been mortal in two minutes. If this medicine be early applied it presently removes the infection, and in two or three hours restores the patient to as perfect health as if he had never been hurt.

An author born in Virginia, after shewing that the unhealthiness of the climate attributed to this country is solely owing to the folly and indiscretion of those who on their first arrival from Europe over-heat themselves, and

then take a surfeit with greedily eating their delicious fruits, by drinking cold water or new cyder, adds, "Here the people enjoy all the benefits of a warm sun, and by the shady groves are protected from its inconvenience. Here all their senses are entertained with an endless succession of native pleasures. Their eyes are ravished with the beauties of nature: their ears are serenaded with the perpetual murmur of brooks, and the through-bass which the wind plays when it wanders through the trees; the merry birds too join their pleasing notes to this rural concert, especially the mock-birds; who love society so well, that whenever they see mankind they will perch upon a twig very near them, and sing the sweetest wild airs in the world: but what is most remarkable in these melodious animals, they will frequently fly at small distances before a traveller, warbling out their notes several miles an end, and by their music make a man forget the fatigues of his journey. Their taste is regaled with the most delicious fruits, which, without art, they have in great variety and perfection. And then their smell is refreshed with an eternal fragrantcy of flowers and sweets, with which nature perfumes and adorns the woods almost the whole year round.

"Have you pleasure in a garden? all things thrive in it most surprisingly; you cannot walk by a bed of flowers, but, besides the entertainment of their beauty, your eyes will be saluted with the charming colours of the humming-bird, which revels among the flowers, and sucks off the dew and honey from their tender leaves, on which it only feeds. Its size is not half so large as an English wren, and its colour is a glorious shining mixture of scarlet, green, and gold. Colonel Bird, in his garden, which is the finest in that country, has a summer-house set round with Indian honeysuckles, which all the summer is continually full of sweet flowers, in which these birds delight exceedingly. Upon these flowers I have seen ten or a dozen of these beautiful creatures together, sport about me so familiarly, that with their little wings they often fanned my face."

S E C T. II.

Of the Quadrupeds of Virginia, particularly the Panther, the Bear, the Elk, the Raccoon, the Opossum, and the Flying-Squirrel. Of the Birds, with a particular Description of the Humming-Bird and the Fishing-Hawk. Of the Reptiles and Insects, with a very particular Account of the Rattle-Snake. Of the Fishes of Virginia.

IT has been already observed, that there were neither horses, cows, sheep, nor hogs in America before they were carried thither by the Europeans; but now they are multiplied so extremely, that many of them here run wild. The hogs in particular are very numerous, and in general find their own support in the woods, without any care of their owner, and it is well if the proprietor can find and catch the pigs, or any part of a farrow, when they are young, in order to mark them; for if there be any marked in the herd, they determine the property of the rest, because they seldom miss their gangs; for as they are bred in company, so they continue to the end.

There are also many horses foaled in the woods of the uplands, and are as shy as any wild creature. The young men take great delight in hunting these wild horses, which they pursue sometimes with dogs, and sometimes without; for as they have no mark upon them, they belong to the first who take them; but they are so swift, that it is very difficult to come up with them.

Among the animals originally found in Virginia are panthers, bears, wolves, elks, red and fallow deer, racoons, wild-cats, the opossum, &c.

The panther of North America is of the cat kind, near as large as the tyger, and much of the same shape. It is of a pale reddish colour, finely mottled with small round black spots, and the hair is short. The eyes of these animals are large and of a greyish colour, very fierce and sparkling. Their tails are exceeding long; and they are very strong limbed. They pur like a cat, and will climb trees

trees with the greatest agility imaginable; but are so wild, that they cannot be tamed even when taken young. They devour swine, deer, or any other creature they can master, but seldom attack mankind, except they are enraged by being wounded: it is even said that a small dog will make them take to a tree, where they generally remain till they are shot by the huntsmen. The flesh looks as well as any shambles meat, and is much admired.

The bears are not very large, but, though they seem so clumsy, they climb trees very nimbly, and in coming down always go with the tail foremost. They are also very dexterous and expert in fishing. It is remarkable that the female never appears abroad when with young. Bear-hunting is a common diversion both with the Christians and Indians, the former having a breed of dogs fit for that sport, who bark and snap at him till he mounts a tree; when, by the noise of the dogs, the huntsmen repair to the place, and generally shoot one after another till they kill him; for though the bears are not naturally fierce, they will fight most desperately when wounded. Their flesh is good, nourishing, and not inferior in taste to the finest pork; the paws are accounted the best eating. The young cubs are a most delicious dish; the planters prefer the flesh to that of any other meat; it looks as well as it eats, their fat being as white as snow, and the sweetest of any creature in the world.

The elk is a strong and swift beast, bigger than a horse, and exactly like a deer. They have two large horns, which weigh twelve or fourteen pounds. Their neck is short and thick; but the ears and back are very long. In colour they resemble a hart; but their flesh is not near so sweet as that of the fallow deer.

The racoon is of a dark grey colour, and in shape and size partly resembles a fox; but has large black eyes, with great whiskers like a cat; the nose resembles that of a pig, and the feet are formed like those of a monkey. The tail is round, and encircled with annular stripes like that of a cat. It makes use of its fore-feet in the manner of hands, and will run up a tree to the very end of the boughs. This animal is very fond of crabs, and it is said that when he wants to catch them, he will stand by the side of the water and let his tail hang in, which the crab taking for a bait fastens his claws in it; upon which the racoon springs forward a considerable way upon the land, dragging the crab along with him, which no sooner finds itself out of its element than it lets go its hold, and the racoon seizing it crosswise in his mouth, devours it.

The opossum is a very extraordinary animal of the size of a cat, it being almost eighteen inches in length; the head resembles that of a fox; the eyes are little, round, clear, and lively; and the ears long, broad, smooth, thin, transparent, and placed erect. The fore-legs are short, and no more than three inches long; but those behind are more than four, and the feet resemble hands. Its back is covered with long hair; but on the head, neck, under the belly, and legs, it is pretty short. The tail is round, and a foot long, with which it lays hold of the branches of trees, and thus suspends itself. It is hairy from the root to the length of four inches; but the other part is naked, and scaled like a snake, which it nearly resembles. The whole back, the sides, and the upper part of the tail, are chiefly black; but under the neck, belly, and tail, it is of a yellowish colour. This animal has one peculiar property which distinguishes it from all others in the world, the female having a false belly, or bag, hanging below under the other belly, with a pretty large aperture at the end, towards the hinder-legs. Within this bag, on the usual parts of the common belly, are eight teats, and, what is very extraordinary, upon these when the female conceives the young are formed, and there hang like fruit upon the stalk, with all their members complete, till they grow in bulk and weight to their appointed size; and then dropping off, are received in the false belly, from which they go out at pleasure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens. The false belly is hairy within, and the aperture, which is big enough to admit a large orange, shuts up pretty close, and cannot be well opened without violence. Improbable as this method of propagation may appear, yet this account is confirmed by a considerable number of authors, and particularly by that

great naturalist Mr. Ray, who dissected one of these animals himself, and informs us, that this false belly is the only uterus the animal has, no other being to be found. These animals are so hard to kill, that when their skulls are mashed and broken to pieces, and they seem to be quite dead, yet in a few hours they will recover and creep about again.

There are here two sorts of squirrels, one grey and commonly larger than a rabbit, but small like a fox; yet are good to eat. It is commonly of a grey colour, yet some are pyed, and some white, red, and black.

The flying-squirrel is of a grey or light dun colour, and is less than the English. It has a fine thin skin on each side, covered with hair like the rest of the body, and extending from the fore-feet to the hinder-feet, which buoys them up as they spring from one tree to another, and enables them to take a much more extensive leap than any other squirrel; this is termed flying.

They have all our sorts of wild and tame fowl in equal perfection with us, and some which we have not, with a vast number of birds of various kinds valuable for their beauty or their note. The white-owl of Virginia is much larger than those of England, and is all over of a bright silver-coloured plumage, except one black spot upon his breast. The Virginian nightingale is a beautiful bird, whose colours are crimson and blue. The mocking-bird is supposed to excel all others in the fineness of its note, and is remarkable for imitating the notes of all others. The rock-bird is very sociable, and his society very agreeable by the sweetness of his music.

The humming-bird is the least of all the birds yet known, and has this remarkable peculiarity, that though it is feathered like a bird, it gets its living like the bee by sucking honey from the flowers. These birds are of different colours; but the cocks are more beautiful than the hens, and are finely tinged with red, green, and gold, as hath been already observed, which being exposed to the sun-beams shine with wonderful lustre. They have long bills and tails, considering their size, and in some of the larger flowers they often bury themselves, and are quite covered while sucking to the bottom of them, by which means they are often caught by children. They fly very nimbly, but more like insects than birds, from flower to flower, making a humming noise somewhat like that of a bee. They breed during the heat of summer; but what becomes of them in the winter is not known. Their nests are a great curiosity, and may be said to be one of the finest pieces of workmanship the whole species of winged animals can shew; for it commonly hangs on a single briar, and is most artificially woven like a round ball, with a small hole to go in and out. Within it the hen lays and hatches her eggs, which are oval, and no bigger than a small pea.

There are here several sorts of eagles and hawks. The fishing-hawks are very eager in catching of fish at their first coming in the spring; and the bald eagle no sooner perceives a hawk that has taken his prey, but he immediately pursues and strives to get above him in the air; which if he can once attain, the hawk, for fear of being torn by him, lets the fish drop, and thus compounds for his own safety; for the fish is no sooner loose from the hawk's talons, than the eagle shoots with such inconceivable swiftness, that he catches it in the air. It is said that the fishing-hawks in more plentiful seasons will catch a fish and loiter about with it in the air, in order to have a chase with an eagle; and when he does not appear soon enough, will make a noise as insolently defying him. This is said to have been frequently seen.

The troublesome reptiles and vermin of this country are frogs, snakes, musketos, chinchies, seed-ticks, or red-worms. The marshes, fens, and watery grounds are full of frogs, which make a disagreeable croaking noise. In the swamps and running streams are frogs of an incredible size, which are called bull-frogs, from their bellowing noise. These are said to be frequently six times as large as those in Europe; but there are no toads in the country.

The rattle-snake usually fills strangers with terror, who are under great apprehensions of being bit by this formidable reptile; but it is here very rarely seen, and then

then never does the least mischief, unless you offer to disturb it, and by that means provoke it to bite in its own defence; and even then it never fails to give fair warning, by making a noise with its rattle, which may be heard at a considerable distance.

The rattle-snake is so called from the rattles at the ends of their tails, which is a connection of joints within a thin covering of a horny nature. The number of joints, or rattles, are uncertain, being more or less according to the age of the snake; some authors asserting, that every year there is the addition of a new rattle, and that these do not begin to grow till they are three years old. Mr. Brickell informs us, that he has seen one with thirty rattles. M. Derham and others have observed, that Providence has wisely given these rattles to this poisonous serpent, that the noise might be a warning to man and beast to avoid the approaching danger. Some of these reptiles grow to the length of six or seven feet, and they are about the thickness of the small of a man's leg. Their skins are all over covered with thin scales, with a ridge through the middle of them, of an orange tawny; the rest of their back are generally of a blackish colour beautifully mottled, and the belly of an ash colour, inclining to lead. The top of the head is flat as in the viper, and by the protuberance of the jaws somewhat resembles a bearded arrow; it has two nostrils, and its eyes are round and very bright and shining. The mouth is very large; its tongue in all respects like that of a viper, which it darts out and retracts again with great agility. The male is easily distinguished from the female by a spot on the head resembling a patch of black velvet, and his head is smaller and longer. They seldom or never bite except they are provoked, and this they cannot do till they gather themselves into a coil, and then will spring at a good distance to bite whatever provokes or injures them; otherwise they are most peaceable creatures, and never attack or molest any one. They have several small teeth in each jaw, which serve them for catching and retaining their food, which they always swallow whole; and besides these are the poisonous fangs, which are placed without the upper jaw, towards the fore part of the mouth. These fangs usually lie under a strong membrane, or sheath; but are erected upon occasion, and there are only two on each side of their upper jaw. These are hooked, but in all of them is a hole, so small that you can but just get in the point of a small needle; towards the point is a plain slit, and close to the jaw a bag filled with venom, which issues out of the hole when this serpent bites. The venom, which is of a water-colour tinged with yellow, is not always of the same force, it being most poisonous in the hottest weather. Those who have been bit say, that it seems as if a flash of fire ran through their whole bodies: but the Indians have happily a remedy, by which they easily cure themselves if bitten by accident, which is by chewing a bit of the rattle-snake root, swallowing some part of the juice, and applying the rest to the wound, which perfectly cures those who are bit in a few minutes.

Dr. Brickell observes, that the Indians frequently pull out these poisonous fangs, which is easily done by tying a bit of red woollen cloth to the upper end of a long hollow cane, provoking the rattle-snake to bite, and then suddenly snatching it away, by which means the teeth are found sticking fast in the cloth.

Their common food is frogs, ground-mice, crickets, grasshoppers, and other insects; and the rattle-snakes themselves serve for food to bears, and even hogs will eat them without harm. They are viviparous, and generally bring forth about twelve young ones.

We shall now consider the effects of the rattle-snake's poison, of which we have some extraordinary instances given us by captain Hall, who being in South Carolina, where perhaps the venom may be somewhat more violent than in this province, and where they are at least more numerous, procured a fine healthful rattle snake, and, with one Mr. Kidwell, a surgeon, and three or four other gentlemen, made several experiments. They got three cur-dogs, the largest no bigger than a common harrier; and the snake being tied and pinned down to a grass-plat, they took the largest of the dogs, and having tied a cord round his neck, so as not to strangle him, the captain held one end, and another person the other; when pul-

ling the dog over the snake, the latter raised himself near two feet, and bit the dog as he was jumping. The dog yelped, by which the captain perceived he was bitten, and pulling the dog to him as fast as he could, he found his eyes fixed, his tongue between his teeth, and, in short, he was quite dead in a quarter of a minute: but as they could neither perceive the bite, nor any blood, they ordered some hot water, and scalding off the hair, discovered only one puncture, with a bluish green colour appearing a little round it, between his fore legs and breast.

Half an hour after they took a second dog, that was somewhat smaller, and brought him in like manner over the snake, which bit his ear, so that all the company saw it. The dog yelped much, reeled and staggered about for some time, then fell down and struggled as if convulsed, and two or three times got up, and wagging his tail, though slowly, endeavoured to follow a negro boy, who used to make much of him. They put him into a closet, and ordered the boy to look after him, who two hours after brought word that the dog was dead.

About an hour after the second dog was bitten, they took the third in like manner, which the snake bit on the right side of the belly, so that he drew blood. The dog for about a minute did not seem to be hurt; but was dead the next morning.

Four days after they got two dogs as big as common bull-dogs; and the first which the snake bit, on the inside of his left thigh, died exactly in half a minute, according to the watches of two gentlemen present, though no blood was drawn. The second was bit about an hour after, on the outside of the thigh, where they perceived blood at two places, and he died in four minutes. As they imagined the venom was not quite spent, they got a cat, which he bit an hour after; she was very sick, and was found dead the next morning.

The last experiment the captain made with this snake was to try if his poison would not prove mortal to the reptile himself. In order to this, he hanged him in such a manner that he was not above half his length on the ground, and then so irritated him by pricking and scratching him with two needles fastened to the end of a stick, that he soon bit himself, after having several times attempted to bite the stick. He then let him down, and he was quite dead in eight or ten minutes. The snake was then cut into five pieces, and given to a hog, the head-part first, in the sight of several people. The hog eat up all the snake, and ten or twelve days afterwards the captain saw the hog alive and healthful.

But besides the effect of the poison, there are others attributed to the eyes of this serpent, that appear much more surprizing; and we have many accounts that seem to prove that the rattle-snake, by fixing its eyes on any small animal, as a bird or squirrel, though sitting on the branch of a tree, can so disorder their animal spirits, that they have not the power to fly but fall down, and are swallowed by that dreadful reptile. The following instance given by colonel Beverly cannot fail of being highly agreeable to the reader.

The above gentleman, with two other persons in company, stopping at an orchard by the side of a road, one of the company searching for the best cherries espied a hare, better than half grown, sitting; and though he went close by her she did not move, till he, not suspecting the occasion of her tameness, gave her a lash with his whip; upon which she ran three or four yards, and sat down again. The gentleman not finding the fruit ripe, immediately returned the same way; and near the place where he struck the hare observed a rattle-snake. Not suspecting the charm, he went back about twenty yards to a hedge to get a stick to kill the snake, and at his return found it removed and coiled in the same place from whence he had removed the hare. This made him look about for her, and he soon espied her about ten feet distant from the snake in the place to which she had started when he whipped her. She was now lying down, but would sometimes raise herself on her fore-feet, struggling as it were for life to get away; but could never raise her hinder parts from the ground; and then she would fall flat on her side again, panting vehemently. The hare and snake were in this condition when our author was called, who says, that though all three went within five yards of the

snake to have a full view of the whole, the snake did not so much as give a glance towards them. There they stood at least half an hour, the snake not altering one jot; but the hare often struggled to get up, and fell again on its side; till at last she lay still as if dead. The snake then moved out of his coil, and slid gently and smoothly towards the hare, his colours at that instant shining ten times more bright than at other times. As the snake moved along the hare happened to make another struggle, upon which the snake made a stop, lying at his length till she was quiet, and then advanced till he came up to the hare's hinder parts, which in all this process had been towards the snake. There he surveyed the hare all over, raising part of his body above it; then turning off, he went to the nose, and after that to the ears, which he took into his mouth one after another, working them as a man does a wafer to moisten it. He then returned to the nose, and took the face into his mouth, straining and gathering his lips sometimes on one side sometimes on the other. At the shoulders he was a long time puzzled, often pulling and stretching the hare out at length, till at last he got the whole body into his throat. The spectators then advanced, and our author taking the twist-band off his hat made a noose, and threw it about the snake's neck. This made him very furious; but having secured him, they put him into one end of a wallet, and carried him on horseback five miles to the house where they lodged that night, and killing him the next morning, took the hare out of his belly. The head began to be digested, and the hair to fall off, having laid in the snake's belly about eighteen hours.

Sir Hans Sloane endeavours to solve the mystery, by supposing that when such animals as are the prey of these snakes, as small quadrupeds, birds, &c. are surprized by them, they give them a bite, and the poison allows them time to run a little way, or a bird to fly into the next tree; where the snakes watch them with great earnestness till they fall down, and then licking them over with their spawl swallow them; but this does not seem fully to explain the difficulty, since among the squirrels, birds, and other animals frequently found in their bellies, it does not appear that any of them were wounded: nor could they have an opportunity of ever biting them, if it be true that they never bite with their poisonous fangs without first giving warning by rattling their tails.

They have several other snakes which are more frequently seen, some of which have very little or no hurt in them, as the black-snake, the water-snake, and the corn-snake. However, the black-viper-snake and the copper-bellied-snake are said to be extremely venomous. These three poisonous snakes bring forth their young alive, while the other three lay eggs, which are hatched afterwards. There is here also the horn-snake, which is so called from a sharp horn in its tail, with which it assaults any thing that offends it with such force, that it will strike its tail into the butt-end of a musket so far as to be unable to disengage it.

The musketos are less dangerous, but more troublesome, on account of their being more frequent. They are a kind of long-tailed gnat, and are only found in the low grounds and marshes.

The chinch is a kind of flat bug, that lurks in the beds and bedding, and is very troublesome in the night; but every neat house-wife contrives to keep the beds clear of these vermin, by searching for them early in the spring. Seed ticks and red-worms are small insects that are very troublesome by day, as musketos and chinchies are by night. The seed-ticks are no where to be found but in the track of cattle, upon which the great ticks fasten, and fill their skins so full of blood that they drop off; and wherever they happen to fall, produce a kind of egg, which lies about a fortnight before the seedlings are hatched. They then run in swarms up the next blade of grass, and the first thing that brushes the grass gathers off most of these vermin, which stick like burs upon any thing that touches them. Red-worms lie only in old dead trees and rotten logs, and without sitting down upon them in the midst of summer, no person ever meets with them; but a little warm water immediately brings off both the seed-ticks and red-worms, though they be

ever so thick upon any part of the body, and are so small that they can scarcely be perceived; but if nothing be done to remove them, the itching they occasion goes away in two days time.

No place abounds with sea and river-fish more than Virginia. In February, March, April, and May, shoals of herrings come up into the very brooks, some of the size of ours; but most of them are much larger. There are also plenty of cod, and stingrays, a fish peculiar to this country, so called from its having a sting in its tail; it is, however, esteemed good food. In the rivers are sturgeon, old-wife, the sheep's-head, an excellent fish; trouts, and green-fish in great plenty; also plaice, flounders, whittings, carp, pike, mullets, and perch; and for shell-fish they have crabs, oysters, cockles, and shrimps. Of those that are not eaten, here they have in the seas whale and dog-fish. Here is also a fish called the toad-fish, from its swelling monstrously when taken out of the water; and likewise the rock-fish, some species of which are poisonous; though others, which are not easily distinguished from them, are very wholesome food.

Annually in the month of June there are here vast numbers of worms, which enter the bottoms of ships, floops, and boats, wherever they find the coat of pitch, tar, and lime worn off the timber, and by degrees eat the planks into cells like those of a honeycomb. These worms continue upon the surface of the water from their rise in June till the first great rains, after the middle of July; but after that do no great damage till the next summer season, and never penetrate farther than the plank upon which they first fix. The damage occasioned by these worms may be prevented several ways, as by keeping the coat of pitch, lime, and tallow whole upon the bottom of the ship, or vessel; by anchoring the large vessels in the strength of the tide, during the worm season, and hauling the smaller on shore: by running up into the freshes with the ship or vessel; for they never do any damage in fresh water: and by burning and cleaning immediately after the worm-season is over; for then they have but just stuck into the plank, and have not buried themselves in it.

SECT. III.

Of the Divisions, Number of Inhabitants, and Towns of Virginia: A Character of the People: The Form of Government, and Trade.

VIRGINIA is divided into twenty-five counties, namely, James county, which is seated on both sides the river James, Prince George county, Henrico county, Charles County, Surrey, Isle of Wight, Nansemond, Norfolk, Princess Anne, York, Warwick, Elizabeth, New Kent, King William, and Queen, Gloucester, Middlesex, Essex, Richmond, Stafford, Westmoreland, Lancaster, Northumberland, Northampton, and Acomat counties.

The number of inhabitants in this province is about two hundred thousand whites, and it is supposed there are half that number of slaves; yet there are only two towns in the whole country built by the English; these are Jamestown and Williamsburg.

Jamestown, which before the building of Williamsburg was esteemed the capital, is seated on a peninsula formed by James river, about forty miles from its mouth, in the seventy-sixth degree west longitude, and the thirty-seventh degree thirty minutes north latitude, and contains only about eighty or a hundred houses, the greatest part of which are taverns or public-houses for the entertainment of mariners. Its situation is naturally strong, but the fortifications are neglected, the inhabitants thinking themselves perfectly secure from enemies so far up the river.

Williamsburg, now the capital of Virginia, is seated seven miles from the above town, between James river and York river, in the thirty-seventh degree twenty minutes north latitude, and the seventy-sixth degree thirty minutes west longitude; but though it is the seat of the government, where the general assembly or parliament meet,

meet, it scarce contains sixty houses. It has a town-house, and a handsome college erected for the education of the Indians, and also some works raised for its defence. The above college consists of a president, six professors, and one hundred students; and for endowing it king William not only gave two thousand pounds, but granted twenty thousand acres of land, and one penny per pound on all tobacco exported. It has likewise received several other valuable donations, and is upon the whole one of the richest colleges in America.

The inhabitants of Virginia are a chearful hospitable people, and many of them genteel, vain, and ostentatious; they live luxuriously, and generally leave all kinds of labour to their slaves. But though there are not many rich planters in this province, there is scarce a man so poor as to be reduced to a state of beggary; but if any one happens to be disabled by age or sickness from working, he is quartered upon some substantial planter, where he is plentifully provided for at the public expence.

The constitution of the Virginian government resembles that of Great Britain. The governor represents the king, by whom he is chosen; the council answers to the house of peers; and the representatives of the people, elected by the freemen of every county, are their house of commons.

There are only three public officers besides the governor, who have their commission immediately from his majesty, namely, the auditor of the revenue, the receiver-general, and the secretary, in whose office is kept the public records, and all deeds and other writings are there proved. The treasurer of the province is chosen by the general assembly, and receives the money raised by the acts of that assembly.

No other forces are kept in Virginia but militia, of which the governor is by his commission lieutenant-general, and appoints in each county a colonel, lieutenant-colonel, and all other commissioned officers. All freemen between the ages of sixteen and sixty, not otherwise excused, are obliged to bear arms and attend a general muster once a year in the county where they dwell, and four times a year in smaller parties or single companies.

The public revenues are a rent reserved by the crown of all lands granted by patent: a duty of two shillings a hogshead on all tobacco exported: a duty of six-pence a head for every passenger brought into the country: fines and forfeitures: duties on slaves and servants imported, and on foreign liquors: money raised by acts passed in the assembly, and the heavy duties laid on tobacco when exported to Great Britain.

Their county courts have the power of censuring and punishing all masters that do not provide their servants good and wholesome diet, cloathing, and lodging; and these courts have power to redress any grievance servants may have reason to complain of.

The established religion is that of the church of England: every parish has its minister, who has a house and glebe, with about the value of eighty pounds per annum paid him in tobacco, which the church-wardens collect for him. The ecclesiastical affairs are under the inspection of a commissary authorized by the bishop of London, who presides over all the colonies in religious matters. But though full liberty of conscience is allowed to people of all persuasions, there are few dissenters from the established church.

The chief exports from this province are iron, beef, pork, pipe-staves, and other lumber: but, as hath been already observed, all the other commodities of this country are swallowed up in tobacco. It is computed that generally one year with another two hundred large ships are freighted with that commodity, and that a hundred thousand hogsheads are annually exported, each weighing four hundred weight, out of which it is supposed that forty thousand hogsheads are consumed at home, and the other sixty thousand exported from Great Britain to foreign markets, after most of it is manufactured at home.

S E C T. IV.

A concise History of the Settlement of Virginia.

VIRGINIA, which was discovered by Cabot, is the most ancient of our colonies; though the first attempts to settle a colony were not, strictly speaking, made

in Virginia, but in that part of North Carolina which immediately borders upon it. The great Sir Walter Raleigh, when this country was first made known to the English, saw how advantageous it might be made to this kingdom. He was the first man in England who had a right conception of the advantages of settlements abroad, the only person who had a thorough insight into trade, and who saw clearly the proper methods of promoting it. He applied to court, and formed a company, composed of several persons of distinction and some eminent merchants, who agreed to settle a colony in that part of the world, which, in honour of queen Elizabeth, he named Virginia. The ill success that attended the first attempts seemed to give little hopes of their ever being completed: near half of the first colony was destroyed by the Indians, and the rest, consumed and worn out by fatigue and famine, returned home to their native country: the second colony was cut off to a man in a manner unknown; but was supposed to be destroyed by the Indians: the third had the same unhappy fate; and the fourth quarrelling among themselves, neglected agriculture to hunt for gold, and exasperating the Indians by their insolent behaviour, lost several of their people, and the poor remains of them were returning in a famishing condition to England, when just in the mouth of Chesapeake-bay they met the lord Delaware with a squadron loaded with provisions, and with every thing necessary for their relief and defence, who persuaded them to return.

This nobleman endeavoured with the utmost zeal and assiduity to cherish and support the froward infancy of this unpromising colony. After he had prevailed on the people to return, he comforted them under their misfortunes, pointed out their causes, and uniting the tenderness of a father with the steady severity of a magistrate, healed their divisions, and reconciled them to authority and government, by making them feel by his conduct what a blessing it could be made. Having settled the colony within itself, his next care was to put them upon a proper footing with regard to the Indians, who had been too often treated ill, and whom he now found very haughty and assuming on account of the miserable state to which the English had been reduced; but by some well-timed and vigorous, though cruel, steps, awed them into very peaceable dispositions; and having settled his colony in a very thriving condition, retired home for the benefit of his health, which, by his constant attention to business, and the air of an uncultivated country, had been impaired; but left his son, who had his father's spirit, as his deputy, and Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Summers, the honourable George Piercy, Sir Ferdinand Wenman, and Mr. Newport, for his council.

Lord Delaware on his return to England did not forget the colony. For eight years together he was indefatigable in doing every thing that could tend to the peopling, the support, and the good government of this settlement; and died in the pursuit of the same object in his voyage to Virginia, with a large supply of people, cloathing, and goods.

The colony of Virginia took such vast root under the care of lord Delaware, that it was enabled to stand two terrible storms, in which the injured Indians had nearly cut off that colony, and to subdue them so as to put it entirely out of their power to give the English the least disturbance for many years. After the death of Charles I. Sir William Berkley held out for the crown, till the province was reduced by the parliament.

Soon after the Restoration a rebellion arose in the province, from mismanagement in the government, the decay of trade, and exorbitant grants, which included the settled property of many people; these grievances raised a general discontent among the planters, which was made to blaze out into an actual war, by a young gentleman named Bacon: he had a graceful presence and winning behaviour: he had been bred to the law, had a lively and fluent expression fit to set off a popular cause, and to influence men who were ready to hear all that could be said to colour, in a proper manner, whatever was already strongly drawn by their own feelings. By a specious, or perhaps a real, regard for the public good, finding the governor slow in his preparations against the Indians, who

were then ravaging the frontiers of the province, he took up arms without any commission to act against the enemy. When he had sufficient force for this purpose, he found himself in a condition not only to make head against the Indians, but to give law to the governor, and to force him to give a sanction by his authority to those proceedings, with which he intended to destroy it.

Bacon at length, armed with the commission of a general, marched against the Indians, followed by the whole force of the colony; when Sir William Berkley, the governor, being freed from the immediate terror of his forces, proclaimed him a traitor, and issued a reward for apprehending him. Upon this the people were universally inflamed, and adhered to Bacon, while the governor, who was unwilling to temporize, or yield to the storm, retired over the river Potowmac, proclaimed all Bacon's adherents traitors, put himself at the head of a small body of troops, which he raised in Maryland, and of such Virginians as were faithful to him, and wrote to England for supplies.

Meanwhile Bacon marching to the capital, called an assembly, and for six months together disposed of every thing according to his own pleasure. Things were now brought to a crisis, and hastening to a civil war; when suddenly the public tranquility was restored by Bacon's dying a natural death; for the people being unable to act without a head, proposed terms of accommodation, and peace was restored not so much by the removal of the grievances complained of, as by the arrival of a regiment from England, which remained a long time in the country: and it must be observed, in honour of the moderation of the government, that no person suffered in his life or estate for this rebellion, which was the more extraordinary, as many people were then very earnestly soliciting grants of land in this country.

S E C T. V.

Of NORTH and SOUTH CAROLINA.

Their Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, and Face of the Country. The many Species of Corn, Plants, and Trees.

THE provinces of North and South Carolina, lying between the thirty-first and thirty-sixth degrees of latitude, are upwards of four hundred miles in length, and in breadth to the Indian nations near three hundred. North Carolina is bounded on the east by the Atlantic ocean, on the south by South Carolina, on the west by the Apalachian mountains, and on the north by Virginia. The coasts are extremely broken by bays, creeks, and rivers, in the openings of which are many bars and shoals, which render the navigation difficult to strangers: there are, however, several safe and good harbours.

The climate and soil of both Carolinas are not very different from those in Virginia; but where they differ it is much to the advantage of Carolina, which, upon the whole, may be considered as one of the finest climates in the world. Indeed the heat in summer is very great, but it exceeds little that in Virginia, and has the advantage of having the winters milder and shorter. However, the weather, though in general serene, and the air healthy; yet, like all American weather, makes such quick changes as obliges the inhabitants to observe more caution in their dress and diet than we are obliged to use in Europe. Thunder and lightning is very frequent, and these, with the southern colonies, are the only ones we have on the continent that are subject to hurricanes; but they are here very rare, and not near so violent as those of the West Indies. Part of the month of March, all April and May, and the greatest part of June, are here inexpressibly temperate and agreeable; but in July, August, and for almost the whole of September, the heat is very intense; and though the winters are sharp, especially when the north-west wind prevails, yet the cold is seldom severe enough to freeze any considerable body of water. It is chiefly felt in the mornings and evenings; for the frost has never sufficient strength to resist the noon-day's sun; so that many tender plants, which do not stand the winter of Virginia, flourish in Carolina.

The whole country, where it is not cleared by our planters, is in a manner one forest. The trees are almost the same in every respect with those produced in Virginia; and by the different species of these the quality of the soil is easily known: thus the ground which bears the oak, the walnut, and the hickory, are extremely fertile; it is of a dark sand, intermixed with loam; and as all the land abounds with nitre, it is long before it is exhausted; for here they never use manure. What is called the pine-barren is the worst, it consisting of a white sand, yet naturally bears the pine-tree and other useful plants; those trees yield good profit in pitch, tar, and turpentine: when this land is cleared, it produces for two or three years together tolerable crops of Indian corn and peas; and when it lies low, and is flooded, answers well for rice; but what is of greatest advantage to this province is, that the worst species of its land is favourable to a species of one of the kinds of indigo, the most valuable of all its products. There is another sort of ground which lies low and wet on the banks of some of the rivers, and is in some places useless; but in others is far the richest of all their grounds, it consisting of a black fat earth that bears their great staple rice, which requires a rich moist soil.

The country near the sea, and at the mouths of the navigable rivers is much the worst; for most of the land there is a pale, light, sandy coloured ground; but the country on your advancing farther into it continually improves; and at a hundred miles distance from Charles Town, where it begins to grow hilly, the soil is extremely fertile, the air pure and wholesome, and the summer heats much more temperate than in the flat country; for Carolina is for eighty miles from the sea an even plain, in which is no hill, no rock, and scarce even a pebble to be found. Whence, from this sameness, it must want the fine effect which its beautiful products would have by a more variegated and advantageous disposition; but nothing can be imagined more delightful than the back country, and its fruitfulness is almost incredible. Wheat grows extremely well there, and yields a prodigious increase. In the other parts of Carolina they raise but little wheat, it being apt to mildew, and spend itself in straw; evils which the planters take very little care to redress, as they turn their whole attention to the culture of rice, which is more profitable, and in which they are unrivalled, they being supplied with what wheat they want, in exchange for this grain from Pennsylvania and New York.

The land in Carolina is every where easily cleared, as there are little or no under-wood. The forests mostly consist of large trees at a considerable distance from each other; so that they can clear in Carolina more land in a week, than they can do in the forests of Europe in a month. Their method is to cut them about a foot from the ground, and then saw them into boards, or convert them into heading, staves, or other species of lumber, according to the nature of the wood, or the demands of the market. The roots soon decay, and before that happens, they find no inconvenience from them, where they have such plenty of land.

In the two provinces of which Carolina is composed is ten navigable rivers, that have a very long course, and a great number of smaller ones that fall into them, all abounding in fish: but in most of the great rivers there are falls fifty or sixty miles from the sea, and as you approach their sources these become more frequent.

We shall now, after dwelling so long on the soil, begin with the produce of this province, and first with the corn.

The wheat, particularly of North Carolina, is very good, and the flour extremely white; rye thrives very well, but they sow very little of it; barley grows much better than might be expected from the manner in which it is managed here; oats also do very well, but the vast plenty of other grain prevents its being propagated in many places.

Here are several sorts of rice, some bearded and others not, besides the white and the red; but the white is the best. The rice of Carolina is esteemed as good as any brought to Europe, and increases so prodigiously, that one

one measure sown yields from eight hundred to a thousand. It grows best in the wet and wild land, that has never been cultivated or broken up before. This anciently formed the staple of this province; but while the rigour of the act of navigation obliged the planters to send all their rice directly to England, to be re-shipped for the markets of Spain and Portugal; the charges incident to this regulation lay so heavy upon the trade, that the cultivation of rice, especially in time of war, when these charges were greatly increased by the rise of the freight and insurance, hardly answered the charges of the planter; but now the legislature permits the inhabitants of Carolina to send their rice directly to any place to the southward of Cape Finisterre; this has revived the rice-trade, and this branch alone of their commerce is at the lowest estimation worth a hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling a year.

Indian corn, or maize, proves a most useful grain in these parts; it being in great plenty all over the province. Millet also does very well here, especially in light and loose ground: they sow it in April and May, and it prospers best in moist and rainy weather; but the plenty of other grain prevents there being much of it sown; it being only used in Carolina for fattening their poultry. Guinea wheat likewise thrives very well here, and serves for the same use as the former.

There are several sorts of pulse in this province, as the bushel-bean, so called from one bean producing a bushel; the miraculous-pea, which is so called from its long pods and prodigious increase; the bonavis, calivances, nanticoacs, and several other kinds, all of which are excellent food. There are likewise kidney-beans, and the large European bean; but this last degenerates: yet there are several sorts of European peas, which come to as great perfection as in most parts of Europe.

Here are likewise a great variety of garden-roots, pot-herbs, and sallads; with pompions, cashaws, squashes, and many others.

Among the medicinal plants are asarabacca, carduus benedictus, ipecacuhana, saraparilla, bastard china-root, and a great number of others: with the valuable indigo plant, and others used in dying.

The fields and woods are adorned like those of Virginia, with a vast variety of flowers, among which are many of those raised with great care in our gardens, and others peculiar to America.

The forest-trees are likewise very numerous; among these are many kinds of oak, the ash, fycamore, the elm, the beech, four sorts of pine, the service-tree, the maple, horn-beam, and the cypress. This last is not an evergreen in Carolina, the leaves turning red in winter, and not recovering their verdure till the spring. They are the tallest and thickest of any trees in this part of the world, some of them being above thirty-six feet in circumference: the nuts they bear yield an odoriferous balsam used as a cure in all new green wounds, gonorrhœas, and old gleans; and, being drank with Alicant, stop all kinds of fluxes. The planters and Indians commonly make their periaguas and canoes of this wood, and some of these periaguas are so large that they will carry thirty or forty barrels of pitch or tar in them, though formed of one entire piece of timber. Of these trees are likewise made curious pleasure boats.

Here are also in the forests the mulberry, the hickery, which is of the walnut kind, and is of three sorts, the white, the red, and the flying-barked hickery, so called from its brittle and scaly bark; the black walnut-tree, the chesnut-tree, the honey-tree, and the sugar-tree.

The palmeto-tree, when at its full growth, is forty or fifty feet in height, and about two feet in diameter. The leaves grow only in great clusters on the top, and are exactly in the form of a fan.

The sweet gum-tree receives its name from a fragrant gum it yields in spring, by making an incision in the bark and wood. This gum is used internally as a sovereign remedy for several internal disorders, and outwardly for cutaneous complaints.

The black gum-tree bears a well-tasted black berry, and the white gum-tree has flowers in bunches, and its wood beautifully veined, whence several kinds of curious furniture are made of it.

The cedar-tree is here of two sorts, the red and white. The red cedar is encompassed with a vast number of branches, which gradually shortening as they approach the top of the tree, form an exact pyramid. The leaves are small and round, like those of the pine, but shorter and not so sharp-pointed; it bears berries all the year, which are sweet and pleasant to the taste. Of this wood tables and other furniture are made, rooms are wainscotted with it, and of it are made coffins for the dead. It is admired for its fragrant smell, and its durability, for no worms will touch it.

The tulip-tree grows here to so large a size, that the trunk is sometimes above twenty feet in circumference. Some of these trees bear white tulips, and others those that are party-coloured. The wood makes handsome tables, &c.

The bay-tree, and the bay-tulip-tree, are beautiful ever-greens.

The sassafras is very common, and the trunk is sometimes two feet in diameter. The wood, which is light and durable, is, notwithstanding its medicinal virtues, made into bowls, posts, and other things made to stand in the ground.

The sumach-tree grows about nine or ten feet high, with soft and hairy leaves, indented on the edges, and a red ridge running through the midst of them. The flowers which come forth in July are of a greenish yellow, and grow with the leaves in long red stalks in clusters, after which follow small reddish seeds in bunches like grapes. This tree is of great use in Europe in dressing skins, and especially Spanish leather.

Many of the fruits of Great Britain grow wild in the woods, and of these are all the kinds we have mentioned in treating of Virginia; with a number of other American fruits, of which we shall only mention the following:

The papau-tree is only about eight or ten inches in diameter, but has the broadest leaves of any of the trees in the woods of Carolina. It bears a fruit about the bigness of a hen's egg, which resembles an apple, but contains a large stone within it. When it is ripe it is of a beautiful yellow, and as soft and sweet as any fruit can be; of it the planters make puddings, tarts, and many other dishes.

The Indian-fig, commonly called the prickly-pear, is an admirable plant, which grows in great plenty, and seems to be nothing but a multitude of leaves, or a tree made of leaves, without trunk or boughs; for a leaf set in the ground takes root and produces other leaves, growing one above another till they are pretty tall like a tree, the leaves spreading out like boughs. These leaves are long, broad, thicker than a man's hand, of a deep green, and set full of long, sharp, and slender prickles. From the tops of the leaves rise long yellow flowers, resembling those of the pomegranate-tree, after which is produced a fruit which resembles the common fig; but within is full of red pulp of a blood colour, very sweet and luscious; but occasions such a tincture in the urine of those who eat it, that it seems like pure blood, and yet is perfectly innocent. The tops of these figs are encircled with scaly leaves like a crown, in which are contained small grains that are the seeds, which being sown bring forth plants with round bodies like the trunk of other trees, with the leaves growing on them like the former; but if these leaves are plucked off and planted in the ground, they bring forth trees of only leaves. Upon this plant grow certain excrescences, from which are said to proceed the cochineal insect, so much valued for dying the richest scarlet.

S E C T. VI.

Of the Cattle of Carolina, and the Manner in which they are managed by the Planters. Of the wild Beasts, and Insects. A Description of several remarkable Birds; and of the Fishes on the Coast and in the Rivers.

HORNED cattle, horses, and swine multiply surprizingly, there being as great numbers here of each species, as in any province possessed by the English in America. The veal is very good and white; but they gene-

generally preserve their calves to a larger growth, and therefore kill few for the market. The planters make folds adjacent to their habitations, in which they milk their cows every morning and evening; after which they turn them into the woods, where they feed all day. When they return at night, they carefully shut up their calves with a few of the cows in those folds, to protect them from the wolves, and other voracious wild beasts. The calves generally suck the dams all the time they are milking, otherwise the cows would not suffer any one to touch them. Their method of killing the black cattle is generally to shoot them in the fields or in the folds; they then cut off the head and feet, and take out the entrails, which they throw away as useless, except the fat. If the cattle be suffered to live to a proper age, the beef proves as large and as fat as any in the neighbouring colonies. They kill a great number of horned cattle in October and the other cool months, especially when they intend them for salting and exportation; for they are then in their prime of flesh. The exportation of salt beef is one of the great branches of trade of North Carolina.

It is surprising that they have such stocks of cattle, while there are such numbers of wolves, tygers, and panthers; but these are far from being so ravenous as those beasts in Africa; and it must be observed, that they very seldom dare to attempt to kill either calves or foals, for fear of their dams, who vigorously defend them. When a cow sees a wolf or any other ravenous beast near, she gives a signal by bellowing, upon which all the black cattle within her hearing come to her assistance. There are great numbers of horned cattle and horses that breed in the woods, and you may see great droves feeding promiscuously in the savannas among the deer, fifty or sixty miles distant from any habitation.

The horses are well-shaped, swift, and generally about thirteen or fourteen hands high; they will travel incredible journies, though they are never shod, on account of the softness of the ground, which is covered over with grass without any gravel or stones, yet the planters generally use them very ill; and seldom allow them corn after long journies. They frequently tie them to a tree for hours together, and sometimes for a day or two without thinking of giving them any subsistence, on which account they sometimes break loose, and run into the woods, where they remain for weeks together with the saddles on their backs. The horses which they keep in the inclosures, and sometimes feed with Indian corn, are very serviceable in journies and hunting.

When the planters hunt the wild horses in the woods, they go two or three together on horseback, and as soon as they espy a wild horse, pursue him; and indeed their horses are so well trained, that they will neither hurt themselves nor their riders against a tree, and will go full speed for hours together till the wild horse stands still, when one of the hunters alights, claps the bit into his mouth, and a saddle on his back, and rides him to his own, or the next plantation, where he is fed with Indian corn and salt, which in a little time renders him as tame as any in the plantation, and fit to pursue his wild species in the woods at the next hunting-match, or for any other use.

The sheep have generally two or three lambs at a time, and are never suffered, like the other cattle, to ramble in the woods; but are kept in inclosures in the plantations, from whence they come every evening to the planters houses, and at night are put into their folds to defend them from wild beasts. The mutton is generally exceeding fat, and as well-relished as any in Europe. Their wool is fine, and esteemed a good commodity.

There are but few goats in Carolina, they being so mischievous to gardens, orchards and other trees, that the planters are not fond of keeping many of them, though they are as fat, and their flesh as well relished as any in Europe.

The swine are exceeding numerous, and the pork is said to excel in goodness any in Europe. The plenty of acorns, nuts, strawberries, and other fruit with which the woods naturally abound, gives a most agreeable taste to their flesh. The planters export vast quantities of

pork to the West-Indies, and several other places where provisions are scarce.

Among the wild beasts are buffaloes, elks, stags, fallow-deer, bears, and jackalls, panthers, and tygers.

The American tyger is said to be the fiercest animal of this country; his skin is of a fallow colour, most beautifully mottled with several kinds of spots, and larger than a greyhound. These animals are large, strong, and swift; they are never to be met with in the settlements; but more to the westward. The American tyger has a great resemblance to a cat; the tail is very long, and ends in a point: its eyes are bright; and when hungry it will fear neither man nor beast.

The other animals are the mountain-cat, the wild cat, the pole-cat, the minx, the wolf, the racoon, the opossum, beavers, otters, rabbits, squirrels of several kinds, musk-rats, &c. several kinds of mice, alligators, tortoises, or turtle, several sorts of lizards, the rattlesnake, horn-snake, water-snake, and many others of the serpent kind.

Among the insects are plenty of bees, not only in hives but in hollow trees in the woods, wherein are frequently found vast quantities of honey and wax.

The fire-fly lives in the open air, and is so called from its appearing at night, like a shining spark of fire. These are as long as the drones among the bees, but much thicker, and of a brownish colour. Their light is under their wings, and at first sight appears frightful to strangers, though they have no manner of harm in them. Dr. Brickell says, that he has frequently taken them, and breaking off their wings, placed them on a book in a dark room, and whatever way they went, he could plainly see the letters. They appear in May, and remain most part of the summer, when they are sometimes so numerous that the woods seem covered with sparks of fire. They are never seen in the day, but fly all night.

The spider is here a poisonous insect, which hurts by stinging. Of these there are many species; but the most remarkable is the mountain-spider, which is seldom found any-where but in the woods near the mountains. Several sorts of these spiders make their webs so strong, that they often entangle small birds; those persons who have the misfortune to be stung by them are afflicted with different disorders, according to the nature of spiders, that have communicated their poison. Some have violent pains at the heart; others shortness of breath; others trembling, cold sweats, and vomiting; others laughing, singing, with a number of other symptoms that frequently end in death.

The birds of Carolina, are the bald, the black, and the grey eagle; the fishing-hawk, the sparrow-hawk, the ring-tailed hawk, the goshawk, and the herring-tailed hawk, so called from its beautiful forked tail; this last is also named the snake-hawk, from its feeding on snakes, it managing with great dexterity, the largest in these parts. It is of the size of a falcon, and is a much longer bird, of a fine aurora colour, with the pinions of the wings and end of the tail of a jet black. They never appear here but in summer, and are very familiar. They will fly for hours together near the place where the snakes are, till they have an opportunity of killing some of them. They seize it in their talons near the head, and fly and drag it some distance before they tear it in pieces, and then devour it. On account of their destroying these pernicious reptiles, the planters will not suffer them to be killed.

The parakeeto, or parakeet of this province, is a species of the parrot, generally about the size of a small pigeon; it is for the most part of a fine green, only the head and part of the wings are of a beautiful orange colour, and they have thick beaks exactly resembling those of a hawk. They build their nests in hollow trees, in low swampy ground; but never appear abroad in winter. They are very mischievous to orchards, and peck the apples, to eat the kernels; they are very fat in mulberry and other fruit-time, and are excellent food, far preferable to any pigeon. They are often taken alive with traps, and bird-lime, and in two or three days become tame and familiar; but are not so apt to learn to speak as a parrot.

There

There are here falcons, various sorts of owls, the cuckow, the rail, jackdaw, wood-pecker, and magpye, rooks, crows, swallows, bats much larger than those in Europe, martins, nightingales, wrens, larks, gold-finches, wood-peckers, and almost all the small birds common in England.

There are great plenty of wild turkeys, some of which weigh about forty pounds. There are two sorts of swans, the largest of which are called trumpeters, from the noise they make. They come in winter, and remain till February, in such flocks that each side of the fresh water rivers and creeks seem at a distance like land covered with snow. About Christmas they are frequently so fat as to be scarce able to fly; they are larger than those in Europe, and very good meat. In spring they go to the northern lakes to breed. The second sort are called hoopers, from the noise they make. There are likewise three sorts of wild ducks.

Here are pheasants, woodcocks, snipes, curlew, the green plover, the grey, or whistling plover, partridges, turtle-doves, wild pigeons, the will-whillet, which is so called from its cry, and resembles the curlew; the cat-bird, thus named from making a noise like a young cat. The mocking bird, which receive their name from imitating the notes of other birds, is one of the finest singing birds in the world. There are two sorts of them, one has feathers much of the colour of our green plover, with white in the wings, like those of a magpye. This has a more melodious and soft note than the other, and is generally of the size of our thrush. They are fond of the dwellings of men, and frequently resort thither; but though they are bold and brisk, yet they are of a tender constitution; for they neither sing in winter, nor in the midst of summer, and it is with great difficulty that any of them that are brought over, will live in England. They may be bred up tame, and will sing in cages, yet the planters seldom take them, except it be to sell to those trading to Europe. They commonly make their nests, and breed in orchards, and other places near the dwelling-houses, feeding on mulberries, and several other berries and fruit. The other sort is called the ground-mocking bird, and is of a light cinnamon colour; it sings exceeding well; but does not resort to the houses, it delighting to live among the myrtle trees, where it breeds its young.

There are two sorts of red-birds; the cocks of both are of a pure scarlet, and the hens of a dusky red; but one sort has a fine tuft of scarlet feathers on the head, and the other has none. They have strong and thick bills, and are near as large as our black-birds; they whistle and sing like a thrush, but more melodiously. They feed on Indian corn, and several sorts of berries and seeds produced in the country, and, when taken, may be easily rendered tame; but it is said that when they are shut up in cages for some years, they become milk-white, and so stupid that they scarce know how to feed themselves, which is never known to happen while they are in the woods.

Here are also the fieldfare, the throistle, the whipoorwill, so called from its frequently repeating those words; the yellow-wing, whose wings resemble gold; the crane, the stork, the king's-fisher, the pelican, the cormorant, and many others.

Among the fish are several species of the whale, the porpoise, the sword-fish, the shark, the pilot-fish, the devil-fish, so called from a large pair of horns, and being of a monstrous size and strength, the boneto, the drum-fish, of which there are two species, rock-fish, mullets, plaice, soals, shad, skate, thornbacks, eels of several sorts, smelts, herrings, sturgeon, trout, gudgeons, perch, carp, dace, &c. with many sorts of shell-fish.

S E C T. VII.

Of the Persons, Manners, and Customs of the Inhabitants of Carolina; their Diseases, Way of Life, Houses, Diversions, and Trade; their Method of preparing Indigo, Turpentine, Rosin, Pitch, and Tar; with the Goods they import from England.

THE descendants of the Europeans in Carolina are a straight, tall, well-limbed, and active people, whose children are seldom troubled with rickets, or with the many other distempers with which the Europeans are

afflicted. The men who frequent the woods, and labour out of doors, have a brown complexion; but as for the women, who do not expose themselves to the weather, they are frequently very fair, and well-featured; they have bright sparkling eyes, and are as finely shaped as any women in the world. Red-haired people of either sex are seldom born in the country.

The women generally marry very young, some at thirteen or fourteen, and those that continue unmarried till they are twenty, are reckoned old maids, which is here a very indifferent character. The women are very fruitful, most of the houses having a number of small children; and many women from other places, who have been long married without having the blessing of children, have soon after their removal to Carolina become joyful mothers. They seldom miscarry, and have very easy labours.

The children at nine months old are generally able to walk and run about the house, and are as apt to learn as any children in Europe. The girls are, for the most part, handsome and well-featured; they are usually more forward than the boys; and are not only bred to the needle and spinning, but to the dairy and domestic affairs, which many of them, though very young, manage with a great deal of prudence. Both sexes are very dexterous in the management of the canoe, to which they are bred from their infancy.

The planters, from the richness of the soil, live in the most easy and pleasant manner, and you shall seldom hear them repine at any misfortune, except the loss of their friends, there being here plenty of all the necessaries of life. Poverty is here an entire stranger; the planters, who live well, are the most hospitable people that are to be met with, to all strangers, to those who by any misfortune have lost the use of their limbs, or become unable to work, and to such as have no visible way to support themselves. To such objects the country allows fifty pounds a year for their support; so that there are no beggars or vagabonds in the country.

The men are very ingenious in building their canoes and houses; but, for the most part, live in an indolent and luxurious manner, which occasions many diseases among them.

The principal diseases are agues, the cachexy, the cramp, white and bloody-flux, the venereal disease, the yaws, which is of the venereal kind, said to be brought here by the negroes from Guinea, and communicated to several of the Europeans, by cohabiting with the blacks, by which means it is hereditary in many families. The colic, or dry belly-ach, which is often attended with such violent convulsions that the limbs, especially the hands, are so contracted, that they have continued in this condition all their lives. The prickly heat, which sometimes comes in the extremity of the hot weather that suddenly follows the cold, and is attended with extreme itchings all over the body, especially the legs, which if scratched immediately become inflamed, and turn to sores and ulcers.

The established religion is that of the church of England; besides which there are Presbyterians, Baptists, and Roman-catholics, liberty of conscience being fully allowed. Hence the planters live in the greatest harmony imaginable; no disputes now ever arise about their religious principles, they treat each other with friendship and hospitality: yet, with respect to morals, they have in other respects their share of the corruptions of the age; for as they live in the greatest ease and plenty, luxury of consequence predominates, which is seldom without its attendant vices.

Their houses are built after two different manners: the most substantial planters generally use brick and lime made of oyster-shells, there being no stone fit for that purpose at a distance from the mountains. The meaner sort erect theirs with timber, and the outside with clapboards. The roofs of both sorts of houses are covered with shingles. They have generally sash-windows, and large decent rooms, with good closets, and are fond of having a beautiful prospect by some noble creek or river. Their furniture, as with us, consists of tables, chairs, pewter, brass, &c. imported from England; and those in affluent circumstances have tolerable quantities of plate, with other ornaments and valuable furniture.

The cloathing used by the men consists of English cloth, druggets, durois, green linen, &c. The women have silks, calicoes, printed linen, calamancoes, and all kinds of stuffs, some of which are manufactured in the province.

Their diet, as with us, consists of beef, mutton, pork, venison in abundance, wild and tame fowl, fish of several delicate sorts, fruit, several kinds of fallads, good bread, butter, milk, cheese, rice, and roots. Their liquors are principally rum, brandy, malt liquor, which they import, cyder, persimon-beer, made of the fruit of that tree, and cedar-beer, made of cedar-berries; they also make beer of the green stalks of Indian corn; but the common table-beer is made of molasses. They also drink chocolate, tea, and coffee.

The principal diversions are fishing, fowling, and hunting wild beasts, as deer, bears, racoons, hares, wild turkeys, with several other animals. They are very fond of horse-racing, which is performed in a very odd manner; for near each town, and in many parts of the country, they have what is called race-paths, which seldom exceed a quarter of a mile in length, and only two horses start at a time. They are also very fond of gaming, especially cards and dice, at which they play very high. They greatly admire cock-fighting, and procure cocks from England and Ireland. They are also very fond of dancing, at which they will spend many hours together.

They have an annual feast at the wheat-harvest, which is celebrated in the beginning of June, when the planters let each other know that they design to reap that grain on a certain day; some send their negroes to assist, and others go only to partake of the feast; and it is not unusual for people to come twenty or thirty miles on this occasion. The entertainments are grand, and the whole scene pleasant and diverting. This annual revelling is very expensive to the planters; but as it is customary few omit it, nor have they ever these public diversions at reaping any other grain but the European wheat.

The produce of this country for exportation to Europe and the islands are rice, indigo, pitch, tar, turpentine, rosin, tobacco, peas, beef, pork, tallow, hides, deer-skins, furs, cotton, horses, wheat, Indian corn, potatoes, honey, bees-wax, myrtle wax, several sorts of gums, snake-root, masts for ships, planks, and boards of most sorts of timber.

We shall now give an account of the principal manufactures carried on in Carolina, and shall begin with indigo, a dye made from a plant of the same name, which was probably so called from India, where it was first cultivated, and from whence we had for a considerable time the whole of what was consumed in Europe. This plant when grown resembles the fern, and when young is hardly distinguishable from lucern-grass. Indigo is generally planted after the first rains succeeding the vernal equinox: the seed is put into the ground in small straight trenches, about eighteen or twenty inches asunder, and is fit for cutting the beginning of July. It is cut again towards the end of August, and if they have a mild autumn there is a third cutting at Michaelmas. The indigo land must be weeded every day, and the plants cleansed from worms. Each acre yields sixty or seventy pounds weight of indigo, which at a medium is worth fifty pounds.

The indigo when cut is first laid in a vat about twelve or fourteen feet long, and four deep, to the height of about fourteen inches, to macerate and digest. Then this vessel, which is called the steeper, is filled with water: the whole having lain about twelve or sixteen hours, according to the weather, begins to ferment, swell, rise, and grow insensibly warm; at this time spars of wood are run across to prevent its rising too much, and a pin is then set to mark the highest point of its ascent; when it falls below this mark they judge that the fermentation has attained its due pitch, and begins to abate; upon which the manager opens a cock, and lets off the water into another vat, which is called the beater; and the gross matter that remains in the first vat is carried off to manure the ground.

When the water strongly impregnated with the particles of the indigo has run into the second vat, they agitate it till it heats, froths, ferments, and rises above the

rim of the vessel in which it is contained: to allay this violent fermentation oil is thrown in as the froth rises, which instantly sinks it. When this beating has continued twenty, thirty, or thirty-five minutes, a small muddy grain begins to be formed; for the salts and other particles of the plant before dissolved in the water are now re-united, and begin to granulate. When this is completed they let in some lime water from an adjacent vessel, gently stirring the whole. The indigo now granulates more fully, the liquor assumes a purplish colour, and the whole is troubled and muddy; it is now suffered to settle; then the clearer part is permitted to run off into a succession of vessels, from whence the water is conveyed away as fast as it clears at the top, till nothing remains but a thick mud, which is put into bags of coarse linen. These are hung up and left for some time, till the moisture is drained off, and to finish the drying this mud is turned out of the bags, and worked upon boards of a porous timber with a wooden spatula. It is also frequently exposed to the morning and evening sun, but for a short time only, and then put into boxes or frames, where it is again exposed to the sun in the same cautious manner, till with great labour and attention the operation is finished, and that valuable drug called indigo fitted for the market. The greatest skill and care is required in every part of the process, without which there is great danger of spoiling the whole.

In all parts of Carolina, but especially North Carolina, the people make great quantities of turpentine, rosin, tar, and pitch, which are all produced from the pine. Turpentine is drawn by merely cutting incisions in the tree, forming several channels which meet at the bottom in a point, where a receiver is placed. These channels are cut as high as a person can reach with an ax, and the bark is peeled off from those parts of the trunk that are exposed to the sun, that its heat may the more easily force out the turpentine, which flows into the receiver. This turpentine being boiled in kettles becomes rosin.

Tar is made by preparing a circular floor of clay, declining towards the center, from which is laid sloping a wooden pipe, which reaches about ten feet without the circumference. Under the end the earth is dug away, and barrels placed to receive the tar as it runs. Upon the floor is built a pile of dry pine wood split in pieces, and surrounded with a wall of earth, or clay, which covers it all over, except a little at the top, where the fire is at first kindled. When the fire begins to burn they cover this opening likewise, to prevent there being any flame, and to leave only sufficient heat to force the tar downwards into the pipe in the center of the floor. The heat they temper as they please by thrusting a stick through the earth and letting in the air, in as many places as they think proper. Pitch is made by boiling tar in large iron kettles set in furnaces, or by burning it in round clay holes made in the earth.

The commodities they receive from Europe, in exchange for all the above articles, are linens of all sorts, particularly blues, brown and stamped linens, Osnaburghs, men and women's apparel ready made, broad cloth, blue and red stuffs, calamancoes, druggets, kerseys, camblots, all light stuffs for men and women's summer wear, haberdashers goods, stockings of all sorts, a few gloves, thin wigs, linen caps, tobacco-pipes, glass for sash-windows, looking-glasses; all sorts of hard-ware, as knives, forks, scissars, saws, hatchets, chissels, bills, hoes, shovels, wedges, nails; and all manner of tools for carpenters, shoe-makers, and coopers; locks of many different kinds, traps of all sorts, grindstones; all manner of whetstones, guns, powder, ball, shot, flints, paper, ink, saddles, bridles, fish-hooks of all sorts, fans, necklaces, beads, ribbons, thimbles, shoe-buckles, buttons, &c.

S E C T. VIII.

Of the Divisions of Carolina, and its Towns; the public Roads; Regulations relating to Debtors, the transported Felons, and Slaves.

THIS province, as we have already observed, is divided into North and South Carolina; the former extends about three hundred miles along the sea-coast, and

and is separated from South Carolina by an imaginary line drawn in the thirty-fourth degree from the Atlantic ocean to the Apalachian mountains. It is subdivided into fourteen townships. The principal rivers are Ronoac, or Albemarle river, the river Neuse, and Clarendon river, upon which are seated the principal towns in the province, namely, Wilmington, on Clarendon river, which is the largest town in the province, and has much the greatest trade; Neuborn on the Neuse, and Edenton on the river Albemarle; at which three places the general assembly of North Carolina sit alternately for making laws; but the planters being dispersed over the country, none of these towns are worth mentioning. The number of inhabitants are computed to be about seventy thousand whites, and twenty thousand negroes.

The bounds of South Carolina are much reduced from their original extent, Georgia being taken off to the southward, as far as the river Savanna, which runs in a curve round the south and west part of the province, out of North Carolina. The extent of the province upon the Atlantic ocean to the east is upwards of a hundred miles, and west from the sea upwards of two hundred. There is no doubt but that the silk-worm might be employed here to great advantage, here being his natural food in great plenty: indeed some attempts that way have been made with good success.

The only town in either of the Carolinas worthy of notice is Charles Town, one of the finest in North America for size, beauty, and trade. This is the metropolis of South Carolina: it is seated between two navigable rivers, Ashley on the west and south, and Cowper river on the east, in the thirty-second degree thirty minutes north latitude. The streets are wide and straight, intersecting each other at right angles; those running east and west extend about a mile from one river to the other. Its harbour is good in every respect but that of a bar, which hinders vessels of more than two hundred tons burthen from entering. The town is regularly and pretty strongly fortified by art and nature. Here are two very handsome churches built with brick, besides several other edifices for public worship belonging to different sects of dissenters. Near the center of the town is a neat market-house, and at a small distance is the state-house, a handsome and commodious brick building. In the neighbourhood of the town are convenient barracks sufficient for a thousand men. Charles Town contains about a thousand dwelling-houses, four thousand male inhabitants, and six thousand negro slaves: it is the seat of the governor, and the place of meeting of the assembly. Several handsome equipages are kept here; for the planters and merchants are rich and well bred, the people expensive in their dress and way of living, and every thing conspires to render this the liveliest and politest place in North America. However, great part of the town was burnt down on the twenty-first of February, 1741, by which much valuable merchandize was entirely destroyed. It has also frequently suffered by inundations and unhealthy seasons.

The town of Beaufort is seated on the island of Port Royal, on the borders of Georgia, in the thirty-first degree forty minutes north latitude, and a hundred miles south of Charles Town; the island and continent forming a fine capacious harbour of such depth, that it is capable of containing the whole royal navy of England. The island on which the town is seated consists of near a thousand acres, and is navigable all round for boats and periaguas, and one-half of it for shipping, where large vessels may load and unload from the shore. The town, however, is not yet considerable, but bids fair in time for becoming the first trading town in this part of America.

The number of inhabitants in the whole province of South Carolina amounts to about sixty thousand whites, and above double that number of blacks.

The roads are as good as in most parts of the world, and travelling as pleasant, being made broad and convenient for all sorts of carriages, as coaches, chaises, waggons, and carts, especially for horsemen, the lands generally lying level, and the beautiful and delightful prospects affording a high entertainment to the traveller. It is a general rule throughout all North America, that wherever you come to any of these roads, with the trees

marked or notched on each side, it is a sure sign that it is a public road from one Christian town to another.

We shall now give some account of several regulations relating to Carolina in general, and more particularly to North Carolina.

In this country few or no debtors are confined in prison above twenty-four hours; for the sheriff generally takes them home to his house, or takes their word for their appearance at the next court, to be held in any of the precincts or baronies, where they sentence him to become a servant to the creditor for as long a time as they imagine the debt deserves; but if the person has been a planter, and has contracted debts which his misfortunes have rendered him unable to pay, or is in years, they frequently make a collection among themselves, by which means they discharge the debt, or satisfy the creditor; and by these means none are barbarously kept in confinement, and rendered a useless burthen to the public.

To prevent people's spending their time idly in a public-house, it is enacted by the laws of the country, that no person shall be liable to pay above forty shillings for liquor drank in any public-house.

No vagabond or inferior person is suffered to travel through the country without a pass from the governor, or some of the justices of the peace; a regulation that is in some measure necessary, to prevent the transports from Europe running away from their masters.

The convicts transported to these parts from Europe are indentured for a limited time, during which they serve as servants, and are more or less regarded according to their behaviour and the reason of their being transported. As soon as they have fulfilled the obligation of their indenture, their masters are obliged to give each man-servant a new suit of cloaths, a gun, powder, shot, ball, and ten bushels of Indian corn; and by the laws of the country they are intitled to fifty acres of land, which they seldom take up, but dispose of for trifles. Those who have acted with prudence, care, and good conduct while they were servants, if their masters have no employment for them, recommend them to others. Their business is then to mark all the calves, foals, and young pigs with the planter's brand; and this being his chief business, he is allowed for his service every seventh calf, every seventh foal, and half of the young pigs bred during his stewardship; and likewise the seventh part of all sorts of grain and tobacco produced on the master's plantation; and whatever quantity of corn, rice, or tobacco he plants by his own industry at his leisure hours, is all his own property. Thus, in three or four years time, with good management, he may have a sufficient stock of cattle, grain, money, and all other necessaries to enable him to turn planter. But this is the case of very few of those transported hither for their crimes, they being mostly a dissolute, debauched, and indolent people; and if they run away from their masters, they are obliged to serve double the time they are absent after the expiration of their indentures.

Few masters of ships will venture to carry any on board their vessels without obtaining a sufficient security that they are freemen and not in debt, and therefore oblige them to publish an advertisement, some time before their departure, requiring all persons to whom they are indebted to come and receive what is due to them, which is fixed on the court-house door, for all persons to peruse; but if the master of a ship takes away a person bound, or in debt, without first taking these precautions, his person and ship are liable to be seized, and he is obliged to pay whatever the creditors can make appear to be due to them, or any other losses they have sustained, by his taking them away. Notwithstanding the severity of these laws, some of the transports run away; but if they are taken they have neck-yokes put on them, like those worn by the negroes, which they constantly wear till they have given sufficient testimonies of their good behaviour.

There are a great number of negro slaves born in the country, who prove more industrious and tractable than those brought from the coast of Africa; at least being born in slavery, they have never imbibed that love of liberty which is apt to make men restive and stubborn under the galling yoke of oppression. "I have frequently seen them whipped, says our author, to that degree,

"that

“ that large pieces of their skin have been hanging down their backs ; yet I never observed one of them shed a tear, which plainly shews them to be a people of very harsh and stubborn dispositions :” but might he not rather say, that it shews them to be possessed of invincible courage and magnanimity ? The laws against these unhappy beings of our own species are extremely rigorous ; so that if a negro cut or give the slightest wound to his master, or any other Christian, with an unlawful weapon, as a sword, scymetar, or even a knife, and there is blood shed, if it be known among the planters, they immediately meet and order him to be hanged, which is always performed by another negro ; and generally the planters bring most of their blacks with them to behold their fellow-negro die ; and it is not even in the power of the master to save him. Indeed he suffers nothing by the loss of his slave, for the province is obliged to pay him the full value of what the unhappy wretch is judged to be worth.

There are some Christians so charitable as to have the negroes born in the country baptized, and instructed in the Christian faith in their infancy ; but this does not in the least exempt them from servitude, and they are afterwards as far from being at their own liberty, as they would have been had they never been entitled to the name of Christians ; nor does it appear that they afterwards take much care about their being an ornament to that profession.

Their marriages are generally performed with little ceremony ; for the man makes the woman a present of a brass ring, or some other toy, which if she accepts of, she becomes his wife ; but upon any disgust, she returns his present, and then the marriage is dissolved. If after cohabiting with each other for a year or two, a woman has no children by the first husband, the planters oblige them to take a second, third, fourth, or fifth ; a fruitful woman being much valued by the planters. All the children go with the mother, and are the property of the planter to whom she belongs.

Their children are carefully brought up, and provided for by the planters till they are able to work in the plantations, where they have convenient houses built for them, and they are allowed to plant a sufficient quantity of tobacco for their own use, a part of which they sell ; and on Sundays they usually gather the snake-root ; with this and the tobacco they buy hats and necessaries, as linen, bracelets, ribbons, and other toys for their wives and mistresses.

The children of both sexes wear little or no cloaths, except in the winter, and many of the young men and women work naked in the plantations in hot weather, except having a piece of cloth about their waist, and therefore the planters are at no great expence for their cloathing.

Several blacks born in the country can read and write ; others are bred to trades, and prove good artists ; and others are very industrious in improving the plantations, planting rice, corn, and tobacco, and making vast quantities of turpentine, tar, and pitch, they being better able to undergo fatigues, in the sultry heats of summer, than the Europeans. The planters at their death used to make some of their negroes free ; but it is now an established law in some of the provinces, that if they do not quit the country in about eleven days after they have thus obtained their freedom, they become the property of the first person who seizes them. Hence, before the expiration of that short term, they generally either leave the country, or voluntarily become subject to a new master. But it would certainly be more consistent with justice, with the laws of humanity, and with the spirit of the Christian religion, to suffer these negroes, who have from their good behaviour, and the benevolence of their masters, obtained their freedom, to become planters ; to become united to the Christians by the bands of friendship, and by mutual good offices ; and to be allowed all the advantages of freemen. The prospect of such a reward might have a happy effect on the slaves, by making obedience and fidelity the guides to liberty, wealth, and honour ; and the strongest defence of the whites, by having a number of the blacks firmly united in the same interest with them.

S E C T. IX.

A Concise History of Carolina, and of its Settlement, and Progress.

THE extensive territory of the two Carolinas and Georgia are a part of the discovery made by Cabot in 1497 ; but no advantage having been taken by the English in consequence of this discovery, the Spaniards in 1512 attempted a settlement ; but not succeeding, abandoned the country, which lay neglected by the Europeans. Chatillon, the celebrated leader of the Protestants in France, who was not only a great admiral, but an able statesman, procured two vessels to be fitted out for discoveries upon that coast ; probably intending to retire thither, with those of his persuasion, should his brave endeavours to preserve their liberties fail. These ships sailed in the year 1565, under the command of M. Ribaut, and in two months arrived on the coast of Florida, as all this country was then called, from its abounding in flowers.

Ribaut landed in several places to the north of Altamaha river, taking possession of the country in the name of his master, and calling it Carolina in honour of his sovereign Charles IX. He at last settled at the mouth of Albemarle river, and giving the Indians to understand in the best manner he was able, that he and those that were with him were all enemies to the Spaniards, this secured them a friendly reception, and the good offices of the inhabitants ; and he there erected a fort, to which he gave the name of Charles-fort. But soon after a civil war breaking out in France, he was obliged for the want of supplies, to abandon the settlement ; and had he not been so happy as to meet with an English ship from which he procured provision, both he and his people would probably have perished by famine.

The admiral, not discouraged, was so well satisfied with the account they gave him of the country, that in 1564 he fitted out five or six ships, in order to make another attempt to settle a colony. This was accordingly done at the place of their landing in the first expedition. The Spaniards, who had intelligence of their proceedings, dispatched a considerable force to attack the colony, who, not satisfied with reducing it, barbarously put all the people to the sword, after having given them quarter. Not content with this they committed great outrages upon the natives, by both which they paved the way for the vengeance that soon after fell upon them for these unnecessary and unprovoked acts of cruelty : for notwithstanding the admiral and his party were by this time destroyed in the dreadful massacre of St. Bartholomew, and though the design of a colony died with him, one M. de Gorgues, a private gentleman, fitted out some ships, and sailed to that coast merely to revenge the murder of his countrymen and friends. The Indians gladly embraced the opportunity of joining in the punishment of the common enemy. The French and they had laid siege to two or three forts the Spaniards had erected there, took them, and, without mercy, put the whole garrison in each to the sword. The adventurers, satisfied with this action, returned, and happily for us, the French court, blinded by their bigotry, did not understand the advantages that might have been obtained from giving America to the Protestants. Had they taken this step, we should probably have had either no settlements in America, or they must have been small in extent, and precarious in their tenure.

After the French expedition, Carolina remained unnoticed by the Spaniards, French, and English, till Sir Walter Raleigh projected an establishment there, which was afterwards fixed in Virginia, and it was not till the year 1663, that any settled resolution was taken for fixing a colony here. In that year the earl of Clarendon lord high chancellor of England, the duke of Albemarle, the lord Craven, the lord Berkeley, lord Ashley afterwards earl of Shaftesbury, Sir George Carteret, Sir William Berkeley, and Sir George Colleton, obtained a charter from king Charles II. for the property and jurisdiction of that country from the thirty-first degree of north latitude to the thirty-sixth, and being invested with full power to settle and govern

govern the country, they had the model of a constitution framed, and a body of fundamental laws compiled by the celebrated Mr. Locke.

On this plan the lords proprietors themselves stood in the place of the king, and gave their assent or dissent, as they thought proper, to all laws, appointed all officers, and bestowed all titles of dignity; and each lord in turn acted for the rest. In the province they appointed two other branches, which in a great measure resembled the legislature in England. They constituted three classes of nobility: the lowest composed of those to whom they had made grants of twelve thousand acres of land, whom they styled barons: the next order had twenty-four thousand acres, or two baronies, with the title of cassiques, who were to answer our earls: the third had two cassique-ships, or forty-eight thousand acres, and were called landgraves, a title analogous to a duke. This body formed the upper house. The lower house was formed as it is in the other colonies, of representatives from the several counties and towns, and the whole was called not an assembly, but a parliament.

Their first settlement was at a point of land toward the southward, between two navigable rivers, called Ashly and Cowper rivers, where they laid the foundation of a city called Charles Town, the present capital of the province. They expended about twelve thousand pounds in the first settlement; and the lords proprietors observing what advantages the other colonies derived from opening a harbour for refugees, and influenced by the humane disposition of that excellent man who formed the model of their government, gave an unlimited toleration to the people of all religious persuasions. This induced a great number of dissenters, whom the government, contrary to justice and all the laws of policy, treated with a very severe hand, to remove with their fortunes and families into Carolina; and hence they soon became, at least, as numerous as the church-men. But they could not preserve themselves from the jealousy and hatred of those of the church of England, who had brought a persecuting spirit with them from their native country, and having a majority in one of their assemblies, attempted to exclude all dissenters from a right of sitting there. This produced daily dissensions, tumults, and riots, which for many years hindered the colony from making that progress which might be expected from the fineness of the country. The people also fell into disputes with the lords proprietors, and provoking the Indians by a series of unjust and violent actions, gave occasion to two wars, in which, however, they were victorious, and subdued almost all the Indian nations within their own bounds on this side the Apalachian mountains.

These intestine distractions and wars kept the colony so low, that an act of parliament was made to prevent the ruinous consequences of these divisions by putting the province under the immediate care of the crown, and the lords proprietors accepted a recompence of about twenty-four thousand pounds, both for the property and jurisdiction; except earl Grenville, who kept his eighth part of the property, which comprehends near half of North Carolina, on that part which borders on Virginia. Their constitution, where it differed from that of the other colonies, was altered; and the country, for the more commodious administration of affairs, was divided into two distinct independent governments, called North and South Carolina. This happened in 1728. Soon after a firm peace was established with all the neighbouring Indian nations, the province began to breathe and obtain strength on the return of peace and tranquility, and its trade has annually advanced since that time with a rapid progress.

S E C T. X.

Of G E O R G I A.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Produce, principal Towns, and Number of the Inhabitants.

GEORGIA received its name from his late majesty George II. It lies to the southward of Carolina, from which it is separated on the north by the river Sa-

vanna; it has the Atlantic ocean on the east; the river of St. John, which divides it from East Florida, on the south; and on the west it is bounded by Louisiana lately ceded by the French.

What has been said of the heat, thunder, and lightning of Carolina, may be said with propriety of them here, Georgia lying still more to the southward. The planters sometimes suffer by thunder and lightning destroying their timber and houses, and its killing their slaves and cattle.

The land lying low near the coast is woody, but at the distance of twenty-five miles begins to rise into hills, which at length terminate in the Apalachian or Alegany mountains. From the foot of these mountains to the coast the country is level. The river Savanna is of such a length, that canoes may sail up it six hundred miles, and boats half that way. The coast of Georgia is defended from the fury of the Atlantic ocean by being lined all along with a range of islands, and both these and the continent being thick set with trees, render the intermediate channel very pleasant. About seventy miles from the shore of Georgia are sand-banks, and the water shoaling gradually till within six miles of land, the banks become so shallow as to be impassable, except in the channels between the bars, which were formerly thought a sufficient security from any attempts of an enemy's fleet, till the Spaniards passed these channels in 1742, and landed in the island of St. Simon, which would have inevitably fallen into their hands, had not their scheme been frustrated by general Oglethorpe.

After passing the bars, ships find a secure and commodious harbour in the mouth of the river Savanna, and south of it is a still more capacious road, named Teky-Sund, where a large fleet may ride in between ten and fourteen fathom water, being land-locked, and having safe entrance over the bar. The flood-tide on this coast mostly rises seven feet.

This province abounds in cattle, and with a multitude of wild beasts, birds, and poisonous reptiles, which are in general the same as in Carolina.

Rice is said to grow here rather better than in Carolina, which, with corn and indigo, may be esteemed its principal commodities. They have made some beginnings towards cultivating the vine; and great expectations have been long raised, of their producing large quantities of silk; this was one of the principal views of the trustees at the first settlement of this province; indeed both these branches may hereafter become considerable, the climate and soil being proper for them, as hath been sufficiently proved by a variety of experiments.

The principal towns in Georgia are Savanna, the capital, seated in the thirty-first degree fifty-eight minutes north latitude. The houses and ware-houses are built at a distance from each other, to prevent the spreading of fire, and form several spacious squares and wide streets. The town is extremely well situated for trade, as the navigation of the river Savanna on which it stands, and from which it takes its name, is very secure, and ships of three hundred tons burthen may lie within six yards of the town, where the worm does not eat into them. In the town is a church, a meeting-house, a wharf, and some other public buildings; and near it the orphan-house, founded by Mr. Whitfield, which is converted into a college for the education of young men for the ministry.

About four miles within land from the river are the villages of Highgate and Hampstead, which lie about a mile distant from each other. The inhabitants settled there apply themselves chiefly to gardening, and supply the town of Savanna with greens and roots.

Two hundred miles farther up the river, which is navigable so far for large boats, is Augusta; which stands upon a spot of ground of the greatest fertility, and is so commodiously seated for the Indian trade, that from the first establishment of the colony it has been in a very flourishing condition, and very early maintained six hundred whites in that trade only: for their trade with the Creeks, the Chickesaws, and the Cherokees is very considerable for skins: they also deal with them for a few furs; but these are of an inferior sort; it being observed, that, by a wise disposition of Providence, the animals

that bear fur have it more thick, and of a softer and finer kind, in proportion as you approach to the northward; for the greater the cold, the better they are clothed.

The inhabitants of this province, who are a mixture of Episcopalians and Dissenters, amount at present to about eight thousand whites, and twenty thousand negroes.

The governor is appointed by his majesty, and the form of government is the same as in the other royal governments, and particularly the two Carolinas, Virginia, New Jersey, and New York.

SECT. XI.

A History of the Settlement of the Province of Georgia.

THE province of Georgia was divided from South Carolina and a settlement begun there in 1732, in consequence of a representation made to his late majesty George II. by some generous and compassionate noblemen and gentlemen, who observing that a considerable number of people in these kingdoms were, by a variety of misfortunes, rendered incapable of subsisting in such a way as to be useful to themselves and the community, formed the design of settling that part of America which properly formed our frontier towards the Spaniards and French; and though within the bounds of the province of South Carolina, was in reality no part of it, as not being at all settled, and therefore rather a burthen than an advantage to the province to which it belonged. They therefore applied to the crown for sufficient power to set this undertaking on foot, and meeting with all the encouragement they could expect or desire, easily obtained a very extensive charter. Their next care was to raise a fund sufficient to send over a considerable number of people, and provide them with all kinds of necessaries, towards which they subscribed liberally themselves, obtained considerable sums by way of collection, and had a grant from the parliament of ten thousand pounds.

In forming the plan of this frontier settlement, it was resolved to consider each settler in the double capacity of a planter and a soldier, and not only to provide them tools for the cultivation of the land, but arms for their defence, and to have them taught the use of both. It was also resolved, that upon the first settling of their colony, towns should be laid out, and lands allotted all the men for their support, as near those towns as possible. It was agreed that every lot of land should consist of fifty acres, and that it should be granted them in tail male, as the properest tenure for the colony in its infancy; and, with respect to any hardships that might arise from this tenure, they determined to remedy them occasionally, till such time as the condition of the colony should render an alteration necessary. They also resolved to prohibit the use of negroes, which they considered as absolutely inconsistent with the design of forming a frontier colony, and in many respects both inconvenient and dangerous.

Having concluded on these dispositions, it was resolved to send over a hundred and fourteen persons, men, women, and children, out of such as were in low circumstances, and on that account unable to follow any business in England, and who if in debt had leave from their creditors to go; and of such as were recommended by the minister, church-wardens, and overseers of their respective parishes; and James Oglethorpe, Esq; one of the trustees, generously offered to go and form the settlement at his own expence. At length the people being examined whether any of them had any objections to the terms and conditions proposed, they declared they were fully satisfied with them, and executed articles under their hands and seals, testifying their consent. But four of them desiring their daughters might inherit as well as their sons, and that their widows dower might be considered, the trustees resolved, that all who should desire it should have the privilege of naming a successor to the lands granted them, who, in case the possessor should die without issue male, should hold the same to them and their heirs for ever; and that the widows should have their thirds as in England: this resolution was immediately

communicated to all the people, who now expressed themselves fully satisfied. The trustees then prepared a form of government, and established under their seal a court of judicature for trying causes, as well criminal as civil, in the town of Savanna, the name given to the first town to be raised: they also appointed a bailiff, a recorder, two constables, and two tythingmen out of such of the settlers as appeared most discreet and prudent.

Mr. Oglethorpe set out from Gravesend with the colony, and arrived at Carolina on the fifteenth of January, 1733. That gentleman chose a pleasant, convenient, and healthful spot ten miles up the Savanna river. While the town was building he kept a strict discipline, allowing none of the people to swear or get drunk; they were debarred the use of spirituous liquors, and instead of rum had English beer. In the mean time some of the land was ploughed up, and part of it sowed with wheat. Two or three gardens were also sowed with pot-herbs, &c. and fruit-trees planted. The limits of the town were palisadoed, and every thing went on with the utmost regularity.

Things being in some forwardness, and every man being appointed his proper station and employment, Mr. Oglethorpe went to Charles Town to solicit succours for his colony, where both the assembly and people in general contributed largely to the assistance of the newcomers. Five hundred pounds of this money he laid out in cattle, and having given directions for whatever his people might want at Charles Town, returned to Savanna.

On his arrival he found that the chiefs of the Lower Creek Indians were come to treat of an alliance with the new colony. He received them in one of the new houses, and in the most amicable and friendly manner concluded a treaty of alliance and trade with them.

This treaty being concluded, Mr. Oglethorpe returned to England, taking with him a number of the Indian chiefs and principal warriors, who were presented to his majesty, and afterwards took a tour through the kingdom. They here desired the trustees that the weights, measures, prices, and qualities of goods to be purchased by them with skins, might be settled: that no body might be allowed to trade with them without a licence from the trustees, that if they were injured they might know where to complain; and that there might be but one store-house in each Indian town for supplying them with the goods they might want to purchase; and that in each the traders should be obliged to furnish them at the fixed prices, alledging that the traders had often, in an arbitrary manner, raised the price of goods, and defrauded them in their weights and measures, which had frequently created animosities between the English and Indians. In compliance with this request the trustees procured several acts of parliament, among which was one for maintaining peace with these Indians, and another to prevent the importation and use of spirituous liquors in Georgia.

Things being thus settled, two embarkations were made the same year, chiefly of Saltzburghers, who, with others that went before, built and settled a town called Ebenezer, upon the river Savanna. The next year the colony of South Carolina sending over a memorial relating their danger from the French and Spaniards, the parliament granted the trustees an extraordinary supply of twenty-six thousand pounds, and very considerable benefactions were made both in Great Britain and Carolina; on which account great numbers of people were sent, chiefly consisting of persecuted German Protestants, and others from the north of Scotland.

Some Highlanders arrived in Georgia in 1735, settled on the river Alatomahar, about sixteen miles from the island of St. Simon, which is seated at the mouth of that river, and there built a town called Darien, which name they afterwards changed to that of New Inverness.

On the sixth of February following arrived four hundred and seventy persons, under the direction of Mr. Oglethorpe, and were settled upon the island of St. Simon, which is about forty miles in extent, has a rich and fruitful soil, and is full of oak and hickory trees, intermixed with meadows. The Creek Indians upon this occasion came down, and claiming a right to the land, were treated with and prevailed upon to agree, that the

English

English should possess it, and all the adjacent islands; which step being taken, the English built there the town of Frederica, so called from prince Frederic, his present majesty's father. And this being then the southern barrier, a regular fortress was built there, strengthened with four bastions and a strong battery; other fortifications were also raised in different places. The colony now became so considerable, as to excite the jealousy of the Spaniards. However, the governor of St. Augustine concluded an amicable agreement with Mr. Oglethorpe and the English colony, upon very safe and advantageous terms; but it soon appeared that this governor was not in the secret of the court of Spain; for the Spanish ministry disapproved of the treaty, and prepared to attack Georgia; on which a regiment of six hundred men was sent over for the defence and protection of the place, and as an encouragement to these soldiers the trustees allowed each of them five acres of land, and after being seven years in the service they should have a regular discharge, and be entitled to a grant of twenty acres.

In the beginning of the year 1737, the parliament granted the trustees twenty thousand pounds more for the farther settling and securing the colony, on which the trustees made another embarkation of persecuted German Protestants, and all the towns laid out in Georgia received great supplies.

In the mean time the trustees, by their letters and instructions to the magistrates, had constantly exhorted and encouraged the people to cultivate their lands; but in 1738, finding that many continued in idleness, they gave orders that none who neglected to cultivate their lands should receive supplies from the stores. Soon after a part of the people sent over a memorial, complaining of the want of a fee simple in their lands, and of their not being permitted the use of negroes. But those who were settled on the frontier, and were consequently most exposed to the Spaniards, having by their industry improved their plantations so as to draw from them a comfortable subsistence, sent over a counter memorial, in which they represented the disadvantages and dangers that would arise from the permission of negroes. However, an almost general spirit of discontent soon prevailed; and tho' such great sums had been expended, and such prudent regulations taken in the settlement of this colony, its progress was far from answering the expectations of the trustees and merchants. The prohibition of rum, tho' specious in appearance, had a very bad effect, the settlers wanting something to support their strength and spirits under the extraordinary and unusual heat of the climate, and where its dampness in several places exposed them to agues and fevers. But what was worse, this prohibition in a manner deprived them of the vent they had for the only commodities they could send to market, lumber and corn, which could sell no where but in the sugar islands; and with this restriction of rum they could take very little from them in return. They were obliged to work themselves, while the natives of Virginia and Carolina were in a much easier situation, and had their labour performed by their slaves. Indeed Virginia and Carolina were originally settled without the help of negroes; but this they did not consider, and they were unwilling to submit to extraordinary hardships, while they found their neighbours in a much more easy situation. Many quitted the laborious life of planters to reside more at their ease at Savanna, by the exercise of their several trades and professions. In short, horse-races and other diversions were soon set on foot, and such a spirit of idleness began to prevail as easily accounted for their eagerness in desiring the use of negroes.

At length a spirit of discontent almost generally prevailed; they quarrelled with one another and with their magistrates; they complained; they remonstrated; and obtaining no satisfaction, many of them left Georgia, and dispersed themselves among the other colonies; so that of above two thousand people, who had been carried thither at a great expence from Europe, in a little time 'tis said that not above seven or eight hundred were to be found in this province: upon which the trustees, in 1752, surrendered their charter to the crown, and the government took the country under their own care; annulled all the particular regulations that had been made; allowed

them the unlimited use of negroes, with the importation of rum, and left Georgia exactly on the same footing with Carolina; since which time it has been gradually, but slowly, encreasing in the number of its inhabitants.

S E C T. XII.

Of F L O R I D A.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, and Produce; with a particular Description of the Cabbage-tree, and a concise Account of the tame and wild Animals.

THE country to which the Spaniards have given the name of Florida, and which, by the late treaty, was ceded to Great Britain, was first discovered by Sebastian Cabot, in 1496, eighteen years before it was known to the Spaniards. That nation gave it a very great extent, including under the name of Florida all the country from the twenty-fifth degree six minutes to the thirty-ninth degree thirty-eight minutes north latitude, including Virginia, Carolina, and Georgia; but what is properly called the peninsula of Florida is bounded by Georgia on the north, by the Mississippi and the gulph of Mexico on the west, by that of Florida on the south, and by the channel of Bahama and the Atlantic ocean on the east; extending from Georgia to Cape Florida, between the twenty-fifth degree six minutes and the thirtieth degree fifty-eight minutes north latitude, and its most eastern coast lies in about the eighty-first degree thirty minutes west longitude from London.

The air, though hot, is pure and wholesome, and the soil remarkably rich and fruitful, frequently producing two or three crops of Indian corn in a year, and, with proper cultivation, might be made to bear every sort of grain, &c. It abounds with all kinds of timber, particularly oak, cypress, palms, cedar, pines, and chesnut-trees; but above all sassafras is found in the greatest plenty: excellent limes, mulberries, oranges, peaches, cocoas, and plums, also grow here in great abundance, with many other fruits of a delicious flavour; olives and vines likewise of various sorts are the natural produce of the country, and the land is thought to be as proper for the cultivation of the grape as the warm countries of Europe. Cotton also grows wild here in great abundance; hemp and flax are also very common.

One of the most singular trees in this or any other country is the cabbage-tree, by some authors called the palmeto royal; "and well, says the reverend and learned Mr. Hughes, may it be called royal, from its great height, majestic appearance, and beauty of its waving foliage: neither the tall cedar of Lebanon, nor any of the trees of the forest, are equal to it in height, beauty, and proportion." The trunk bulges out a little near the ground, which gives it the becoming appearance of a substantial basis to support its towering height. It is generally as straight as an arrow; and scarce can a pillar of the nicest order in architecture be more regular, especially when it is of about thirty years growth. It rises above a hundred feet in height, and the trunk near the earth is then about six or seven feet in circumference, the whole body growing tapering to the top. The colour of the bark resembles that of an ash-tree, and is faintly clouded at about the distance of every four or five inches with the vestigia of the fallen-off branches: this colour of the bark continues till within about twenty-five or thirty feet of the extremity, where it alters at once from an ash-colour to a beautiful deep sea-green, and thus continues to the top. About five feet above the beginning of the green part, the trunk is encircled with its numerous branches; all the lowermost spreading horizontally with great regularity, and the extremities of many of the higher branches bend wavering downwards, like so many plumes of feathers. These branches, when full grown, are about twenty feet long, and are thick set on the trunk, rising gradually superior one to another, and the top is terminated by a beautiful upright green conic spire. These branches are decorated with a very great number of green pointed leaves, some of them near three feet long, and an inch and a half broad, growing narrower towards their points, as well as gradually de-

creasing

creasing in length towards the extremities of the branches. It is observed that the lowermost branch drops monthly from the tree, carrying with it an exfoliated circular lamen of the green part of the tree from the setting on of the branches to the ash-colour part. This, and the branch to which it is always fixed, fall together. When the loss of this lower branch happens, the green conic spire, which issues from the center of the uppermost branches, and rises superior to all, bursts, and throws from its side a young branch, which continues the uppermost, till another of the lowermost branches drops off: then the spire sends forth again another branch superior in situation to the last. Thus the loss of the branches below is supplied by those above.

The inside texture of the leaves appears to be so many longitudinal thread-like filaments, which, being spun, are used in making cordage of every kind, as well as fishing-nets. What is called the cabbage lies in many thin, white, brittle flakes, which have something of the taste of almonds, and when boiled has somewhat the taste of a cabbage; but is sweeter and more agreeable.

The sea-coast is very flat, sandy, and full of shoals; and on the level shore are a prodigious number of oysters adhering to the mangrove trees, with which the southern coast is covered. Among the more precious productions may be reckoned cochineal, of which there is both the wild and the cultivated; but the latter is by far the most valuable. The indigo plant grows very plentifully in many of the southern parts of the province. Ambergris is likewise frequently to be met with on the coast, from the most southern cape of Florida as far as Mexico.

Animal food is here in great plenty, and very good in its kind, particularly beef, veal, and mutton. The country also feeds a multitude of swine, the flesh of which is very good, there being no want of acorns, chestnuts, and such food as is proper for their nourishment. Horses are also bred here fit for the saddle and draught, and so cheap, that they may be purchased for any trifle brought from Europe.

The wild beasts found in the country are the panther, bear, catamountain, buffalo, deer, hare, goats, rabbits, beavers, otters, foxes, racoons, flying squirrels, the armadillo, warre, opossum, guano, and several kinds of snakes.

Fowl are here in great plenty, as cranes, wild geese and ducks, herons, turtle-doves, partridges, thrushes, jays, hawks, and crows; the curosoe, the maccaw, the humming-bird, and an almost infinite number of others, some of which have their plumage elegantly variegated. The rivers abound with fish, and also with that destructive animal the alligator.

S E C T. XIII.

East and West Florida separately considered. The Situation, Advantages, and Disadvantages of each.

THE country of Florida is now divided into two distinct governments, under the names of East and West Florida, and we shall begin with the former, on account of its being contiguous to Georgia.

East Florida is bounded on the north by Georgia, from which it is separated by the river St. John; on the east by the Atlantic ocean and the gulph of Florida, which last separates it from the Bahama Islands; on the south by the gulph of Florida, which there separates it from the island of Cuba; and on the west by the gulph of Mexico and West Florida.

The eastern and southern part of East Florida consists of about twenty-four islands of pretty large extent, and a still greater number of smaller ones, all formed by narrow freights and bays, which run in from the west and join others from the south and the east. These freights are improperly called rios, or rivers. One of the principal of the bays is named Laguna del Espiritu Santo, or the lake of the Holy Ghost, which extends from north to south about twenty-seven leagues, and is near eight leagues wide: it has several communications with the bays on the west side of the peninsula, as well as with the gulph of Florida.

Bahia de Carlos, or Charles's-bay, is seated on the west coast, extending about fourteen leagues almost south-east from its entrance, and is about five leagues over in the broadest part; but has only three fathoms water. It has several openings between the islands, the chief of which communicates with the Laguna del Espiritu Santo, just described.

The Bahia del Espiritu Santo is about four leagues to the north-east of the Bahia de Carlos, on the western coast, and is a large and noble bay extending above twenty leagues in length, and six in breadth, where broadest, having from five to seven fathoms water, except at the outlet that goes into the Laguna del Espiritu Santo, where it is no more than two fathoms. This bay, which lies from south to east, is in about twenty-seven degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and is capable of receiving the largest fleet that ever was collected in this part of the world; and may, in case of any rupture, be of great importance to the crown of Great Britain; for the galleons in their passage from Vera Cruz to the Havanna, are obliged, by reason of their north-east trade-winds, to stretch away to the northward, and generally keep as near the coast of Florida as possible.

On the south-east of Florida is a large chain of islands and rocks, called Cayos de los Martyres, which extend in a circular form, in twenty-four degrees forty minutes north latitude, at the distance of thirteen leagues from Punta Florida, the most southern point. In 1733 a fleet of fourteen galleons, on their return through the gulph of Florida for Old Spain, ran foul of these rocks, occasioned by the ignorance of the admiral, Don Roderigo de Torres. One of the captains disobeying the admiral's signals, by that means avoided the danger, and saved his ship; but the other thirteen were entirely lost, with great part of their treasure: and for many years after these rocks were much frequented by the Spanish and Indian divers, who were often so successful as to recover great quantities of dollars.

The soil of East Florida in general is not so good as that in Georgia; but the north part of it adjacent to Georgia is much like it, and may be improved to the same purposes as Georgia, for raising of corn, rice, indigo, and silk; and in the west part of this province is some very good land, capable of being improved to great advantage. However, great part of the coast, both of the continent and the prodigious cluster of islands included in East Florida, is very sandy and barren; but farther within land it is said to be very fertile.

There are some good settlements begun in this province under the direction of colonel Grant, the present governor: there is a prospect of its soon becoming a flourishing province, and as inhabitants are at this time flocking to it from several countries in Europe, it will doubtless be in a short time a place of considerable consequence.

St. Augustine, the principal town in this province, is seated near the borders of Georgia, in the twenty-ninth degree fifty minutes north latitude, and was built by the Spaniards, who surrendered it at the late peace. The city runs along the shore at the foot of a pleasant hill, adorned with trees, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular streets, crossing each other at right angles. Down by the sea-side, about three quarters of a mile south of the town, stands the church and monastery of St. Augustine. The best built part of the town is on the north side leading to the castle, which is called Fort St. John. This is a square building of soft stone, fortified with whole bastions, a rampart twenty feet high, with a parapet nine feet thick, and is cazemated. The town is likewise fortified with bastions, and inclosed with a ditch: the whole well furnished with cannon. The harbour is formed by the north end of Santa Anastasia, an island nine leagues in length, and a long point of land divided from the continent by the river St. Mark, which falls into the sea a little above the castle. At the entrance of this harbour are the north and south breakers, which form two channels, whose bars have from eight to nine feet water over them at low tide. On the north and south are two Indian towns without the city walls.

The exports at present from East Florida are but small, the produce of their trade with the Indians being the chief

chief they have to spare; for as the country was four years ago almost entirely uncultivated, and there are but few inhabitants, no great improvements can yet be expected.

West Florida is bounded on the eastward by East Florida, on the south by the gulph of Mexico, on the west by the river Mississippi, and on the north by the country of the Chickataws; and is a narrow slip extending from east to west along the coast of the bay of Mexico. It was seized upon by the French, who begun a settlement at Pensacola in 1720, and enjoyed it till the treaty of Fontainebleau in 1763, when it was ceded to his Britannic majesty, who formed it into a distinct government.

Captain Robinson, who took a view of this country so lately as the year 1763, says, "the country all round is wonderfully delightful and fertile, and about Pensacola abounds with various herbs, shrubs, evergreens, and meadows well stocked with cattle. From Pensacola, he adds, I coasted eastward for two hundred miles, in a brigantine, to St. Mark d' Apalaché, scarcely ever losing sight of land. We were becalmed so close to the shore as to be able to pitch a biscuit upon it, near forty miles east of Pensacola, the firmament being very serene. In this state I stood contemplating on the rich and bountiful hand of nature: looking which way I pleased, I was equally attracted with a view of the most ravishing prospects. The shore level, rising gradually into eminences, clothed with the finest verdure and spontaneous productions, interspersed promiscuously, as mulberries, cedar, coco, vanilla, moho, cabbage-trees, &c. the last towering their round tops above the rest, as if conscious of their sovereign dignity. About sixty miles farther east we were again impeded in our voyage by the same cause, close to the pleasant little town of Santa Joseph. We made no stay here, by reason the wind was up very soon, but the face of the country is as before described, only a few miles round St. Joseph it is somewhat more mountainous. Soon after we arrived at St. Mark d' Apalaché, the second town in Florida, on the northern extreme of Apalachy-bay. In sailing along to the above place, the coast was much the same as already mentioned. This town is exceedingly beautiful and pleasant, standing on the slope of a hill, and tolerably regular built of stone, except some few baracas. Here are two convents, one of Jesuits, and the other of Franciscans: the exterior parts of the town are fortified in the Spanish mode, rather as a defence, I suppose, against the natives, than the Europeans. From the excellent and central position of this fine port, it carries on a good trade in its own river, and the interior parts as far as the Apalachian mountains. It is looked upon to carry on more commerce than all the other settlements in Florida put together.

"Curiosity induced me one day to take a journey of eight or nine miles into the country. I found abundance of extreme fine mulberry-trees, larger than any I ever saw in Italy: the leaves are well known to be the food of the silk-worm, the climate and all other necessities being adapted for their nourishment: nevertheless, it remained unregarded by the Spaniards, though it has produced, ten years ago, silk as good as any in Europe. On my return to the town of St. Mark d' Apalaché, I met with exquisite grapes interspersed up and down, exceeding the muscadine in bulk, and with something of their flavour."

There are at present in this province about six thousand inhabitants; but their number is increasing very fast, it being more healthy and inviting than East Florida, especially in the western parts near the bank of the Mississippi; and it is not to be doubted but that in a few years this will be a rich and flourishing province.

The principal town in West Florida is Pensacola just mentioned, seated on the island of Santa Rosa, which is thirty-three miles in length, and separated from the main land by a channel half a league over, but only navigable for small boats. The landing-place is within the bay in very shallow water, the town being seated on a sandy shore as white as snow, that can only be approached by small vessels. The road is, however, one of the best in all the gulph of Mexico, in which vessels may lie in

safety against every kind of wind. The bottom affords excellent anchorage; and the sea, which is never agitated, on account of its being surrounded by the land on every side, is capable of containing a great number of ships. Pensacola was lately defended by a small fort surrounded by stoccadoes, and the principal house is the governor's, which is a very handsome building, adorned with turrets on the top. As many of the French who inhabited this town before the treaty have chosen to become British subjects for the sake of keeping their estates, this will contribute to the speedy peopling this province, where there are several other small towns; the inhabitants already carry on a considerable trade with the Indians, and export great quantities of skins; the French inhabitants also raise a great deal of rice.

S E C T. XIV.

The Persons, Dress, Manners, and Customs of the Indians of Florida.

THE Indians of Florida are of an olive complexion; their bodies are robust, and finely proportioned; but both sexes go naked, except having a deer skin round their waist. They stain their skin with the juice of plants; and have black and long hair, which they have a method of twisting and binding upon the head so as to render it very becoming. The women, who are handsome and well shaped, are so active that they will climb with surprising swiftness to the tops of the highest trees, and swim across broad rivers with their children on their backs. The men make use of bows and arrows, which they manage with great dexterity; the strings of their bows are made of the sinews of stags, and they arm the end of their arrows with sharp stones or the teeth of fishes.

With respect to their religion, they worship the sun and moon, and have an extreme aversion to all Christians, which is the less to be wondered at, as the horrid cruelties exercised by the Spaniards on the natives of the adjacent island of Cuba, and other places, could not fail of exciting the utmost abhorrence and dread in their minds. The Spaniards, according to their usual custom, charge them with many vices, in order to cast as fair a colour as they can over their inhuman behaviour to the Indians, both of this and other countries, whom they first butchered, and then represented as savage barbarians, in order to palliate the crime, and in some degree apologize for such cruel proceedings.

Their œconomy, with regard to the management and distribution of their corn, which is accounted the common stock of the public, is worthy of notice. The crop, which is calculated to serve only half the year, is collected into granaries appointed for that purpose, and afterwards regularly delivered out to every family, in proportion to the number of persons it contains. The soil is indeed capable of affording much more corn than they are able to consume, but they choose to sow no more than will serve them for that term, retiring for the remainder of the year into the deep recesses of the forests, where they build huts of palm-trees, and live upon roots, wild-fowl, and fish. They are also very fond of the flesh of alligators, the young of which are delicious, but have a strong musky smell. Their meat is dressed in the smoke upon a gridiron made of sticks, and water serves them for their common drink.

The people are in general satisfied with one wife; but the chiefs are indulged with more, though the children of only one of them succeed to the father's dignity.

The government of the Floridans is in the hands of many chiefs, who are called cassiques: they are generally at variance and at war with each other; but this is far from being carried on in an open manner; on the contrary, they usually make use of surprize, or stratagem, exercising great cruelty upon such as they take prisoners, yet spare the women and children, whom they carry off and settle among them. When they have obtained a victory, they at their return home assemble all their friends, and feast three days and nights, spending the time in singing and dancing. In their war-like expeditions they carry with them honey and maize, and sometimes

times fish dried in the sun. The chief marches at their head, carrying a club in one hand and a bow and arrows in the other; his quiver hangs at his back, and the rest follow tumultuously with the same arms. They make their attacks with a horrible noise, not unlike the war-whoop of the Indians of the Six Nations.

They, however, attempt nothing rashly; but previously hold a consultation, having a sort of council, which consists of twelve or fourteen chosen members, who have remarkably distinguished themselves by their bravery in war, and have a considerable influence upon that account. They assemble daily at the hut of the chief, who has a higher seat than the rest, entering according to seniority, and with their hands thrown above their heads each sing their *Ha he ya*, while the rest join with *Ha ha*; after which they all take their seats. If the matter in debate be of great moment, their priests, who are also a kind of conjurers and physicians, with all who are distinguished by their great age, are called in, and their opinions particularly asked. Then the cassique carries round a kind of liquor like our tea, made by the infusion of the leaves of a certain tree.

The burial of a deceased cassique is celebrated among them with great solemnity: they place upon his tomb the bowl out of which he was accustomed to drink, and stick innumerable arrows in the earth around him, bewailing his death for three days with fasting and loud lamentations: the generality of them also cut off their hair, as a singular testimony of their sorrow. Their chieftains also set fire to and consume all the arms and household-furniture, together with the hut that belonged to the deceased; after which some old women are deputed, who every day, during the space of half a year, at morning, noon, and evening, bewail him with dreadful howlings: a custom that has been formerly practised among some of the most civilized nations, particularly among the Romans, who frequently hired women to weep at the funerals of their friends and relations.

SECT. XV.

Of the Country in the back Settlements on the Banks of the Mississippi, the Misauris, and the Ohio.

THE river Mississippi rises on the southermost part of the Central Mountains already described, and has a course of three thousand miles before it enters the gulph of Mexico. It rises from a lake of a considerable size, opposite to which is an opening in the mountain, from which a large stream flows to the lake, carrying with it a red sulphureous substance, by which the water is tinged, and on this account it is called the Red Lake. This lake has on its south and south-east sides a fine fertile country.

The Mississippi runs nearly south-west from this lake for upwards of two hundred miles, where it is joined by a small stream from the westward; and then turning nearly south-east for above three hundred miles, is joined by the Muddy River, and before that by another not so large, flowing to it from the north-east. The Muddy River rises from the south of the Central Mountains out of a large bog, and runs south, inclining to the west, till it meets the Mississippi, which, after its junction, is near two miles wide. The current from the head to this place is generally pretty rapid, and has frequent and large falls; but the country on both sides of the river, and of the branches that flow into it, is exceeding fine and fertile: the timber lofty, but thin, and the trees scattered at a distance from each other: the plains large and beautiful: the air and climate, even quite to the head, moderate and agreeable: the winters short and rarely severe; though farther eastward, in the same latitude, they are quite the reverse; and the farther you travel to the westward, the more mild and temperate it grows, and the country is more agreeable and fertile. The lakes and the rivers here abound with fish, and the wild oats, or rice, grow here in great plenty. On the wide extended plains are a multitude of wild cattle, and great plenty of deer, elks, and buffaloes, with some beavers, hares, and panthers. Here are wild-fowl in abundance, especially

turkies, and another kind of wild-fowl, much larger and nearly as tall as a man: they run very swift, but cannot fly, except it be from some eminence, and a small distance at a time.

This fertile country is at present inhabited by a nation called the White Indians, from their having a much fairer complexion than any other of the original inhabitants of the continent. This nation is so numerous as to be able to raise between twenty and thirty thousand men. They use no weapon but bows and arrows, tomahawks, and a kind of wooden pikes; on which account they frequently suffer greatly in battle, when attacked by the eastern Indians, who have the use of fire-arms, and frequently make excursions against them, killing and taking prisoners great numbers of them. These Indians dwell together in large towns, and have commodious houses; they raise Indian corn, tame the wild cows, and use both their milk and flesh; they keep a great number of dogs, and are very expert in hunting; but have little or no commerce with any other nation known to the Europeans.

The Mississippi, from the place where it is joined by the Muddy River, runs near two hundred miles to the south, with a strong and in some places a rapid current: it is then joined by a large river from the west, which rises four hundred miles from the Central Mountains; its waters chiefly rise from the north and north-easterly part of the Misauri ridge, a double chain of mountains so called, that extend towards the isthmus of Darien. This is named by the Indians the Bloody River, on account of the long and bloody wars that have happened between the Indians here and those to the eastward. Four hundred miles farther down, another river flows in from the north-west, that rises near the Bloody River. The two last rivers are both inhabited by the Illinois Indians, who likewise possess the western banks of the Mississippi for several hundred miles, till you come to a river that flows into it from the east, and rises near the Green-bay, having but a short carrying-place to the stream that discharges itself into that bay, and to another that falls into Lake Meshigan, near Fort St. Joseph. The country near this branch of the Mississippi was once inhabited by the Illinois, but they are now mostly retired to the west side of the Mississippi, only a few still remain at the mouth of the above river, where the French had likewise begun a settlement, which extended fifty miles along the Mississippi, and a considerable way up the river Illinois. There they raised excellent tobacco, and carried on a large trade with the Indians up the Mississippi and on the lakes. They likewise raised excellent wheat, barley, and other corn; and had formerly a good fort here, well garrisoned for their protection. Since this place was ceded to the crown of Great Britain, the French settled a garrison on the other side of the river, where the greatest part of the inhabitants have retired; but as there were a considerable number of Germans among them, they chose to stay on this side, and become British subjects. Near this fort is a village of Indians, but their largest settlement is on the west side, some miles above this, where they have a town, in which are contained near eight thousand men. They have also many large towns on the branches that fall into the river from the west.

These Indians live very comfortably, have pretty good houses, and make great use of horses; their country also abounds with buffaloes, deer, elks, &c. The soil and air are agreeable and pleasant: in some parts the trees are tall and handsome, and in other parts, for several hundred miles, there is scarce any timber to be found.

About a hundred and fifty miles below where the Mississippi is joined by the Illinois on the east side, the Misauris falls into it on the west. This last river rises from the east and south-east of the above Misauri ridge of mountains, in many different streams, for near a thousand miles on this side, which unite with each other at different places, and, after an easterly and south-easterly course of near two thousand miles, flow into the Mississippi.

It is perhaps impossible to find a finer country in any part of the earth, than that which is extended on each side of the Misauris, with respect to the salubrity of the air or the fertility of the soil. There are in this country near

near a thousand Indian towns, the inhabitants of which are called the Misauri Indians, and are able to raise a great number of fighting men; these people have nearly the same manners and customs as the Illinois, who are also very numerous. The goodness of the country they both inhabit, must render life easy and agreeable to persons who, like them, are content with gratifying the demands of nature, without endeavouring to encrease these demands, by studied refinements in dress, equipage, or the modes of living. Health, joy, peace, and plenty, seem here to take up their abode; while care, anxiety, ambition, and the love of gold seem banished from this happy region.

The Mississippi, after being joined by the Misauris, is about six miles wide, and continues its course southerly, no considerable stream falling into it after this, for between two and three hundred miles, when it is joined by the Ohio. The country on each side the Mississippi to this place is exceeding fine, nearly resembling that just described; but it enjoys a somewhat warmer climate. It is claimed by the Tweeghtwees, or Yeahtanees, on the east side down to the Ohio, and eastwardly from the Mississippi as far as the Wabach.

The Ohio rises in several branches, one of which is near Presque Isle, within six miles of the Lake Ontario. About ten miles down this branch stood Fort Du Beauf, from which place it is navigable for canoes and small boats quite to the mouth. The course of this branch is southerly for seventy or eighty miles below the last-mentioned fort, where was another fort called Venango; but both this fort, with that of Presque Isle and Fort Du Beauf, were all destroyed by the Indians in 1763. About twenty miles above this last fort are several little towns of the Mingos, who now belong to the Five Nations. Opposite to Venango fort this branch is joined by another large one from the north-east, which rises in the country of the Five Nations; and about half way from thence to Fort Pitt is another, which joins it from the north-east, and after their meeting it is called the Ohio, till you come to Fort Pitt, where it is joined by the Monongahela, which rises from the west side of the Allegany mountains in a great number of small streams, that soon unite and form this river.

Fort Pitt stands upon a point of land between the rivers Monongahela and Ohio, and is a regular well-built fortress, kept in good order, and well garrisoned: it is a very necessary post for the protection of our frontiers; and indeed there are none in this country more so, except Niagara and Detroit. Near Fort Pitt is a good coal-mine, made use of by the garrison for fuel; but what is a still greater advantage, the country is extremely well watered by springs and rivulets, and has an easy communication with the sea down the Mississippi, and with great part of the interior country of North America by its several branches, the Wabach, Misauris, Yeahtanees, the Ohio, &c. and with the great lakes by the way of Presque Isle, where, at a small expence, the waters of the lake might be turned into the Ohio; and even at present the carrying-place extends but a small distance.

From Fort Pitt the general course of the Ohio inclines to the south for near a thousand miles, according to the course of the river. At Fort Pitt it is a mile wide, but grows much wider before its junction with the Mississippi, it being joined by several streams in its course thither.

The country between the lakes and the junction of the Ohio and Mississippi for several hundred miles, and all the country between Fort St. Joseph and the Green-bay, and between Detroit and the Illinois, and even much farther north than Detroit, is level, and has excellent soil; the climate is healthy and agreeable, and the winters short and moderate: its natural productions are numerous and valuable: it is sufficiently, but not too much, covered with trees, which are tall, beautiful, and fit for building; and, in short, no country in the world is capable of richer improvements.

Below the river Ohio on the east side of the Mississippi,

down to its mouth, the country is possessed for near two hundred miles to the eastward by the Chicketaus, a nation that can raise ten thousand fighting men. This country is indeed sandy, and inferior to that just described; but it produces rice and indigo in great perfection, of which the French have made sufficient proof.

The Chicketaus generally dwell in large towns near the banks of the Ohio, on the streams that fall into that river on the east. Their houses, though not very handsome, are pretty compact, in order to secure them against the Musketoos, which at some seasons of the year are very troublesome. They keep cows, hogs, and horses; and the latter in great abundance. They likewise raise plenty of corn, beans, and potatoes; but have little game, except deer.

The Cherokees dwell at the south-west end of the Apalachian mountains, from the head of the river Tanefee, which flows into the Ohio, about a hundred miles before its confluence with the Mississippi. Their country extends in length about four hundred miles from the north-east to the south-west, and is about two hundred miles wide. It is very mountainous and difficult of access every way. They live in as good order as any Indians on the continent, building their houses with wood, and covering them with clay mixed with straw, in such a manner as to render them close, warm, and comfortable. They have many small towns dispersed among the mountains on the branches of the rivers Tanefee and Savanna. They have great plenty of horses, some black cattle, and many swine. These people raise a great deal of corn, and fence in their fields, which is practised by no other Indians. They have also orchards of peach-trees, and keep poultry. They attend to gardening, and are likewise very famous for hunting, their country abounding with deer, elks, and bears; and they have plenty of turkies in the vallies between the mountains. The Cherokees can raise about two thousand fighting men.

The river Tanefee is entirely uninhabited below the mountains as far as its confluence with the Ohio; yet the country is claimed by the Chicketaus, a brave warlike people, who have only one town, which is seated on a plain, by a small creek that rises about thirty miles to the south of the Tanefee. Their town is picquetted in, and defended by a fort. Their houses are built in much the same form as those of the Chicketaus. These people raise a great deal of corn, have some black cattle and swine, and a considerable number of horses; but can only raise five hundred fighting men.

To the south-west of the Cherokees live the Creek Indians, who are seated partly between them, the Chicketaus, and Georgia, in a level country. They can raise about two thousand fighting men, and live in the same manner and have the same commodities as the Cherokees and Chicketaus. All the country of the Creeks are infested with alligators and snakes of a very large size; and at certain seasons of the year they are much plagued with the musketoos.

The soil is good from the Misauris down to the west side of the Mississippi, till you come near its mouth. The French had lately a settlement a little above its confluence with the Ohio on the west side: about a hundred miles farther down another scattered settlement of theirs begun, and was continued for near a hundred miles, from whence to New Orleans it is better settled. The produce of this country is rice, Indian corn, and some wheat. The isle of Orleans is a very beautiful and fertile spot, on which the French had, if they have not still, a considerable town; and their number in this province is said to amount, at the time of the late peace, to about a hundred thousand persons. The negroes are also very numerous, and the soil towards the south proper for producing rice and indigo, and towards the north for raising wheat.

Having now described the provinces of North America subject to Great Britain, we shall proceed to the West Indies; but shall first give a Description of Bermudas, or the Summer Islands.

C H A P. IV.

Of the BERMUDAS, with a Description of the WEST INDIAN Islands belonging to GREAT BRITAIN.

S E C T. I.

Of the BERMUDAS, or SUMMER ISLANDS.

Their Name, Situation, Number, Extent, and Climate; a particular Description of the Soil, Vegetables, and Animals, particularly of the Island of St. George; with the Manners of the Inhabitants.

THE Bermudas, or Summer Islands, received their first name from their being discovered by John Bermudes, a Spaniard, in the year 1503, after which they were frequently touched at by his countrymen in their passage to the West Indies. They received their second name from Sir George Sommers, who was shipwrecked upon them, with Sir Thomas Gates, in 1609, in their passage to Virginia. These islands are very numerous, but lie pretty contiguous to each other, and are supposed to amount to about four hundred; but most of them so small and barren as not to be habitable. They lie in the thirty-second degree twenty minutes north latitude, and, according to the most accurate observations, in the sixty-fourth degree forty-eight minutes west longitude. Their greatest extent, which is from the north-east to the south-west, is computed at about twenty miles, and their greatest breadth about five: however, scarce an eighth part is inhabited. Their distance from the Land's-end is computed between fifteen and sixteen hundred leagues, from the Madeiras about eleven or twelve hundred, and three hundred from Cape Hatteras in Carolina, which is the nearest land to them. All these islands, except St. George's, St. David's, and Cooper's, have only a few houses scattered up and down.

St. George's, the largest of these islands, is only about sixteen miles in length, and not a league over in the broadest part: but is fortified with rocks every way, extending far into the sea. To its natural strength the inhabitants have added several good forts, with batteries and other out-works, especially towards the east, where it lies most uncovered, so well disposed, that they command the several channels and inlets on that side. There are only two places at which ships can safely enter, and the rocks lie so thick that, without a good pilot from the shore, a vessel of ten tons burthen could not find the way into these harbours, which being once known the largest ships in the world may enter: but they are so well fortified, that should an enemy, assisted by the most skilful pilots, attempt either of them, they might be easily kept out. Indeed all the islands in general are so environed with rugged and dreadful rocks, that they seem to threaten all the ships that venture near the coast with present destruction; and so many have been wrecked upon them, that the Spaniards gave them the name of Los Diabolos, or the Devils.

The air of these islands has been always esteemed extremely healthful, and the appearance of every thing in St. George's island, and the other fertile ones, is perfectly delightful, whence people have been accustomed to remove thither from the other colonies, in order to repair their broken constitutions. The heat in summer is very supportable, and with respect to winter it is here unknown; some even affirm, that there is but one season, and that there is here a perpetual spring, in which the trees never lose their verdure; for though the leaves at one time of the year fall off, others have first budded out: but, notwithstanding the fineness of the climate, these islands are subject to storms of thunder and lightning.

The country is mostly mountainous, but has some fertile plains. The earth is of various colours, but the brown is esteemed the richest; the whitish, or sandy, is

reckoned the next; and the reddish the worst. Upon the whole, the soil, though thin and very stony, is rich and fruitful; but their water is generally brackish, except what falls from the clouds, and is preserved in cisterns.

Maize, which is the principal support of the people, is twice reaped; for what they sow in March, they reap in July: in a fortnight after they sow again, and reap in December. They also raise some tobacco. The cedars of these islands are said to exceed all those of the other parts of America, particularly in their fragrantcy, durableness, beauty, and the hardness of the wood; and they are here in such plenty, that this wood answers in all respects our oak timber; for they not only build their best sloops, brigantines, and other vessels with it, but some of their houses, churches, and other public buildings. Their palmeto, which is a kind of wild palm, is no less useful and common. Its fruit, which in colour, shape, and size resembles our damson, is very delicious; the wood is serviceable for building and fuel, and the leaves, which are generally between eight and ten feet long, serve to make a very good covering for their houses. The date, or palm-tree, likewise yields a fine fruit, and their forests abound with variety of odoriferous and medicinal woods, some black, others yellow, and some red. The berries of these last trees have the styptic quality of a sloe, and are much used by the English to cure the flux, which they frequently get by eating the luscious palm-berries, and other rich fruits. All European and American trees are said to grow here in great perfection, especially the mulberry, olive, laurel, Barbary pear, and orange-trees, which are peculiarly excellent; the fruit, in point of size, scent, and flavour, far exceed those either in the East or West Indies. They have also a very singular plant called the Summer Island red wood, the berry of which is as red as the prickly-pear, and gives the same kind of tincture; out of it come worms, which turn into flies, that are somewhat larger than the cochineal fly, and have a medicinal virtue much exceeding it. They have also a plant called the poisonous-weed, that grows much in the same manner as our ivy; but this is the only noxious thing in any of these islands.

With respect to quadrupeds, there were none in the Bermudas but hogs, when Sir George Sommers was shipwrecked there, and these he found by sending out two or three of his own to feed, which rambling home, a huge wild boar followed them, and being killed, was found excellent meat. The hogs they afterwards killed were all black, whence it is concluded that the Spaniards left them there to breed, they being of the same kind with those they carried to the continent of America. They have also all the other species of European cattle, but they are not very numerous.

These islands abound with a prodigious variety of fowl, as swans, widgeons, herons, ducks, snipe, teal, moorhens, bitterns, osprays, baldcoots, cormorants, and hawks of all sorts; bats, owls, and other birds of the night are also very common, and there are multitudes of small birds. The English at their first coming found a kind of water-fowl peculiar to those islands, called cowkees; they breed in the holes of the rocks, and in burrows like rabbits. This bird is of the size of a sea-mew, and being of so gentle a nature as to be easily caught, and being also very good to eat, such numbers have been taken of them that they now are become scarce. Here are likewise found the trumpet-bird and the pemlico, the last of which is seldom seen in the day-time.

The insects in these islands are generally the same as in our other plantations, except the spider, which is thought to be larger here than in any other country in

the world; but the beautiful colour with which they are adorned takes off very much from that distaste which otherwise the sight of creatures of this kind, and of so enormous a size, would naturally occasion.

It has been already observed, that the number of these islands is uncertain: the principal of them are St. George, St. David, Ireland, Somerset, Long-island, Bird-island, Cooper, and Nonfuch. We have also observed that the first of these is the most considerable; it is therefore here proper to add, that it is divided into nine districts, called by the inhabitants tribes; namely, St. George's tribe, Hamilton's tribe, Smith's tribe, Devonshire's tribe, Pembroke's tribe, Paget's tribe, Warwick's tribe, Southampton's tribe, and Sandy's tribe. All the inhabitants of the lesser islands are ranged under one or other of these eight tribes, and the number of people in all the islands is computed at about ten thousand.

St. George, the capital town, is seated at the bottom of a haven in the island of the same name, and is defended by seven or eight forts mounted with about seventy pieces of cannon. The town has a handsome church, together with a fine library, with a noble state-house for the meeting of the governor, council, and assembly, and about one thousand houses more very neatly built.

The government is like that of Virginia, Carolina, Florida, &c. the crown appointing the governor and council, and the representatives of the people composing the assembly. They are said to have fewer bye-laws than any of our settlements, which may be imputed to the smallness of their trade; for this country produces no considerable commodity by which the inhabitants can obtain riches; for their commerce chiefly consists in timber and provisions, in building ships, and sending some tobacco to England.

The people of the Summer-islands seem to content themselves with the plenty and pleasure of their country, and with enjoying a safe and quiet retreat from the troubles and cares of the rest of the world. Indeed the inhabitants have constantly maintained an excellent reputation, and the Bermudas have been equally remarkable for the beauty of the country, and the integrity, simplicity, and honesty of the people. The beauty and the healthfulness of these islands, and the amiable characters of the inhabitants, induced the learned dean Berkeley, afterwards bishop of Cloyne, to erect an academy at the Bermudas for promoting useful learning and true religion in the West Indies, and the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel assisted him in procuring a patent from king George I. for erecting a college there. That gentleman and three fellows of Trinity-college in Dublin, with several of the Doctor's relations, embarked on this undertaking; but were driven by a storm to Long-island, in the province of New York, from whence the Doctor, with his companions, went to Boston and several other towns in New England, where they preached; but the design of erecting a college being laid aside, they returned home, and soon after doctor Berkeley was promoted to the see of Cloyne in Ireland.

S E C T. II.

A concise History of the Settlement of the Bermudas.

WE have already observed, that Sir George Sommers was wrecked on these islands; but he here caused a vessel to be built in which he pursued his intended voyage to Virginia, but left two men who had committed some crime for which they would have been put to death, had they been brought to England. These were there when he afterwards returned to the islands, they having lived on the productions of the place, and built them a hut on St. George's island. These men, whose names were Christopher Carter and Edward Waters, also staid behind Sir George's second company, and even persuaded one Edward Chard to remain with them; and now Carter, Waters, and Chard, though the sole lords of the country, soon quarrelled, when Carter, tho' he hated both, not liking to be alone, prevented their fighting, by threatening to declare against the man who struck first. At last necessity made them friends, and

they joined together in making discoveries. In one of their expeditions they found a large piece of ambergris among the rocks that weighed eighty pounds, besides other smaller pieces. This treasure made them almost beside themselves, and in order to obtain an opportunity of making use of it, they resolved on the most desperate attempt that men could form; which was to build a boat after the best manner they could, and to sail either to Virginia or Newfoundland, just as the wind happened to blow; but before they could put their project in execution, they were prevented by the arrival of a ship from England; for captain Matthew Sommers, Sir George's brother, had promised to come to them, or to send a vessel to their relief. This ship had sixty persons on board, sent by the new-formed Bermudas company to make a settlement, of which Mr. Moore was governor. That gentleman pitched upon a plain in St. George's island, and there built a cabin of palmeto leaves, large enough for his wife and family; and the rest of the adventurers following his example, it soon grew into a town of considerable extent. This is now St. George's town, just described. Mr. Moore proved an excellent governor, and in 1614, disappointed the Spaniards in an attempt to conquer these islands.

This gentleman was succeeded in the government by captain Daniel Tucker, who having a better education, and greater experience, established a regular polity, traced out plantations, and obliged every man to build uniformly in the town, and to lay out regular plantations in the country; by which means the islands were much improved, and the exportations to England increased. He likewise established a militia, and placed the islands in such a posture of defence as to put it out of the power of any of their enemies to hurt the colony.

However, the severity of captain Tucker's government gave great disgust to the licentious, and five of them executed as desperate a design to escape, as Waters and his two companions had proposed. They were sensible that the governor would not give them leave to return to England, and therefore hearing that he had a great desire to go a fishing out at sea, but was afraid of doing it because several fishing-boats had been driven off by the weather, they proposed to build a boat of two or three tons burthen, with a deck, and so fitted, that she should live in all weathers. The governor consenting to this, they began to build in a private place, under the pretence of its being convenient for getting timber and launching the boat. One of these five was a gentleman, another had contrived the design, another was a ship-carpenter who undertook to build this little vessel, and the other was a common sailor who promised to navigate it. They finished the boat sooner than was expected, and the governor sending for it, in order to go on board a ship that was ready to sail to England, the men on coming to the place could neither find the boat nor the builders, and all that they could hear of them was, that the boat being finished the night before, those who built it went off to sea in order to try how it would sail; but at last they found, by some letters they left behind, that they had set sail for England.

These rash adventurers had, on some pretence, borrowed a compass-dial of a neighbour, and then going on board the ship bound for England, exchanged such things as they could spare for provisions; and one of them, at parting, told the mariners, that though they were forbidden to go with them, they hoped to be in England before them, at which the master of the ship laughed, and away these fearless adventurers sailed with a fair wind and weather that lasted twenty-one days. They then met with a storm, which continued forty-eight hours, and drove them a little out of their course to the westward; but the wind coming fair again, and continuing ten days, they went on cheerfully. In that time they met with a French privateer, and went on board to beg some relief; but, instead of assistance, were plundered of all the little they had; the French had even the inhumanity to take away their compass, and then cruelly turned them adrift. In this miserable condition they sailed on, growing every day weaker and weaker. Their provisions were almost spent, their fire-wood quite gone, not a drop of fresh

water left, nor food for above a day, when at length, to their unspeakable joy, they made land, which proved to be Ireland; where going on shore in the county of Cork, they were nobly entertained by the earl of Thomond, to whom they related their extraordinary voyage, which lasted forty-two days.

But to return, in 1619 Mr. Tucker resigned to captain Butler, who arrived with four ships, in which he brought five hundred passengers, and there being as many English before on the island, the colony began to make a considerable figure. This governor divided the islands into districts; and now the government, by a governor, council, and assembly, was established, it before consisting only of the governor and council; and the laws of the country were settled as much like those of England as the circumstances of the place would admit.

SECT. III.

Of the BAHAMA, or LUCAYAN Islands.

Whence the West Indies obtained that Name. The Situation and Extent of the Bahama Islands, with a concise Account of Bahama and Providence Islands, and an Account of their Settlement and Revolutions.

WE now return from the Bermudas to the British islands near the middle of the continent of America, where all the islands have obtained the name of West-Indies, from the opinion the great Columbus had entertained, that by sailing to the west he should discover India, and be able to bring from thence the rich spices, which for a considerable time had been brought by the way of the Red Sea, carried by land through Egypt, and there sold to the Venetians and other maritime republics in the Mediterranean, who obtained immense wealth by supplying all the rest of Europe with these articles of luxury. Columbus was right in his general idea; but these islands, which he imagined lay near the coast of India, were some thousand leagues to the west of them; nor was he prepared for such a voyage. It was with difficulty and great danger that he reached these; the mariners, at that time never accustomed to sail far out of sight of land, were frequently in despair, and dreading lest they should perish in the boundless ocean into which he had carried them, frequently, in the midst of their terror, intreated him to return; and at length resolved to throw him over-board, and then endeavour to sail back to Spain. But Columbus, bold and undaunted, raised their hopes, by shewing them at one time, weeds floating in the sea; at another small birds, which he observed could not fly far from land; and at last a cane, with a staff, which had been evidently cut; and at length they landed in one of the Bahama islands we are now going to describe, where the mariners no sooner got on shore, than they fell prostrate, and in a transport of joy kissed the earth.

The Bahama islands are seated to the east and south-east of Florida, and the north of Cuba, stretching from the north-east to the south-west between the twenty-first and twenty-eighth degree of north latitude, and between the seventy-second and eighty-first of west longitude. These islands are very numerous; but there are only twelve worthy of notice. Between them and the continent of Florida is the gulph of Bahama or Florida, through which the Spanish galleons sail in their passage to Europe.

Bahama, from which the rest of these islands take their name, is seated in the twenty-sixth degree forty-five minutes north latitude, at the distance of fifteen or twenty leagues to the east of Florida, and eight or ten to the west of the island of Lucaya, from which it is divided by a channel, which, notwithstanding its great breadth, is very dangerous from its being full of rocks and sands. Bahama is about fifty miles in length; but scarce anywhere sixteen miles in breadth, and in many places not half so broad. It is however very pleasant and fruitful, the air serene and temperate, and the soil remarkably rich, it being watered by a multitude of springs and brooks of fresh water. It formerly produced plenty of guaiacum, sassafras, sarsaparilla, and red-wood; but these were all destroyed by the Spaniards; so that its chief

produce at present is Indian wheat, fowl, and a particular sort of rabbit; the rest of their provisions and other necessities they obtained from Carolina and Florida, and the people both here and in the island of Providence are able to assist the ships that are driven upon their coast by the boisterous winds and impetuous currents, which are here very violent.

Providence island is seated in the center of some hundreds of these islands, some of them many miles in length, and others are only small rocks rising above the water; so that it is extremely dangerous for ships to be forced in among them by a tempest. This island lies in the twenty-fourth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and is about twenty-eight miles long and eleven broad, where it is widest. It is a beautiful little island, abounding with trees, plants, fowl, and fish. The most considerable profit formerly made by the planters arose from the misfortunes of such as were shipwrecked, and whom they relieved; or from those who in a winter voyage to the continent of America were driven to the Bahama islands, and put into Providence for provisions, where the traders who purchased them from Carolina kept store-houses to supply those who wanted, and these afforded great relief to the unfortunate mariners. They likewise made some advantage of the wrecks that were thrown in upon them. The principal produce of the island is salt and brailetto-wood, which they carry to Carolina. They also sow pease and Indian wheat.

The other islands, notwithstanding some authors reckon that they amount to between four and five hundred, are hardly worth describing; at least we have no particulars relating to them that can engage the attention of the curious reader. The most considerable of them, besides those just mentioned, are Eleuthera, Harbour-Island, Lucaya, Andros, Cigateo, which may be termed of the second magnitude. Those of the third are Cat-Island, the first land discovered by Columbus in America, Yumeta, Samana, Mayaguana, Yuma or Exuma, Ynagua, Caicos, and Triangulo. As to the rest, they are rather barren rocks than islands.

With respect to the history of these islands, they were the first-fruits of the New World discovered by Columbus; we have already observed that he landed in Cat-Island, which was then called Guanahani; but was called by Columbus St. Salvador, and it owes its present name to the English inhabitants. The native Indians, a simple, harmless, inoffensive people, received the first discoverers with the utmost astonishment, flocked in crowds to the European vessels, and admired every thing they saw; but though they behaved in a most inoffensive manner, the Spaniards after Columbus's time, not thinking those islands worth making a settlement upon, to the disgrace of humanity, extirpated all the natives they found, though they were very numerous; and thus wantonly murdered many thousands of innocent persons, without any advantage to themselves.

These islands lying out of the course of ships bound to the continent of America, it was long before they were known to the English: but in 1667 captain William Sayle, in a voyage to Carolina, was forced among them in a storm, and had an opportunity of examining them carefully, particularly a large island to which he at first gave his own name; but being a second time driven upon it, gave it the name of Providence.

On his return to England he let the proprietors of Carolina know the situation and circumstances of these islands, observing, that in case they were settled, they might not only be a great benefit to this nation, but be a constant check on the French and Spaniards, if a breach should happen between either or both of those nations. These reasons being mentioned to king Charles II. that prince made a grant of the Bahama islands to George duke of Albemarle, Anthony lord Ashley, John lord Berkeley, William lord Craven, Sir George Carteret, and Sir Peter Colleton.

The first governor sent by the proprietors to Providence-Island was Mr. Chillingworth, who sailed thither about the year 1672, when several people from England and the other colonies went to settle there; but living a licentious life, and Mr. Chillingworth endeavouring to bring them to reason, they assembled in a tumultuous manner,

manner, and having seized him shipped him off for Jamaica, and then lived as they thought proper. Though a colony so unruly afforded little encouragement for any man to put himself in their power; yet, six or seven years after, the proprietors made Mr. Clarke governor, whose fate was much worse than that of his predecessor; for the Spaniards, jealous of every new English colony towards the south, landed in Providence-Island, destroyed all the stock which the inhabitants could not carry off, and burnt their houses. But what is still more extraordinary, Mr. Trott, one of Mr. Clarke's successors, always asserted, that after the Spaniards had killed Mr. Clarke, they roasted him on a spit. This is indeed very improbable; it is however certain that he was killed, and that the people removing to other colonies, the island remained uninhabited till about the time of the Revolution, when a number of persons removed thither from Europe and the continent of America, and the proprietors appointed a new governor.

About ten years after Providence and the adjacent islands contained near a thousand inhabitants, some tobacco was planted, a sugar-mill was set up, and other improvements were made; but in 1708 the Spaniards and French landed, surprized the fort, took the governor prisoner, plundered and stripped the English, burnt the town of Nassau, together with the church, ruined the fort, and nailed up the guns; after which they carried off the governor, and about half the blacks, the rest saving themselves in the woods; but within about a month they returned, and took most of the negroes who were left. After this second invasion the English inhabitants of the Bahamas thinking it in vain to stay any longer, dispersed, removing to Carolina, Virginia, New England, and other places. Mean while the proprietors appointed one Mr. Birch to go over governor, who landing in Providence, and finding it a desert, did not give himself the trouble to open his commission; but after remaining there two or three months, during which he slept in a tent erected in the woods, he returned back, and left the place uninhabited.

The Bahama islands at length becoming a receptacle for pirates, the house of lords, considering that it would be of fatal consequence should they fall into the hands of an enemy, addressed her majesty queen Anne, that the island of Providence might be put into a posture of defence; but this advice being neglected, their lordships four years after addressed king George I. on the same subject, who was pleased to give directions for dislodging the pirates, making settlements, and erecting a fortification. Captain Woodes Rogers, who was now appointed governor, sailed for Providence in 1718, with a naval force for subduing the pirates. In the mean while colonel Bennet, governor of the Bermudas, sent a sloop to the island, ordering them to surrender, pursuant to a late proclamation. Those who were on shore gladly accepted the mercy offered them, adding, that they did not doubt but their companions who were at sea would follow their example. Accordingly captain Henry Jennings, and fifteen others, followed the sloop to the Bermudas, and surrendered themselves. Soon after four other captains, with a hundred and fourteen of their men, likewise surrendered. But Vane, one of the captains of the pirates, knowing that captain Rogers was coming to reduce those robbers by proclamation, or by force, set fire to a French ship of twenty-two guns, which he had taken, in order to burn the *Rose* frigate, which had just arrived at Nassau: however, the *Rose* got off by cutting her cables, and though the governor, with two men of war, then entered the harbour, Vane, and about fifty of his men, made off in a sloop; and, notwithstanding the governor sent a vessel after them, they made their escape.

Mr. Rogers having taken possession of the fort, caused his majesty's commission to be read in the presence of the officers, soldiers, and about three hundred people, whom he found there at his arrival, and who had been almost daily exercised in arms for their defence in case of an attack from the French or Spaniards; and the governor brought with him above a hundred soldiers, who, with the others, were judged sufficient to secure the island. He began to regulate the government, and nominated six of the adventurers who came with him to be of the

council, to which he added six out of such of the inhabitants that had never been pirates. Two hundred more of the pirates soon after surrendered, and a few years after the number of the inhabitants was computed at fifteen hundred, out of whom were formed three companies of militia, who took their turn every night in the town guard at Nassau. The face of affairs being thus changed, the town of Nassau was rebuilt, and plantations laid out. Soon after the neighbouring island of Eleuthera was likewise settled; about sixty families fixing themselves there, erected a small fort for their defence. The like was done in Harbour Island, where the plantations soon grew more considerable, and a larger fort was built for the protection of the inhabitants. Cat Island was also settled. Captain Rogers likewise defeated the Spaniards, who, after three several preparations, attacked him with two thousand men, which force he repulsed, and burnt two of their ships of war in their retreat. At length Mr. Rogers returned to England, and was succeeded in his government by captain Fitz-Williams; and ever since this last settlement of these islands they have been continually improving, though they advance but slowly.

S E C T. IV.

Of J A M A I C A.

Its Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, and Climate.

JAMAICA, the largest of all the British islands in America, was named by Columbus St. Jago, which it retained while in the possession of the Spaniards; but after its being taken by the English, it obtained its ancient name. It extends from seventy-five degrees fifty-seven minutes west longitude from London to the seventy-eighth degree thirty-seven minutes west longitude, and from the seventeenth degree forty-eight minutes to the eighteenth degree fifty minutes north latitude; it being about a hundred and sixty miles in its greatest length from Point Negril on the west to Point Morant on the east, and seventy in its greatest breadth from the Pitch of Portland on the south to Gallina Point on the north; but grows less towards each end. It lies near four thousand five hundred miles south-west of England, a hundred and seventy leagues to the northward of Porto Bello and Carthagena, twenty leagues south of Cuba, and twenty-four to the west of Hispaniola.

The island being within the tropic, has the trade wind continually there: it is on the south side of the island, and is called the sea-breeze. It comes about eight o'clock in the morning, and increases till twelve at noon, and decreases as the sun grows lower, till there is none at four in the afternoon. The land breeze begins about eight in the evening, blowing four leagues into the sea; it continues increasing till twelve at night, and decreases again till four. Thus, as the land-wind blows at night, and the sea-breeze during the day, no ships can come into port except in the day, nor go out but at break of day, or soon after.

The whole island is divided into one continued ridge of hills, which run from east to west through the middle of it, and are generally called the Blue Mountains, on each side of which are hills much lower. The mountainous part is very steep, and the highest hills on the north and south sides are surrounded by very deep channels made by the violent rains, which almost every day fall on the mountains, and first wearing a small channel for their passage, and afterwards carrying all before them, make their channels extremely deep. Most of the savannas, or plains, cleared of wood and fit for pasture, lie near the south side of the island; they resemble our meadow land, and a person may ride several miles without meeting with the least ascent: some of these plains are within land environed with hills; after rain they are very green and fertile; but after a long drought look yellow and parched.

The principal harbours in the island are Port Royal, which is fine and capacious; Old Harbour, which lies seven or eight miles west of St. Jago; Port Morant, at the east end of the island; and Port Negril, at the west end: besides which there are several others on the south

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and north sides ; but it is dangerous approaching the coast without a pilot on account of the coral rocks, with which it is almost encompassed.

With respect to the rivers of Jamaica, they are said to amount to near a hundred, yet none of them are navigable; for rising in the mountains in the middle of the island, they precipitate themselves down the rocks to the north and south, falling into the sea before they have run many miles, frequently carrying down with them large trees and great pieces of rocks ; and several of these rivers have cataracts fifty or sixty feet high. However, in dry years water is very scarce in the savannas at a distance from the rivers ; so that many cattle die with driving to water. It is remarkable that some of the rivers in the mountains in several places rise above and sink under ground, and in particular the Rio d' Oro falls and rises two or three times. Another peculiarity is, that some of the springs and rivers petrify their channels by encrusting them with a cement which unites the gravel and sand in their bottoms.

There are also several hot springs, and many others that are salt and form lakes, particularly Riotto, a lake that receives a great deal of water, and yet has no visible discharge. In these, and in ponds formed by sea-water, great plenty of salt is made, by the heat exhaling the moisture.

The mountains, and indeed the greatest part of the island, are covered with fine woods that never lose their verdure, but look for ever green, and are gay in every season. The beauties of December equal the bloom of April : you see a thousand various kinds of trees adorning the brow of every hill, irregularly mixing their different branches, appearing in a gay kind of confusion, forming groves and cool retreats : the cedar, the mahogany, the *lignum vitæ*, and unnumbered others mingling their boughs ; some rearing their lofty heads, and others thriving under their friendly shade. Nor are the beauties of the better cultivated valleys inferior to these ; they too wear the verdant robe of nature, and please no less when they are laid out with the nicest art and care, and produce the richest plants, as the sugar cane, the ginger, pimento, and others, which are more valuable to their owners than a share in the mines of Potosi or Peru. They likewise boast of the finest orange and lemon-trees in great plenty. Fruit is so common that few regard them ; on the way sides you may pick the citron, the star-apple, the guava, and the mamee ; and every thing resembles a kind of paradise. But these advantages are balanced by many disagreeable circumstances : the rivers contain the dreadful alligator, the fens and marshes the guana and galliwas, with numberless snakes and noxious animals. You are exposed during great part of the year to the scorching heat of the sultry sun, and the warm climate renders the island sickly.

The longest day in summer is about thirteen hours, and the shortest in winter about eleven. At nine in the forenoon the air grows intolerably hot, and could scarce be endured were it not for the sea-breeze already mentioned. Indeed the hot and moist temperament of the air would soon bring on pestilential diseases, that would in a short time turn all to a desert, had not the wise Contriver of all things prepared those friendly gales, the sea and land breezes, to temper the air and render it so refreshing, that none need be afraid of going about their lawful employments.

The nights are sometimes pretty cool, and the dews are so great within land, that in a morning the water drops from the leaves of the trees, as if it had rained ; and a man riding in the night will find his cloaths and hair very wet in a short time. These cold and piercing dews, which happen every night after the pores have been opened by the extraordinary heat of the day, are justly reckoned extremely unwholesome, and new-comers who expose themselves to their influence seldom escape without a severe sickness.

Instead of dividing the year into spring, summer, autumn, and winter, its only divisions are the dry and wet seasons ; nor are these regular, but vary in many parts of the island. Thus about the Blue Mountain valley, and several hilly places, they have more or less rain every day in the year, and plant the sugar-cane at the same

time they are cutting others for use. On the north side the seasons are pretty regular ; they begin to plant in August, and continue till Christmas, all which time they are sure of rain ; after that till the end of March they have none ; but then it begins again, and continues during the months of April and May. Several parts of the island, which were once the choicest and richest spots, and had fine sugar-works, which used annually to produce many hundred hogheads of that valuable commodity, are now only fit for grazing cattle, they being dry for almost nine months in the year. This is ascribed to the cutting down of the woods ; for the trees gathered and retained great quantities of vapours, which were diffused in rain. The months of July, August, and September, are called the hurricane months, because then they have been observed to happen most frequently.

It lightens almost every night, but without much thunder, which when it happens is very terrible ; it roars with astonishing loudness, and the lightning in these violent storms frequently does a great deal of damage. In February or March they expect earthquakes, which have sometimes been as dreadful as any recorded in history ; these we shall hereafter have occasion to mention. Indeed the inhabitants observe several days in the year in a solemn manner on account of storms and earthquakes.

According to the best observations, there is not one-third of the country inhabited ; there are indeed plantations round the island, but none at any great distance from the sea ; and even these are so far from being cultivated, that the greatest part of the ground is not cleared, but is overgrown with wood ; for a gentleman who has a patent for three or four thousand acres, has perhaps five hundred of them well laid out and improved, and the rest is useless : yet the soil is in some places so exceeding fertile, that one acre has been known to yield several hogheads of sugar.

S E C T. V.

Of the Vegetables of Jamaica, with a particular Description of the Sugar Plant, its Culture, and the Manner of making Sugar ; the Pimento Tree, the Cacao or Chocolate Tree, the wild Cinnamon Coffee Tree, and Ginger ; with a concise Account of the Beasts, Birds, Insects, and Fishes.

NO sorts of European grain grow here ; they have only maize, or Indian corn, Guinea corn, pease of various kinds, but none of them resembling ours, with variety of roots. Fruit, as hath been already observed, grow in great plenty, citrons, Seville and China oranges, common and sweet lemons, limes, shadocks, pomegranates, mamees, fourlops, papas, pine-apples, custard-apples, star-apples, prickly pears, allicada pears, melons, pompions, guavas, tamarinds, and several kinds of berries, which are every where to be found in the roads.

The sugar-plant grows in a long stalk, or cane, divided by joints, two, three, four, or five inches asunder, and about six feet high ; the sprouts and leaves at the top rising so as to make it near eight feet in all. The body of the cane seldom exceeds an inch in diameter, the colour of its tops is a pure grass-green ; but the cane itself when ripe, yellowish. It is covered with a thin skin or bark, and is of a white spongy substance full of juice, which the servants and others suck ; and nothing is pleasanter and more nourishing when it is ripe, and taken with moderation. Upon this occasion, they cut the rind, and put the spongy part into the mouth, when the juice will come more freely than the honey out of the comb. This sweetness is extremely agreeable, and far from being surfeiting ; the juice is a little thicker than that of an apple, and without the least ill taste. Of this juice are made sugar, rum, and molasses.

The season for planting sugar-canes is from August to the beginning of December, and they do not arrive to maturity, till they have been a year and a half in the ground. Their manner of growing is in sprouts, three, four, or five from one root. The cane-tops make very good food for horses and black cattle ; but the solid canes are carried to the mill.

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They are planted by digging long trenches in the earth, about six inches deep, and as many broad, laying a double row of canes along in the trench, one by another, then the earth is thrown in, and another trench dug at about two feet distance, till all the land is planted by laying the canes along. Thus they produce the greatest number of sprouts; for this way a branch shoots out of every joint of the cane. The first planters used to thrust a piece of cane perpendicularly into a hole, at certain distances, which yielded no shoot but from the top, and having three or four sprouts whose whole weight depended on one root, when they grew tall and heavy, the storms loosened the roots; but by this new way of planting the root is secured, and the produce increased. They come up soon after they are planted, and in about twelve weeks they grow two feet high.

The next care of the planter is to weed the canes, and to dung them; but this last is done either when they are planted or when they are grown two feet high, and this is the greatest trouble and expence the planter is at; for was it not for this dunging, a third part of the negroes would do his business.

When the canes are ripe they are cut down, stripped of their leaves and tops, bundled up in faggots, and carried to the mill by mules, or in carts drawn by horses. The mills are turned by oxen or horses; and some substantial planters have erected wind-mills: there the juice is pressed out by wooden rollers cased with iron, and at the bottom of the mill is a hollow place which receives the juice, from whence it is conveyed by leaden pipes into a cistern near the boiling-house, where it must not remain above one day, for fear it should grow sour. From thence it is conveyed through a gutter fixed to the walls of the boiling-house to the clarifying-copper, or boiler, and there boiled till all the gross matter rising to the top is skimmed off. It is then carried into a second, and so into a third, fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh; and is continually kept stirring and boiling till it comes to a consistency; and yet all this boiling would only reduce it to a thick clammy substance; but to turn it to grain they pour in some lime-water, on which the sugar begins to rise up with a turbulent and ungovernable fury, occasioned by the fermentation of the liquor from the lime-water and the vehement heat of the fire; when, to prevent its running over, they throw in a small piece of tallow no bigger than a nut, which soon makes it fall. The liquor is at length emptied into a cooler, where it remains till it is fit to be potted. The pots are wide at the top, they taper downwards, and a hole is left for the molasses to drain. In refining the sugar, the first degree of pureness is permitting the molasses to drain away with the top of the pot open, by which means the air hardens the sugar, before it has time to refine by separation. The second degree is procured by covering the pots at the top with clay; the first requires but one month to refine, and the other four.

We shall now describe the principal trees, and shall begin with the pimento, which produces Jamaica pepper, or allspice. It is as thick as a man's thigh, and rises straight above thirty feet, covered with a very smooth skin of a grey colour: it is branched out on every hand, having the end of its twigs set with leaves of several sizes, the largest being four or five inches long, and two or three broad in the middle, whence it decreases in both extremes ending in a point. The ends of the twigs are branched into bunches of flowers, each stalk sustaining a flower bending back, within which bend are many stamens of a pale green colour; these flowers have a branch of crowned berries, the crown being made up of four small leaves, at first greenish; but when ripe is black, smooth, and shining, containing in a moist green aromatic pulp two large seeds separated by a membrane. This tree grows in all the hilly parts of the island; but chiefly on the north side. It flowers in June, July, and August, and the fruit soon ripens. There is no difficulty in curing the pimento, or Jamaica pepper: they climb the trees, and pull the green unripe fruit, which they expose to the sun till it becomes of a brown colour, and is fit for the market. According to Sir Hans Sloane, this is the best, the most temperate, mild, and innocent of all spices.

The body of the cacao, or chocolate-nut tree, is commonly about four inches in diameter, and it is about twelve from the ground to the top of the tree; the chocolate-nuts grow in pods, or long shells, shaped like a cucumber, each having three, four, or five kernels of about the size of chestnuts, separated from each other by a pleasant refreshing white substance, nearly of the consistence of the pulp of a roasted apple, moderately sharp and sweet. A bearing tree generally yields from two to eight pounds of nuts a year. The manner of curing them is to cut them down when ripe, and lay them in a heap to sweat three or four days in the pods; after this the pods are cut, the nuts taken out, put in a trough, and covered with plantain leaves, where they sweat again about sixteen or twenty days. After this they are put to dry three or four weeks in the sun, and then they become of a reddish dark colour. The pods grow only out of the body, or great limbs and boughs, and at the same time there are blossoms, with young and ripe fruit on the same tree.

The wild cinnamon is about twenty or thirty feet high, having many branches and twigs hanging downward, which form a very handsome top. The bark consists of two parts, one outward and another inward; the outward is thin, of a whitish grey colour, and of an aromatic taste: the inward bark is much thicker than cinnamon, paler, and of a much more biting and aromatic taste, something like that of cloves. The leaves shoot out near the ends of the twigs without any order, standing on foot stalks, each of them two inches in length, and one in breadth. They are of a yellowish green colour, and are smooth and shining, without any incisures about their edges. The ends of the twigs are branched into bunches of scarlet or purple flowers, which falling off, are succeeded by clusters of roughish green berries, of the size of a large pea, that contain a pale green thin pulp, and four black shining seeds of an irregular figure. All the parts of this tree, when fresh, are very hot and aromatic; but the inward bark of the tree is what is chiefly in use both in the English plantations in the West Indies and in Europe, and it is easily cured by only cutting off the bark, and letting it dry in the shade. The ordinary sort of people in the West Indies use it instead of all other spices, it being thought very good to consume the immoderate humidity of the stomach, to help digestion, and expel wind. Rum loses its disagreeable smell if mixed with this bark.

Coffee is now much cultivated here: it is a large shrub, with leaves of a dark green; the berries grow in great clusters, and one bush will produce several pounds. The berry is inclosed in a fine scarlet pulp, which is too luscious to be palatable; however, many eat it. When it is ripe it turns black, and then they gather the fruit, separate the berries from the husk, and expose them to the sun till they are well cured and fit for the market.

Here are also the cabbage-tree, the cedar, and the mastic tree, which grow to a great height; the mahogany tree, the cotton tree, the manchineel, and a great number of others. The island likewise abounds in abundance of dyers woods, as fustic, red-wood, logwood, and others.

Among the drugs and medicinal herbs are guaiacum, china root, sarsaparilla, cassia, vanilloes, ginger, &c. Ginger shoots forth blades from its root not unlike those of wheat. The stalk seldom exceeds eighteen inches in height; from its sides grow sharp-pointed leaves about five inches long, the extremity of the stalk ending in a soft pointed spire. When the plant is dug up, the roots are races of ginger, which are scraped clean, and dried in the sun. The usual time of planting this root is in May and June, and of digging it up in February and March.

Among the animals are the land and sea-turtle, and the alligator. Here are all sorts of fowl wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other islands; besides parroquets, pelicans, snipes, teal, Guinea hens, geese, ducks, and turkeys; the humming-bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fish.

With respect to the reptiles and insects, the mountains breed numberless adders and other noxious animals, as the fens and marshes do the guana and galliwasps; but these last are not venomous. Among the insects are the ciron, or chegoe, which eats into the nervous and membranous parts of the flesh of the negroes, and the white people are sometimes plagued with them. They get into the toes and eat the flesh to the very bone. These insects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and shut themselves up in a bag. As soon as ever a person feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle or the point of a penknife, taking care to destroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind.

SECT. VI.

The Food, Dress, Buildings, Learning, Coin, Distempers, Manners, and Customs of the Inhabitants of Jamaica; their Treatment of their Servants, and their Cruelty to their Slaves.

THE common bread here is plantain, yams, and cassava; the first is of an oblong form, grows in clusters on the tree, and when pulled green and roasted eats very deliciously. The yams are a kind of potatoe, but of a much larger size, some of them weighing several pounds. Cassava is the root of a shrub taken and squeezed, the juice being a mortal poison, though when properly prepared it is very wholesome and agreeable food; when dry it is grated and put in water, where it stands a considerable time; the water being poured off, and the flour dried, it is made into cakes, and baked on a griddle over the fire. These cakes are white and crisp, and are preferred by the Creoles to any other bread whatever. These several kinds of food are not peculiar to this island, since they are eaten in most of the other islands and on the continent of North America. They do not want flour, for this they obtain from New England and other of our northern colonies. In every house they have an oven, and bake as they find occasion.

There are such plenty of hogs, that many plantations have several hundreds of them, and their flesh is exceeding sweet and delicate. Their beef, however, is tough and lean; but the mutton and lamb are tolerable; however, the cattle bred on the island are but very few. The sheep have their wool resembling the hair of a goat, and they seem to be of a larger size than ours. They have variety of wild-fowl, as well as common poultry; and the tortoise, or turtle caught on the coast are much admired. They have also salt cod from Newfoundland, and a great deal of salt beef from Ireland and the plantations on the continent, for the servants are seldom allowed fresh provisions.

The common drink for persons in affluent circumstances is Madeira wine mixed with water; while those of inferior rank drink rum punch, which being frequently drank to excess, has obtained the name of kill-devil; for thousands lose their lives by it, especially those who are just come to the island; for they cannot drink it to excess without exposing themselves to imminent danger; as by heating the blood, it brings on fevers, which in a few hours send them to the grave. They have also ale and claret, but they are extravagantly dear.

With respect to dress, the heat renders many cloaths insupportable, and therefore the men generally wear only thread stockings, linen drawers, a vest, a handkerchief tied round the head, and a hat upon it. Wigs are never used but on Sundays, or in court time, and then gentlemen appear very gay in coats of silk, and vests trimmed with silver. The servants wear a coarse linen frock, which buttons at the neck and hands, long trowsers of the same, a checked shirt, and no stockings. The negroes generally go naked, except those who attend gentlemen, who take care to have them dressed in their own livery.

The ladies make as gay an appearance as any-where in Europe; they dress as rich, and appear with as good a

grace. Their morning habit is a loose night-gown, carelessly wrapped about them; before dinner they put off their dishabille, and show themselves in all the advantage of a rich, neat, and becoming dress. The servant-maids have generally a cotton or striped Holland gown, and plain head-cloaths. Many of the negro women in the country go quite naked; for they do not know what shame is, and are surprized at an European's bashfulness; but in the towns they are obliged to wear a kind of petticoat, and some of them are neatly dressed.

The gentlemen's houses are generally built low of one story, and consist of five or six handsome apartments beautifully lined and floored with mahogany; they have generally a piazza, to which is an ascent by several steps, and this serves as a screen against the heat. In the towns are several houses two stories high; but this is disapproved of, because they are seldom known to stand the shock of an earthquake, or the fury of a storm. The negroes have nothing but a parcel of poor miserable huts built with reeds.

There are few gardens that deserve notice; the chief curiosities they produce are English peas, cabbages, some kinds of European fruits, and others peculiar to the climate. The apple tree seldom comes to any perfection, and bears but a very few years; the same may also be said of other fruits that thrive with us: indeed the plants and fruits which flourish there would alone be sufficient to render them more delightful than can be imagined; but they despise the orange, the lemon, the cacao, and pomegranate; and prefer to the fine shade and fragrance of these a number of shrubs that are of no manner of use.

Learning is here at a low ebb: there are indeed a few gentlemen well versed in literature; but the generality seem to have a greater affection for gaming than for useful learning. Indeed those whose fortunes can allow it, frequently send their children to Great Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education; but in general a boy, till he is seven or eight years of age, spends his time with the servants and negroes, acquires their broken way of talking, and their manner of behaviour. He then, perhaps, goes to school; but young master must not be corrected; if he learns it is well, if not it cannot be helped. After learning to read he goes to the dancing-school, commences beau, and then visits and rakes with his equals. Some of the ladies read; they are all fond of dancing, but take little care to improve their minds.

The current coin is entirely Spanish, and English money is seldom seen, except in the cabinets of the curious. There is no place perhaps where silver is so plentiful; they use no copper, and the lowest piece is a ryal, which here passes for seven-pence halfpenny; but a half-penny in Britain will go farther. You cannot dine for less than a piece of eight, and the common rate of boarding is three pounds a week. The difference between their money and British is twenty-five per cent. thus seventy-five pounds sterling make one hundred pounds Jamaica currency.

The common distempers here are high fevers and the belly-ach. The fevers are generally extremely violent, and a few hours will carry off the person afflicted by this disorder. Few miss it on their first arrival, and for this reason many die as soon as they come to Jamaica. The belly-ach, or dry-gripes, is perhaps the severest pain that can be endured; it frequently takes away the use of their limbs, which are never recovered. The common remedies for this disease are gentle doses of physic and clysters. After they are somewhat recovered, the cold bath proves of great use in restoring them to their former vigour. The physicians here generally make fine estates, and Jamaica has had several of them who have made a considerable figure in the learned world.

This island contains three sorts of inhabitants, masters, servants, and slaves. Some of the gentlemen are extremely polite, and use their inferiors with a great deal of good nature. However, most of them have a haughty disposition, and require great submission; but a stranger, who knows how to apply to their humour, generally gets into good business; yet, those who are so unfortunate as to mistake it, may look for business in another place.

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The servants who behave well are respected and encouraged; those who are found honest, and worthy of their trust, sometimes not only dine on the same provisions with their masters, but wear as good cloaths, are allowed a horse when they go abroad, and a negro boy to attend them. But others, who are either stupid or roguish, are hardly used, often put in the stocks, and beat very severely: their salt provisions are weighed out, and they have nothing but what the law obliges the master to give. The servants labour is not very hard, it being much less than that of the day-labourers in Great Britain. Those who have no trade, by which they can be of service to their master, are only employed in looking after the negroes at work, or in overseeing the boiling of the sugar.

The condition of the blacks is indeed much worse, their servitude being perpetual, and they are obliged to toil for the benefit of others without the least advantage to themselves, and the most trivial error is punished with a terrible whipping. "I am inclined to touch the hardships which these poor creatures suffer in the tenderest manner, (says our author, who seems to be a person of judgment and candor) from a particular regard which I owe to many of their masters; but I cannot conceal their sad circumstances entirely. I have seen some of them scourged in the most cruel manner for no other reason, but to satisfy the brutish pleasure of an overseer, who has their punishment mostly at his discretion. I have seen their bodies all in a gore of blood, the skin torn off their backs with a cruel whip, beaten pepper and salt rubbed in the wounds, and a large stick of sealing-wax dropped leisurely on them. It is no wonder if the horrid pain of such inhuman tortures incline them to rebel. At the same time it must be confessed, that they are generally perverse, which is owing to the many disadvantages they lie under, and the bad example they daily see." We could wish that it was possible to disprove this account. There are no doubt many persons of humanity in Jamaica; but when the lash is committed to abandoned wretches insensible to humanity, and who have been transported from England for their crimes, it cannot be wondered at, that wretches like these, when raised to power, should prove savage and inhuman tyrants.

They, however, are not the only persons guilty: the laws themselves are in the extremest degree inhuman, and no country in the world exceeds them in the cruel methods by which they put these unhappy negroes to death. A rebellious black, or he that twice strikes a white man, is condemned to the flames: he is carried to the place of execution, and chained flat on his belly, with his legs and arms extended; then fire is set to his feet, and he is burnt gradually up. Others they starve to death, with a loaf hanging before their mouths. "I have seen these unfortunate wretches, says our author, gnaw the flesh off their shoulders, and expire in all the frightful agonies of one under the most horrid tortures. Perhaps indeed, he adds, such severities may be in some sort excused, when we consider the state of the country, and how impossible it would be to live amidst such numbers of slaves, without watching their conduct with the greatest strictness, and punishing their faults with the utmost severity." *A new History of Jamaica in thirteen Letters to a Friend.*

But surely such inhumanity can be in no case necessary. We cannot here help borrowing the words of the judicious author of a work lately published, entitled, *An Account of the European Settlements*, who, after observing, that, notwithstanding the great care taken to make them propagate, the ill treatment they receive so shortens their lives, that instead of encreasing by the course of nature, many thousands are annually imported to supply the place of those who die by the hardships they receive, then adds, "I know that they are stubborn and untractable for the most part, and that they must be ruled with a rod of iron. I would have them ruled, but not crushed with it. I would have a humanity exercised which is consistent with steadiness. And I think it clear, from the whole course of history, that those nations which have behaved with the greatest humanity to their slaves, were always best served, and ran the least hazard from their

rebellions. And I am the more convinced of the necessity of these indulgencies, as slaves cannot go through so much work as freemen. The mind goes a great way in every thing; and when a man knows that his labour is for himself, and that the more he labours the more he is to acquire, this consciousness carries him through, and supports him beneath the fatigues under which he would have otherwise sunk.

"The principal time I would have reserved for the indulgence I propose to be granted to the slaves is Sunday, a day which is profaned in a manner altogether scandalous in our colonies. On this day I would have them regularly attend at church; I would have them, particularly the children, carefully instructed in the principles of religion and virtue, and especially in the humility, submission, and honesty which become their condition. The rest of the day might be devoted to innocent recreation. To these days of relaxation, and with the same exercises, should be added some days in the grand festivals of Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide; and perhaps four or five days in the year besides. Such methods would by degrees habituate their masters not to think them a sort of beasts, and without souls, as some of them do at present, who treat them accordingly; and the slaves would of course grow more honest, tractable, and less of eye-servants; unless the sanction of religion, the precepts of morality, and all the habits of an early institution, be of no advantage to mankind.

SECT. VII.

The Manners and Customs of the Negroes.

THE owners of these slaves set aside for each a small parcel of ground, and allow them the Sundays to cultivate it: in it they generally plant maize, Guinea corn, plantains, yams, cocoas, potatoes, &c. This is the food which supports them, unless some of them, who are more industrious than others, raise a stock of fowls, which they carry to market on the Sundays, the only market-day in Jamaica, and sell for a little money, with which they purchase salt beef, fish, or pork, to make a dish which they call pepper-pot.

These slaves, on their first arrival from the coast of Guinea, are exposed naked to sale: they are then generally very simple and innocent creatures, but they soon become roguish enough; and when they come to be whipped, excuse their faults by the example of the whites.

Their notions of religion are very inconsistent, and vary according to the different countries from which they come; but they join without distinction in their solemn sacrifices and gambols. They generally believe that there are two gods, a good and a bad one: the good god they tell you lives in the clouds, and is very kind and favourable to mankind; for it was he that taught their fathers to till the ground, and to hunt for their subsistence: while the evil god sends storms, earthquakes, and all kinds of mischief. Hence they love the former, and fear the latter. They have no idea of heaven, farther than the pleasure of returning to their native country, whither they believe every negro goes after death. This thought is so agreeable, that it cheers the poor creatures, and renders the burthen of life easy, which would otherwise be quite intolerable. They look on death as a blessing, and it is surprizing to see with what courage and intrepidity some of them meet it; they are quite transported to think their slavery is near an end, that they shall revisit their happy native shores, and see their old friends and acquaintance. When a negro is about to expire, his fellow-slaves kiss him, wish him a good journey, and send their hearty good wishes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentations; but with a great deal of joy inter his body, firmly believing he is gone home and happy.

When any thing about a plantation is missing, they have a solemn kind of oath, which the eldest negro always administers, and is by them accounted extremely sacred; but this they never take without the express command of their master or overseer. They then range themselves

selves in the spot of ground appropriated for the burying-place of the negroes, and one of them opens a grave, when he who acts the priest takes a little of the earth, and puts it into every one of their mouths, and they imagine that if any has been guilty their belly will swell and occasion their death.

None of them are allowed to touch any arms, unless by their master's command; or to go out of the bounds of the plantation to which they belong, without a special permit signed by their owner or the chief overseer. They are kept in such awe, that they are afraid to let even the least thought of liberty appear; and when they see the whites muster and exercise, they are struck with terror. This indeed is not the case with the Creolian negroes, who all of them speak English, and are so far from fearing a muster, that they are very familiar with it, and can exercise extremely well.

SECT. VIII.

The Divisions and principal Towns of Jamaica, its Government, and Trade; with a particular Account of the Log-wood Cutters in the Bay of Honduras, and the Trade carried on with the Spaniards in America.

THE whole island is divided into nineteen districts, or parishes, each of which sends two members to the assembly, and allows a competent maintenance to a minister. Anciently Port Royal was the capital of the island; it stood upon the very point of a long narrow neck of land, which towards the sea formed part of the border of a very noble harbour of its own name. In this harbour above a thousand sail of the largest ships could anchor with the greatest convenience and safety; and the water was so deep at the quay of Port Royal, that vessels of the greatest burthen could lay their broad-sides to the wharfs, and load and unload at very little expence or trouble. This convenience weighed so much with the inhabitants, that they chose this spot for their capital, though the place was a hot dry sand, that did not produce one of the necessities of life, and not even fresh water. However, this advantageous situation rendered it a considerable place, and it contained two thousand houses very handsomely built, and that were let at as high a rent as those of London. It grew to all this in about thirty years time, and there were few places in the world which for the size could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners.

However, on the ninth of June, 1692, an earthquake, which shook the whole island to its foundations, overwhelmed this city, and buried nine-tenths of it eight fathoms under water. This earthquake not only demolished the city, but made a terrible devastation all over the island, and was followed by a contagious disease which was near giving the finishing hand to its destruction.

The city was rebuilt after the earthquake, but it was again destroyed; for ten years after a terrible fire laid it in ashes: yet the extraordinary convenience of the harbour induced the inhabitants to rebuild it once more. But in 1722 one of the most dreadful hurricanes on record reduced it a third time to a heap of rubbish. Warned by these extraordinary calamities, the custom-house and public offices were removed from thence, and the principal inhabitants settled on the opposite side of the bay at the town of Kingston. Port Royal has, however, three or four handsome streets, several cross lanes, a fine church, an hospital for sick and disabled soldiers, and a yard for the king's naval stores, with conveniences for the workmen employed about his majesty's ships of war. The harbour is guarded by one of the strongest forts in the West Indies, which has a line of near a hundred pieces of cannon, and a garrison of soldiers maintained at the expence of the crown.

Kingston is commodiously seated for fresh water, and all manner of accommodations. The streets are broad, perfectly straight, and cut each other at equal distances and right angles. It is about a mile long, and contains above a thousand houses, many of them handsomely built, though low, with porticos, and every convenience

for a comfortable habitation in that climate. Here the inferior courts sit, and the receiver-general, secretary, and surveyor, are obliged to keep offices. It has one or two churches, the Jews have two synagogues, and the Quakers a meeting-house. The fortifications of the harbour were greatly improved by the late governor Knowles.

Not far from Kingston the river Cobre, a considerable but not navigable stream, falls into the sea; and upon its banks stands St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish Town, the seat of the government, and the place where the courts of justice are held, and consequently the metropolis of Jamaica, though it is inferior in size to Kingston. However, though it has less business, it has more gaiety. Here reside many persons of large fortunes, who make a very splendid figure. It is surprizing to see the number of coaches and chariots perpetually plying, besides those belonging to private persons. Here is a regular assembly, a theatre, in which plays are acted, and it being the residence of the governor, and the principal officers of the government, who have very profitable places, all conspire with the genius of the inhabitants, which inclines them to an ostentatious and expensive way of life, to render it a very splendid and agreeable place.

We shall now proceed to give a summary account of the government of Jamaica. The king of Great Britain, as in all the other royal governments, appoints the governor and council, while the representatives of the people are chosen by the freeholders. The governor is captain-general, admiral, and chancellor of the island; has power to issue out all sorts of commissions; to summon and dissolve assemblies; to make counsellors; to pardon all crimes, except treason or murder, and even for those to grant a reprieve; to place and displace all officers who are not by patent: in a word, to act with sovereign authority under his majesty; and has a negative voice in all acts of the assembly. As he is chancellor, he is empowered to grant administrations and executorships of the estates of persons dying intestate; and this last brings in a considerable profit. His standing salary is two thousand five hundred pounds a year; the assembly vote the governor as much more, and this, with the other great profits of his office, make it in the whole little inferior to ten thousand pounds a year.

The council, who are twelve in number, are generally men of the best estates and quality in the country, and are appointed by letters of mandamus from the king. On the death or dismissal of any of these, the governor nominates others to supply their places. It is their duty to advise and assist the governor, and even to be a check upon him, if he exceeds the bounds of his commission. This body forms the upper house in the assembly, where it has the same power as the house of peers in England.

The grand court, which takes cognizance of all civil pleas, as well as of crimes that merit corporal punishment, sits four times in the year. Their session is limited to twenty-one days, during which they frequently dispatch a great deal of business. The chief justice has six assistants, who are generally men of the greatest knowledge, and of the fairest characters. There are many inferior courts, who decide causes of less than twenty pounds value, and justice is generally impartially distributed, and without delay.

The militia is under the direction of officers appointed by the governor, and all from sixteen to sixty are obliged to enlist.

The revenue of the island is reckoned to amount to seventy thousand pounds, out of which are paid a great number of public officers, who have very large salaries.

The trade of Jamaica principally consists in the following articles: first, sugar, of which they imported in 1753 twenty thousand three hundred and fifteen hogsheads, some so large as to be a ton weight; which cannot be worth less in England than four hundred twenty-four thousand seven hundred and twenty-five pounds sterling, most of which comes to London and Bristol; and some part of it is sent to North America, in return for the corn, peas, beef, pork, cheese, plank, staves, pitch, and tar, which they obtain from thence. The second is rum, of which they export about four thousand puncheons. The third is molasses, in which they make a

great

great part of their returns for New England, where there are great distilleries. These are all the produce of their grand staple the sugar-cane. The fourth is cotton, of which they send out two thousand bags. The fifth are various drugs, as cacao, coffee, a considerable quantity of pimento, ginger, sweetmeats, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, mahogany, and manchaneel plank. Some of the most considerable articles of their trade are with the continent of New Spain and Terra Firma; for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter carry on an extremely profitable trade in negroes, and all the kinds of European goods carried thither from Spain by the flota.

Both the logwood and contraband trade have been the subject of much contention, and even the cause of a war between England and Spain. The cutting of logwood in the bay of Honduras on the southern side of the peninsula of Yucatan has been long claimed as a right by England, and this privilege was confirmed to his Britannic majesty's subjects in the most express terms by the late treaty of peace in 1763.

The logwood cutters are chiefly composed of vagabonds and fugitives from all parts of North America, and their way of life is suitable. They live in a kind of lawless manner, though they elect one among them whom they call their king, and to him pay as much obedience as they think fit. The country is low and extremely marshy; the air molested by musketoes, and the water dangerous with alligators; yet a life of licentiousness, a plenty of rum, large gains, and a want of thought, have reconciled them both to the hardships of their employment and the unwholesomeness of the climate. They go always well armed, and are said to amount to about one thousand five hundred men. This trade in some years employs near six tons of shipping, finds employment for a number of seamen, consumes a great deal of our manufactures, and the value of returns are said to be about sixty thousand pounds sterling a year. This trade is generally carried on by vessels from New England, New York, and Pennsylvania, who take up the goods they want in Jamaica.

There is still a more profitable trade carried on between this island and the Spanish continent, which has also been the cause of much dispute between the courts of England and Spain. A ship from Jamaica having taken in negroes, and a proper sortment of goods there, proceeds in time of peace to a harbour called the Grout, about four miles from Porto Bello. A person who understands Spanish is directly sent ashore to give the merchants of the town notice of the arrival of the vessel; the same news is likewise carried with great speed to Panama, from whence the merchants set out disguised like peasants, carrying jars almost filled with silver; but the top covered with meal, to deceive the officers of the revenue. Here the ship frequently remains trading five or six weeks together. The Spaniards usually come on board, leave their money, and take their negroes, and their goods packed up in parcels fit for one man to carry, after they have been first handsomely entertained on board, and received provisions sufficient for their journey home. If the whole cargo is not disposed of here they bear off eastward to the Brew, a harbour about five miles from Carthagena, where they soon find a vent for the rest. There is no trade more profitable than this; for they are paid in ready money, and the goods sell higher than at any other market. It is not on this coast only but every where upon the Spanish main that this trade is carried on; nor is it by the English only, but the French from Hispaniola, the Dutch from Curassou, and even the Danes have some share in it. However, when the Spanish guarda costas seize upon one of these vessels, they make no scruple of confiscating the cargo, and of treating the crew little better than if they were pirates.

S E C T. IX.

A concise History of Jamaica.

THE island of Jamaica was discovered by Columbus in his second voyage, in the year 1594; his son Diego was the first European governor of the island, and

built the city of St. Jago de la Vega, now Spanish Town. On the first arrival of the Spaniards the Indians appeared in arms, and bravely resolved to maintain their liberties against these bold intruders; and had certainly been successful, at least for a while, had not the Spaniards at length taken the advantage of their simple natures, and deluded them by specious shews of peace and well contrived protestations: but they in a short time felt the dismal effects of giving faith to the Spaniards, who were no sooner in a condition of putting their bloody designs in practice, than they began a horrid massacre, murdered, butchered, and destroyed, in a few years, to the amount of sixty thousand of the natives, and scarce left one alive. Some took refuge in the woods, and retired to the caves and fastnesses, whither they were pursued and hunted by those savage tyrants, and cut to pieces. Before this desolation, Jamaica was one of the best peopled of all the Antilles; but such was the destructive slaughter which the Spaniards made, that the very name of an Indian was in a few years rooted out, and none left to preserve the memory of that once flourishing people.

This island was possessed by the Spaniards till Oliver Cromwell being sensible of the advantages they obtained from their provinces in America, sent a considerable squadron of men of war, commanded by the generals Penn and Venables, in 1654, to take the fine island of Hispaniola. This they attempted, but being repulsed with loss, the principal commanders fearing to return to England without success, wisely resolved to try what could be done against the island of Jamaica, before the inhabitants of that island could receive encouragement by the news of their defeat in Hispaniola.

The fleet and troops soon arriving at Jamaica, they severely punished the officers who had shewn an ill example by their cowardice, and issued orders, that if any man attempted to run away, the next man to him should put him to death; and if he failed to do it, he should be liable to be tried for his life. Fortified with these resolutions, the troops were no sooner landed, than advancing towards the fort, they made themselves masters of it with little loss, and the next morning, when the sun arose, marched towards a savanna near the town, when some Spaniards advancing to meet them, desired to treat. But this Venables refused, unless they would send his men a constant supply of provisions, of which they were in great want. To this the Spaniards consented, and having performed their promise, the following articles were agreed upon: That all the forts, arms, ammunition, and necessaries of war, with all the shipping in the harbours of the island, and all wares, merchandize, &c. should be delivered up for the use of the protector and the commonwealth of England. That all the inhabitants of the island, except some that were particularly named, should have their lives granted. That those who chose it should have leave to stay, and the others be carried to New Spain; or some other of his Catholic majesty's American dominions; together with their apparel, books, and papers. That the commission officers alone should be permitted to wear their rapiers and poniards; and that the artificers and meaner sort of people should be permitted to remain in the island, and enjoy their goods, provided they conformed to the laws that should be established. Thus the whole island was reduced, and the conquest was confirmed to Great Britain by a subsequent treaty. However, many of the Spanish negroes retiring to the mountains, maintained their ground there, and being afterwards joined by several other fugitives from the English plantations, became very formidable; nor could they be subdued, though a body of regular troops were sent over to the assistance of the planters. However, governor Trelawny entering into a treaty with them, it was agreed that they should remain an independent state, and be governed by their own magistrates, on condition of their harbouring no more fugitives. They are said now to live in a very friendly manner with the English, and, in case of an invasion, some imagine they would contribute greatly to the defence of the island; while others suppose that these negroes are not yet to be trusted, and for this reason some of the best lands in the island which lie in their neighbourhood are not cultivated.

After the Restoration the Spaniards ceded Jamaica to the king of England. Some of the troops employed in its reduction had settled there; many of the royalists, who had been uneasy at home, had sought an asylum in this island, and not a few planters from Barbadoes were invited thither by the extraordinary fertility of the soil, and the other advantages which it afforded. The latter taught the former settlers the manner of raising the sugar-cane, and making sugar; for at first they had wholly applied themselves to the raising of cacao, as the Spaniards had done before them. It was very happy for them that they fell into this new practice, for the groves of the cacao trees planted by the Spaniards began to fail, and the new plantations did not answer.

What gave fresh life to this settlement, and at once raised it to a surprizing pitch of opulence, which it has since hardly equalled, was the resort thither of the pirates called the Buccaneers; men who fought with the most desperate bravery, and spent their plunder with the most lavish extravagance, were welcome guests in Jamaica. They often brought three or four hundred thousand pieces of eight at a time, which were immediately squandered in excessive gaming, wine, and women. Thus vast fortunes were made, and the returns of treasure to England were prodigiously great. By this means the inhabitants had raised such funds, that when the source of this wealth was stopped up by the suppression of the pirates, they were enabled to turn their industry into better channels; and they increased so fast, that it was computed there were sixty thousand whites and a hundred and twenty thousand negroes in the island.

But while the inhabitants were filled with the gayest hopes and wallowing in riches, they suffered one of the most violent earthquakes that perhaps was ever felt. Of this we have taken notice in treating of the destruction of Port Royal, in which city two thousand whites and blacks perished. It will be proper here to add, that the houses all over the island were thrown down, and the surviving inhabitants forced to dwell in huts. Two great mountains falling stopped the course of a river, that was dry from that place for a whole day, by which means vast quantities of fish were taken up, to the great relief of the distressed. An high mountain was split, and part of it falling into a level plain, covered several settlements; and almost all the ships and sloops were lost in the harbour: but we have not room to describe the terrors of this dreadful scene. A general sickness soon followed, which also carried off a great number of the inhabitants.

The enemies of Great Britain were not idle spectators of such a dreadful event; the French proposed to make an easy conquest of a ruined island, where poverty, sickness, and every hardship now prevailed; so much was Jamaica changed. They invaded the island with firm hopes of success: but though the inhabitants had so many difficulties to struggle with, they still retained their pristine spirit and native courage; the invaders were repulsed, and only eighteen of them left to carry the news of their defeat. These losses seem not yet to have been sufficiently repaired. It is said that at present the white inhabitants scarcely exceed twenty-five thousand souls, and yet the blacks are computed to amount to near ninety thousand, an amazing disproportion!

S E C T. X.

Of the CARIBBEE ISLANDS.

A concise Description of Anguilla and Barbuda; their Situation, Extent, and Produce.

WE now proceed to such of the Caribbee Islands as are subject to Great Britain. This name seems to have been given to some of these islands before they became subject to the Spaniards; who, to colour over their massacring the inhabitants, pretended that the name of Caribbee signifies cannibals, and that the inhabitants of all these islands were eaters of human flesh: but it does not appear that there ever was a nation either here, or in any part of the American continent, that deserved to

have the odious and horrid name of man-eaters. Eleven of these islands, with the Granadillos, all of which are small, and some of them very inconsiderable, belong to the English; these are Anguilla, Barbuda, St. Christopher's, Nevis, Antego, or Antigua, Montserrat, Dominica, St. Vincent, Barbadoes, Tobago, Granada, and the Granadines, or Granadillos. The first six, with Porto Rico, Guadaloupe, &c. are also termed Leeward Islands; and the last, with Martinico, &c. are named Windward Islands.

We shall begin with Anguilla, or Snake Island, a long and narrow tract winding somewhat in the manner of a snake, whence it received its name. This, which is the most northerly of the Caribbee Islands possessed by the English, is seated in the eighteenth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and is ten leagues in length and three in breadth.

This island is woody, but perfectly level. Its climate is nearly the same with that of Jamaica. It abounds with tame cattle, with which it has been stocked by the Europeans; and also with the opossum, musk-rat, alligator, and other animals common in the same climate. The English settled here in 1650, in a fruitful soil, where they applied themselves to the planting of tobacco, the raising of corn, and the breeding of cattle, for which purpose they brought a stock with them. At present they chiefly subsist by husbandry, and make a little sugar. They are far from being remarkable for their industry, or their numbers; and have been frequently pillaged by the French, who in 1745 made a descent on the island, to the number of a thousand men, when six hundred of them marching up to attack a breast-work, were so well received by the continual fire of a hundred men posted there to defend it, that they were obliged to return with the loss of a hundred and fifty men, besides some of their colours and fire-arms.

Barbuda is seated in the seventeenth degree forty-seven minutes north latitude, and in the sixty-first degree forty-five minutes west longitude, thirty-five miles to the north of Antigua, fifty-three north-east of St. Christopher's, and ninety south-east of Anguilla. It extends twenty miles in length, and twelve in breadth. The land is low and fertile: on the west side it has a good road well sheltered, and clear of rocks; but from the north-west and south-west points two shoals of sand run above two leagues into the sea.

This island produces citrons, oranges, pomegranates, Indian figs, grapes, pine-apples, the sensitive plant, cocoas, cotton, pepper, ginger, cinnamon, cassia, Brasil wood, and ebony; with tobacco, indigo, maize, potatoes, yams, with other roots and drugs.

Here are plenty of cows, sheep, goats, and fowl; the breeding of all which is the chief employment of the inhabitants, who make good profit of selling them to the other islands; the English here living much after the same manner as our farmers, and have no immediate trade with England. Here are likewise serpents of various kinds, some very large and not poisonous, but are of service in destroying rats, toads, and frogs; but the bite of others is incurable, if a remedy be not immediately administered.

This colony was planted as early as any of the Leeward Islands, except St. Christopher's: but was so often disturbed by the Caribbees, that the people were frequently forced to desert their plantations; for there hardly passed a year in which they did not make one or two incursions, and that generally in the night, for they durst not attack them by day; so that the English grew weary of dwelling in a place where they were so much exposed to the fury of the natives; and therefore deserted the island: but the Caribbees diminishing daily in number, and the Europeans in the other islands increasing, the English again possessed themselves of Barbuda: in a few years the inhabitants amounted to five hundred, and they are now increased to about thirteen or fourteen hundred. It is subject to a gentleman of the name of Codrington, who chuses the governor, and enjoys the same prerogatives as the other lords proprietors in America.

S E C T.

S E C T. XI.

S T. CHRISTOPHER'S.

Its Situation, Extent, Air, Soil, and Face of the Country; its Vegetables, and Animals. Its Inhabitants, and the Forts erected for their Defence, with a Description of the Town of Basse Terre.

THE island of St. Christopher, commonly called by our sailors St. Kitt's, lies between the seventeenth degree ten minutes and the seventeenth degree forty minutes north latitude, and the middle of the island is in the sixty-second degree forty minutes west longitude from London, it being about ten miles to the north of Nevis, and fourteen leagues from Antigua. It extends twenty-five miles and a half in length; but its greatest breadth is no more than seven.

The air is exceeding hot; but pleasant, pure, and healthful, and agreeably tempered with cool breezes. The days and nights are almost equal during the whole year, and it would seem to be constant summer were it not for the rainy season and the hurricanes.

In the thick woods, which are plentifully stocked with cabbage-trees, are swarms of monkeys, who venture out in the night to steal potatoes and other provisions. At the top of the Conorrhoe hills, is a plain not three hundred yards wide, ending at the edge of a cavity of a prodigious depth, and about a mile in circumference, containing sulphur, from which rise continual clouds of steam. A furlong to the south-east is a large rocky hill, called Mount-Milery, from a rash man, who attempting to ascend a precipice, fell backwards, and was killed. This is the highest point of land on St. Christopher's, and it is said to rise about a mile and a half perpendicular from the sea. In the sulphureous cavity above-mentioned, are two or three round holes in the earth, vulgarly called the Devil's Coppers. They are two yards asunder, and each about three feet in diameter. The reverend Mr. Smith says, that when he saw them, they boiled fiercer than ever he saw a sugar-copper. On this hill, there is a great quantity of pure brimstone, and on its top is a powder magazine.

St. Christopher's is represented by some writers as one of the most delightful islands in the world. Its mountains, notwithstanding there are dreadful rocks and thick woods between them, rise one above another, and are adorned by rows of trees that wear a perpetual verdure, intermixed with handsome houses covered with shining slate. The soil, which is light and sandy, is not only proper for the cultivation of tobacco, but for that of sugar, cotton, ginger, and fruit of all sorts. It is well supplied with springs, and at the foot of the mountains on the south-west part of the island has some hot ones proper for baths: yet in some places the water is scarce. The valleys and sides of the hills are very fertile; but the mountains are less so; yet for the most part are overgrown with palmeto, cotton-trees, lignum-vitæ and other trees. There are no trees in the island like ours, except such as originally come from hence. The soil abounds with maize, pine apples, prickly pears, with two sorts of pepper; one that grows in a little red husk about four inches in length, and the other in small pods. Here are also mastic and locust trees, bana, musk-melons, water-melons, the papa, the manchaneel-tree, and many others. It principally abounds with sugar-canes, and is supposed to produce about ten thousand hogheads of sugar one year with another, with a considerable quantity of rum. The island also affords a great deal of salt, which is produced in a salt lake, supposed to contain about eighty acres, where the sun exhaling the water during the hot weather, leaves a crust of salt at the bottom that exactly resembles rock-crystal.

The animals are generally the same as those in the other Caribbee islands; but the most remarkable of its beasts is the rocket, a kind of lizard, whose skin resembles a withered leaf, with yellow or blue spots. It has sparkling eyes, always holds up its head, and is in perpetual motion. Its tail turns up towards its back in a circle and a half, and when pursued it puts out its tongue.

The most noted of the birds, besides those common to the Caribbees, are the orinoca eagle and the crow-fowl. The feathers of the former are a light grey, curiously diversified with black spots, and the ends of the wings and tail are yellow. It attacks only such birds as have crooked beaks and sharp talons like itself, and always seizes them flying.

The crow-fowl, which is as big as a large duck, is ash-coloured, has a great head, small eyes, and a short neck, under which is a craw that will hold two gallons of water. It lives upon fish, which it watches from trees on the shore, and sometimes dives in for them above a fathom under water. It is so intent on its prey that it is easily shot; but is not fit for food.

Their other birds are a few swans, a small kind of screech-owls, mountain-thrushes, noddies, spoon-bills, pelicans, boobies, and common pigeons, besides two or three wild forts, ground-doves, humming-birds, and some bats.

Tho' no bees are hived, either here or in the island of Nevis, yet there is a great deal of honey produced by the wild-bees; but it will not make mead, on account of the warmth of the climate.

The inhabitants are computed to amount to about eight thousand whites and eighteen thousand negroes. When it was inhabited by the French, they dwelt nearer together than the English, who live scattered up and down the country for the convenience of planting; but have as fine houses as any in America, they being of cedar, adorned with walks and groves of orange and lemon-trees.

The fortifications of the island are a fort erected on Brimstone-hill, said to be impregnable, and planted with forty-nine pieces of cannon. Charles-fort, which is furnished with forty pieces of ordnance, and a sufficient quantity of stores; and Londonderry-fort, on the east-side of Basse-Terre. There are also six batteries raised at so many landing-places, mounted with forty-three cannon in all.

The island is divided into the parishes of St. John, Christ-church, and St. Mary on the north; St. Anne, St. Thomas, and Trinity, on the south-sides; and in each is a handsome church, wainscotted and furnished with pews, which, as well as the pulpit, are of ebony, cedar, red wood, brazil, and other precious sorts of wood, of a beautiful colour, and fragrant scent.

Basse-Terre, the capital of the island, is a fine town built by the French, under the cannon of their fort. The houses are of good brick, free-stone, and timber; and among other buildings, are a town-house, an hospital, and a large church. They erected their castle on the east side of a high mountain, shaded with lofty ever-green trees, about a mile and a half from the sea. This castle is built of brick and free-stone, has very noble halls and apartments, wainscotted with cedar, and a fine prospect of delightful plantations of the sugar-cane and ginger, with a long walk of lemons and orange-trees, leading to a large court before it. This castle, which was defended by five sconces, mounted with cannon, has a chapel on one side, and on the other great stone cisterns, into which water is brought by pipes under ground. Between the place and the mountains, is a large and beautiful garden, that produces the most delightful flowers and plants of Europe and America, and is adorned with a fountain.

The island has a militia consisting of one regiment of foot, a troop of horse, and another of dragoons, amounting in the whole to about one thousand three hundred and forty men.

S E C T. XII.

Of the Settlement and Revolutions that have happened in the Island of St. Christopher

ST. Christopher's was discovered by Christopher Columbus in his first voyage to America, who gave it this name from the figure of its mountains, there being in the upper part of this island a very high mountain, bearing on its summit another of a smaller size, as St. Christopher

topher is painted like a giant carrying our Saviour on his back. Sir Thomas Warner, an English adventurer, and M. Desnambuc, a French gentleman, who commanded for the French in America, arrived at St. Christopher's on the same day, and both took possession of the island in the names of their respective masters. This happened about the year 1623. It was then inhabited by the Caribbees, and the Spaniards used to put in there in their West-India voyages, to take in fresh water, they being on such good terms with the Caribbees, that they sometimes left their sick on shore, of whom the natives took great care.

The above gentlemen leaving some of their men on the island, returned to their respective countries for recruits, when their masters approving of their conduct, sent them back in 1626 with supplies of men and provisions, and with commissions to the governors of the new settlements. M. Desnambuc arrived there about the month of January, 1627, with about three hundred people, after a long and sickly voyage. Sir Thomas had as many men, and had proceeded a good way in his settlement before the arrival of the French. The two governors, therefore, to prevent any disputes about the business of their respective territories, set boundaries to their several divisions, with this particular regulation, that hunting and fishing should be equally free to the inhabitants of both nations; that the salt-ponds and most valuable timber should be in common, together with the mines and havens; they even concluded an offensive and defensive league against all their enemies, after which they proceeded with great harmony.

The English, however, receiving supplies of men and provisions from London, throve better than the French; and not only became strong enough to keep what they had, but to spare men for settling plantations at Nevis, of which Sir Thomas Warner took possession, and left a settlement there in 1628.

The Spaniards being in the mean time alarmed at the progress of the English and the French, in the Caribbee-islands, thought the safety of their own plantations required their preventing those nations settling in their neighbourhood, and therefore, the next year, sent Frederic de Toledo with twenty-four ships and fifteen frigates to dispossess the English and French of St. Christopher's. Don Frederic seized some English ships near the isle of Nevis, and then anchored under the cannon of a fort called Basse-Terre, commanded by M. Rossey. Neither the French nor English forts were then in a condition to oppose such an enemy. Rossey, after a small opposition, abandoned Basse-Terre, and retired to Cabes-Terre, another fort commanded by M. Desnambuc in person; but neither could prevail on their men to defend themselves there, nor to retire to the mountains, where they might have been able to oppose a great army; and nothing could satisfy them but embarking and leaving the place, and with this Mr. Desnambuc was obliged to comply. In the mean time the English, being in great consternation at hearing the news of Desnambuc's retiring with his colony, some endeavoured to escape by sea, others fled to the mountains, and all who were left, sent deputies to treat with the Spaniards. Don Frederic, who had them now in his power, commanded all on the island instantly to depart, on pain of being put to the sword; and to hasten their going, sent them the English ships he had taken at Nevis; but these ships not having room for all the people, with their families, he consented that those who could not embark, should stay till they could be removed. Don Frederic now weighed anchor, taking with him six hundred of the English who were fittest for his service. But he was no sooner gone than the English who were left, resolved to go on with the settlement; when the French, who had gone no farther than to Antigua and Montserrat, sending a ship for intelligence to St. Christopher's, and being informed that the Spaniards were gone, and the English busy in rebuilding and planting, rejoiced at this happy and unexpected turn, and sailing back to St. Christopher's, resumed the possession of their former habitations.

The English now continued carrying on their colony, and increased so fast, that in 1632, they spared more men for new settlements at Barbuda, Montserrat, and

Antigua, and at the same time had good houses at St. Christopher's, with wives and families; but few of the French married, or took much pains about furnishing themselves with many of the accommodations of life. M. Desnambuc died about the year 1637, and an American company, which he had caused to be set up in France, continued only till the year 1661, when their share of this and the other islands was sold to the knights of Malta, of whom in 1664, they were bought by the West-India company. Sir Thomas Warner did not long survive the French governor; but, before his death, the colony was greatly increased.

About the time of the Revolution, animosities arose between the two nations, and were carried to a great height. The French, even before war was declared either in England or France, entered the English pale, and destroying all before them with fire and sword, forced the inhabitants to fly to their forts for safety, which, however, for want of timely succours, they were obliged to surrender, together with their part of the island, on the 29th of July 1689, and could obtain no better terms than being removed to Nevis.

The French, however, had not been above eight months sole masters of the island, when a most dreadful earthquake destroyed their possessions; the earth in many places opened nine feet, destroyed their sugar-mills and houses, overturned their Jesuits college, and all the other stone-buildings. The next year the English, under colonel Codrington and Sir Timothy Thornhill, recovered the island, and remained sole masters of it, after having removed one thousand eight hundred French-men, with their families, to Hispaniola; and tho' the French were restored to their part of the island by the treaty of Ryswick, yet in 1702, upon the breaking out of Queen Anne's war, Codrington again attacked the French settlements, and drove every man out of the island; and the country being yielded to the crown of Great-Britain, by the peace of Utrecht, all the French territory was sold for the benefit of the public, which must have produced a very large sum, since eighty thousand pounds of the money was in bank till the year 1733, when it was appropriated by parliament for the marriage portion of the princess Anne to the prince of Orange.

SECT. XIII.

Of the Isle of NEVIS.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, and Plants; with a Description of the Diddledoo Trees. Of the Cattle, and wild Animals, is described the Land-Pike, the Soldier-Snail, the Fly-Catcher, the Land-Crab, and others.

THE island of Nevis is three or four miles south-east of the south-east point of St. Christopher's, whence they are full in sight of each other; and from hence may be distinctly perceived, in a clear day, the islands of Eustachia, Saba, St. Bartholomew, Antigua, Guadeloupe, Montserrat, and Redondo. It is only six leagues in circumference, and has a high mountain in the middle of it, said to be exactly a mile and a half perpendicular, and is covered with plantations and trees.

The climate is said by some to be even hotter than that of Barbadoes, though the latter is much nearer to the line. Fevers are very rife here, especially in October, when the trade winds veer from the east to the north.

The land is very fertile; English beans blossom in the mountain plantations, but never pod; yet samphire, cucumbers, common lettuces, kidney-beans, cellery, and nasturtiums, &c. are excellent. Among the trees is one called the diddledoo, resembling a codling tree; but with narrow thin leaves. It bears a lovely blossom of the finest yellow and scarlet colours, and is esteemed a sovereign remedy against the green-sickness.

Though the vallies are fruitful, the rising ground is stony, and the plantations grow worse in proportion as they rise towards the summit of the mountain. The produce of this is much the same as in the other Caribbee islands: they have oranges, limes, and lemons; but sugar, which is the staple commodity, answers all the purposes

purposes of money, and all the trade of the island is managed by it. Their sugar is for the most part muscovado; tobacco, cotton, and ginger, were formerly much cultivated; but all these have been neglected to make way for the sugar-cane, which produces such plenty of sugar, that fifty or sixty ships have been laden with it, in this small island, within a year for Europe.

As no hay is made here, their saddle-horses are fed with grass weeded out from among the sugar-canes, as also with the green blades of Indian corn, Guinea corn, and New England oats; but their mill-horses, asses, and mules, are generally fed in pastures, except during the sugar harvest, when they live on the sugar-cane tops and the skimmings of the sugar coppers. The sheep of this island have neither horns nor wool; but are hairy and smooth skinned, and have generally small red or black spots like those of a fine spaniel. They breed twice a year, if not oftener, and have generally two, three, or four lambs at a time, and even suckle them all. The rams are of a pale red, with a thick row of long, straight, red hair hanging down from the lower jaw to the breast, as far as the fore-legs. Their swine, which feed upon Indian corn, Spanish potatoes, and the juice of the sugar-cane, are exceeding sweet, white, and fat. They have rabbits, and some black cattle; but their salt beef, hams, pickled salmon, sturgeon, and oysters, are brought to them from Europe and the northern colonies. The fowls and the turkeys, which are fed with the same diet as the swine, are excellent food. Some of these, together with the geese and ducks, are brought from the northern colonies, but they have plenty of Mulcovy ducks of their own breeding. The ground-doves are here about the size of a lark, of a chocolate colour spotted with dark blue: their heads resemble those of a robin-red-breast, and their eyes and legs are of a fine red.

Here are several sorts of lizards, some of which are so large as to be five feet from the head to the tail, which is of the same length.

The land-pike is so called from its resembling the fish of that name; but instead of fins it has four feet, which are so weak that it crawls slowly along, and winds its body like a pike fresh taken out of the water. It is about sixteen inches in length; its skin is of a silver grey, covered with little shining scales. In the night they make a noise under the rocks more hideous than the croaking of frogs and toads. They are seldom seen but in the evening, and have been frequently sold upon pretence of their being salamanders.

One of the most extraordinary animals is a kind of snail called the soldier, because having no shell of its own, it creeps into the shells that are drove to the shore, in which it accommodates itself like a soldier, who takes up his quarters in other people's houses. As it grows bigger it gets into larger shells, which it finds empty, and appears of several forms and figures, according to the diversity of the shells of which it takes possession. For its defence it has something resembling the claw of a large crab-fish, with which it closes the entrance of the shell, and thus secures its whole body, all of which, except the head and claw, is very tender. This claw is jagged within, and takes such firm hold of whatever it fastens on, that it takes away the piece. This creature marches faster than the common snail, and does not mark its track with any slime. When put near the fire it forsakes its quarters; and if its shell be presented to it to enter it again, it goes in backward. M. Rochefort says, that when there are many of these met together in order to change their quarters, if they find a shell which several would be glad of, they contend for it with great eagerness, and an obstinate engagement ensues, in which they grapple with one another, till the weaker being forced to submit, the victor takes possession of the shell in dispute, and peaceably enjoys it in right of conquest.

Here is a pretty little flying insect, with four legs, and of various beautiful colours, called a fly-catcher; for it comes into rooms, and presently clears it of all the flies and other vermin. It also lies down on planks, waiting for the flies, and puts its head into different postures on its seeing them shift their places. It frequently stands with its mouth half open, and when it sees an advantage leaps directly on its prey, which it seldom misses; and is so

tame, that it will come on the table when people are eating, and catch the flies that crawl on their hands or cloaths.

There are here land-crabs much smaller than our sea-crabs; these make little burrows like rabbits in the woods high up the mountains; but come down every year to the sea to wash and shed their shells, and then are easily caught at night by torch-light. Their claws are long and slender, which enables them to travel pretty fast. The only venomous creatures here are centipedes and scorpions.

Here are different sorts of shell-fish, and in the ponds near the sea are crabs of a beautiful sky blue, with a brownish yellow shade all round the edges. They are much less than our European ones, but finer shaped both in the body and claws; yet the fine colours of their shells vanish with the life of the creature.

S E C T. XIV.

Of the Inhabitants of Nevis; its principal Towns; the Negroes, and the Laws made against them. The Government of the Island; the Value of Money, and the Revenue of the Clergy.

THOSE of the inhabitants that are descended from the Europeans are computed at about three thousand, and the negroes at three times that number, of whom at least four thousand are employed in the sugar trade. The militia is computed at about three hundred men, but there is only one fort in the island, which is mounted with nineteen guns.

Though much shipping comes to the island it has not one good harbour, nor any tolerable anchoring except on the south-west side, where are several rocks and shoals, between which ships ride in safety; but in case of an hurricane they put out to sea, and if possible run into Antego.

The only town in the island is Charles Town, which has large houses and shops well stored, and is defended by a fort. The market is kept here every Sunday, from the rising of the sun to nine o'clock in the morning. Mr. Smith says, the gentlemen both of this island and St. Christopher's purchase iron-wood and lignum-vitæ from the islands of Santa Cruz, St. Bartholomew's, Desada, &c. to serve as posts to the sugar-houses, mills, &c.

The negroes are here generally fed with salt herrings, maize, and Spanish potatoes. Some of them are fond of eating grasshoppers, as others are of cane-rats, which they wrap up in banana leaves, and bake in wood embers. During sugar harvest they work almost incessantly night and day, and on Sundays bring to the market Indian corn, yams, and garden-stuff of all sorts. The laws are here no less severe with respect to the negroes than in other parts of the West Indies, they being scarce considered as men. Hence a negro cannot be evidence against a white man. If he strikes one, the law condemns him to lose the hand he strikes with; and if he should happen to draw blood, he must die. If a white man happens to kill a black he is not tried for his life, but the law obliges him to pay thirty pounds Nevis money to his master for the loss of his slave.

There are here three public annual fasts, namely, in the first weeks of July, August, and September, to beg that God would preserve them from the hurricanes that too often come in those months; and if they escape, they have a public thanksgiving in October.

The government of Nevis is by a governor, council, and assembly, who can make any law that will last twelve months; but not longer, unless it be confirmed by the king.

This island, with St. Christopher's, Antigua, and Montserrat, are under one governor, who has the title of captain-general and governor in chief of all the Caribbee Islands, from Guadaloupe to Porto Rico. His post is worth about three thousand five hundred pounds a year. Under him each island has its particular deputy-governor, who has a salary of two hundred pounds a year, and a separate independent legislature, consisting of a council and an assembly of the representatives.

The salaries of the clergy amount to sixteen thousand pounds weight of muscovado sugar each; the fees for a funeral sermon are three pound, or five hundred pounds weight of sugar; and for every christening, marriage, and burial twelve shillings and six-pence.

This is the observation of the Rev. Mr. Smith, rector of St. John's parish in this island; but he observes, that an English shilling goes here for one shilling and six-pence; and that the French, Spanish, and Portuguese coin bear near the same proportion. He adds, that the king gives twenty pounds out of the Exchequer to every clergyman sent hither by the bishop of London to vacant parishes, to defray the charges of the voyage.

S E C T. XV.

A History of the Island of Nevis.

THE first colony was settled here in 1628 by Sir Thomas Warner, who also planted St. Christopher's. At first there hardly passed a year in which the Caribbeans did not make one or two incursions generally by night; so that the colony was several times obliged to quit the island; but, notwithstanding this, it throve at length to such a degree, that in twenty years they consisted of between three and four thousand men, who lived by the trade they carried on in sugar; and about the year 1688 it was so improved, that it was supposed to contain ten thousand whites, of whom near two thousand were fit to bear arms, besides twenty thousand negroes; but the next year half of the men were cut off by a dreadful mortality, and on the sixth of April, 1690, was a violent earthquake, which instantly levelled with the ground all the houses in Charles Town built either with brick or stone: in several places the earth clove about a foot asunder, and hot stinking water spouted out of it to a great height. The sea left its usual bounds several times for above one-third of a mile. The earth was in many places thrown up in great quantities, and thousands of large trees buried. Some spacious cisterns, of which almost every house had one for saving rain-water, threw it out by the violence of the earthquake eight or ten feet high; and so strong was the agitation of the sea at the same time, that sloops felt it between St. Lucia and Martinico: others passing by the island of Redondo, fifteen miles north-west of Montserrat, found the earthquake so violent there, that great part of it tumbled into the sea, with a noise as loud as that of the discharge of cannon, accompanied with a great cloud of dust ascending into the air.

In 1706 the French under M. D'Ibberville made a descent both on this island and St. Christopher's, and having prevailed on the negroes to lay down their arms by giving them hopes of being set at liberty, they marched to attack the English, who being overpowered by numbers fled to the mountains, where they capitulated, and consented to remain in the island as prisoners of war, till a like number of French prisoners were released by way of exchange elsewhere. In the mean time they were to be used civilly, and their houses and sugar-works preserved; but the French, with the usual regard to the faith of their agreements, treated them very ill, burnt their houses and sugar-works, and forced several of them to sign an agreement, promising in six months time to send a certain number of negroes to Martinico, or money instead of them. After this they left the island, tempting three or four thousand negroes to go off with them, on the promise of an easy life in the French islands; but actually carried them to the Spanish West Indies, where they sold them to work in the mines. One of these negroes happening to escape when they got ashore, found means to inform his countrymen, who were left behind at Nevis, how basely the French had used them; upon which they took arms, fell on the French who were left in the island to see the capitulation performed, and cut them to pieces.

The agents at London, both for this island and St. Christopher's, now applied to the lords of trade to have a consideration for their losses, which they represented as amounting to several hundred thousand pounds; and in order to this the commissioners sent one of their clerks

to the Leeward Islands, to take an exact account of what damage had been sustained by this invasion. Both colonies also sending an address on this subject to queen Anne, it was referred to the house of commons, who granted the sufferers a hundred and three thousand two hundred and three pounds to enable them to settle there again. In the mean time the people of the island met with an enemy even more terrible and destructive; for in the year 1707 they were reduced to the greatest distress by a hurricane, which threw down their houses, tore up the trees and plants by their roots, and almost entirely destroyed their sugar-works.

This colony has not yet recovered from these calamities; and it will perhaps be many years before it will be so populous and flourishing as it was sixty years after its first establishment.

S E C T. XVI.

Of ANTIGUA, or ANTEGO.

Its Situation, Extent, Harbours, Climate, Soil, Produce, Parishes, Towns, and History.

THE island of Antigua is seated in the seventeenth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in about the sixty-first degree forty minutes west longitude, to the east of Nevis and St. Christopher's, and is somewhat of a circular form, about six leagues from east to west, the same distance from north to south, and about sixty miles in circumference. It is more famous for good harbours than all the other English islands in these seas; yet is so encompassed with rocks, that it is in many parts of dangerous access, especially to such masters of ships as are not well acquainted with the passages between these rocks. The principal harbours are Willoughby-bay, near two leagues to the south-east of Green Island; Nonsuch harbour, a spacious bay at the east end of the island; Five Island harbour, on the west side of the island, so called from five little islands that lie to the west of it; St. John's harbour, due north from the former, and about two miles from it by land, is a kind of double harbour, which is really the best in the island, yet a sandy bar runs across the mouth of it, the deepest part of which is at the south-west end. This harbour is defended not only by a fort at the mouth of St. John's river, mounted with fourteen guns, but by seven other batteries raised for the defence of so many landing-places. Falmouth harbour is defended by Fort Charles and Monkhill fort. Here are also English harbour and Carlisle harbour.

The climate is here hotter than that of Barbadoes, and very subject to hurricanes. The soil is sandy, and much of it overgrown with wood: the island has also but few springs, and not so much as a single brook, so that its chief dependance for fresh water is what falls from the clouds, and therefore the inhabitants are sometimes distressed for want of it: yet, notwithstanding all these inconveniences, it is a thriving and very considerable plantation. It produces much the same commodities as the other Caribbee Islands, particularly sugar and tobacco. Their sugar was, however, at first so black and coarse, that being rejected by our sugar-bakers, it was generally shipped off for Holland and Hamburgh, where it fetched only sixteen shillings per hundred, at a time when other muscovado sugar fetched eighteen or nineteen shillings: but the planters have since so far improved their art, that as good muscovado sugar is made here as in any of the sugar islands, and they have also learned the art of clay-ing it.

This island contains about seventy thousand acres, and produces, one year with another, sixteen thousand hog-heads of sugar. They plant but little tobacco; but what they do plant is better than what it was formerly.

The island has more venison than any other of the Caribbee Islands, and has a considerable number of black cattle and fowl, with most of the animals common to the other islands.

The island is divided into five parishes, and has the following small towns; namely, on the north-west part is St. John's town, the capital, which is one of the most regular towns in the West Indies, and has the most commodious

modious harbour of any of the Leeward Islands; but consists of only two or three hundred houses. On the south side are Falmouth, Parham, and Bridge town; and in the center of the island is St. Peter's. The people here are computed at about seven thousand whites, and thirty thousand blacks.

This island is said to have been first discovered by the English in the time of Sir Thomas Warner, already mentioned, and that some English families settled upon it in 1636; but the first grant of this island from the crown appears to have been made by king Charles II. about the year 1663, to William lord Willoughby, of Parham, who planted a colony there about the year 1666; he was made governor of the Caribbee Islands, and lost his life the same year in a hurricane near Martinico. But it does not appear that Antego made any considerable figure among the Leeward Islands till the year 1680, and it seems that its improvement since has been chiefly owing to the care of colonel Christopher Codrington, the deputy-governor of Barbadoes, who removed hither; and after planting a good part of it, made this island the seat of his government, when he was captain-general of all the Leeward Islands. This rendered Antego populous, rich, and flourishing.

In 1681 the inhabitants suffered greatly by a terrible hurricane, and also by another in 1689, when most of the houses, sugar-works, and wind-mills were thrown down. The Indians in the neighbouring islands, in league with the French, came hither in their periaguas, and landed more than once in general Codrington's time; but after killing a few of the inhabitants, who lived near the sea, always retired. This colony, in return for these visits from the friends of the French, sent three hundred men to Marigalante, drove the French inhabitants into the woods, burnt their town, nailed up their guns, demolished their fort, and brought away the plunder they had obtained. This island had afterwards frequent quarrels with the governors, and at length, in October 1736, a general stop was put to all business, occasioned by the discovery of a plot by which the negroes intended to murder all the white inhabitants. It was to have been put in execution on the eleventh of that month, the anniversary of his late majesty's coronation, when the governor usually treats the gentlemen and ladies of the whole island with a ball, which happening then to be postponed to the thirtieth, on account of the death of the governor's son at St. Christopher's, proved the preservation of their lives. The chief negroes in the plot were three persons named Court, Tomboy, and Hercules, who belonged to three different planters. The first of them was to have been king, and the other two his generals. During the intended ball gun-powder was to have been conveyed into the cellar in order to blow up the house. At the same time Court and his two generals were to head a party of four hundred men each, one from the east end of St. John's Town, and the two others from Otter's and Morgan's pastures, all armed with cutlasses, to fall on all the white people, women and children, in the town, at the same time that the house blew up, which was to have been a general signal to other parts of the island, to be conveyed throughout the whole by fires lighted up on certain eminences. The negroes of the several plantations were then to rise and destroy all the whites in their respective districts, and to make themselves masters of the whole island. But the three negroes above-mentioned being suspected, on account of their former crimes, were taken up, and evidence being daily brought against them, were convicted on the nineteenth of October; and on the next day Court and his two generals were carried to the place of execution. Court being stretched out on a wheel, after being exposed an hour and a quarter in that situation to the sun, begged leave to plead, and confessing every thing that had been alledged against him, he, with his two generals and two others, were all broke on the wheel. Four more of the principal conspirators were burnt the same day, as were seven on the next; six were hung alive in chains on gibbets and starved to death, one of whom lived eight days and nine nights without sustenance; after which their heads were cut off, fixed on poles, and their bodies burnt. Fifty-eight others were at several times chained to stakes and burnt alive.

S E C T. XVII.

Of MONTSERRAT.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a Description of the Musk-Herb, and the Tree called Iron-Wood; with a concise History of the Island.

THE island of Montserrat was discovered by Columbus in 1493, who gave it this name, from its resembling a mountain so called near Barcelona. It lies twenty-five miles almost south-south-east from Nevis, forty north-west from Guadaloupe, twenty west-south-west from Antigua, and two hundred and forty from Barbadoes. It is somewhat of an oval form, about nine miles in length, the same in breadth, and about eighteen miles in compass.

Its mountains are covered with cedars, cypress trees, acomas, and the musk-herb, which grows like brambles without thorns, and bears yellow flowers that afterwards turn to pods full of seeds that have the smell of musk.

In the mountains is also the tree termed iron-wood, which does not exceed thirty feet in height, and the trunk is, in proportion, somewhat slender. It is covered with a whitish bark, but that upon the upper branches is of a reddish grey. The leaves, which are smooth, and of a yellowish green, are two inches and a half long, and above an inch broad. The flowers are many and white; these rise in groupes upon one common pedicle, and are succeeded by small berries half an inch long, whose outward tegument, as well as the inward pulp, is of the finest red, interspersed with small seeds. This tree has the name of iron-wood from its hardness, its great weight, and the closeness of its grain. It is so heavy, that it will sink in water; it is proof against all weathers, and, in several ages, scarce suffers any decay.

The valleys of this island are well watered and fruitful: climate and soil are much the same with those of the other islands, as are also its animals and trade. Its chief produce is indigo, great quantities of which used to be exported to Great Britain. The inhabitants likewise make some sugar, which is said not to be so fine as that of Jamaica and Barbadoes.

This is, in short, a well planted island, pretty much frequented by ships, though it is surrounded with rocks, and has no place that can be properly called a haven; so that on the approach of a hurricane such ships that happen to be on the coast are obliged to put to sea, and with all possible expedition to sail to St. Christopher's or Antigua.

No settlement was made upon this island till the year 1632, when Sir Thomas Warner, the first governor of St. Christopher's, settled a small colony here. It at first flourished more than Antigua; but the latter island has since got the start of it. It is computed that it has at present about four thousand whites and one thousand two hundred negroes. They have two parish-churches lined with cedar, whose pulpits and pews are also of that and other sweet-scented kinds of wood.

In 1668, when the French had taken Antego, they attacked this island with a considerable force under M. de la Barre, and after much loss took it, together with sixteen cannon, a great number of negroes and cattle, and took the governor, with above three hundred English, prisoners of war. The English had made such a gallant defence, and killed such a number of brave French officers, that the conquerors were so exasperated, that instead of admiring and esteeming them for their courage, they meanly set fire to every thing, except what belonged to the Irish, who were the first that submitted; so that above forty sugar-houses, and several ware-houses filled with rich merchandize, were destroyed. M. de la Barre left five hundred Irish, who took the oaths to the conqueror, and with their families made up above two thousand souls; and then carried his prisoners and booty to St. Christopher's. This island was however afterwards restored to the English.

In the late queen Anne's war, three thousand five hundred French, under M. Cossart, landed at Car's bay upon this island, and soon made themselves masters of it, except Dodon fort on an inaccessible hill, to which the inhabitants

habitants fled with their best effects; but the French, after having spent ten days in plundering the island at pleasure, returned to Guadaloupe.

The affairs of this island afford nothing remarkable after this, except a dreadful hurricane which happened in 1733, and blew down three fifths of the houses in the island. A cattle mill-house, which weighed at least twenty thousand pounds, was carried some distance from its situation, and broke into ten thousand shivers by the force of the fall; and a large copper that would hold two hundred and forty gallons was carried over a high wall, and the sides jammed close together by the force of the fall; but the greatest loss was the destruction of the sugar-canes, and the whole damage, exclusive of the shipping, was computed at no less than fifty thousand pounds of their currency.

SECT. XVIII.

Of DOMINICA, ST. LUCIA, and ST. VINCENT.

Their Situation, Extent, Soil, Produce, and History.

DOMINICA, which owes its name to its being discovered by Columbus on a Sunday, is the last of those called the Leeward Caribbee islands, according to our maps; but the Spaniards consider it as the most northerly of the Windward islands. It is seated in the fifteenth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the sixty-first degree twenty-four minutes west longitude, about half the way between Guadaloupe and Martinico, and fifteen leagues from each. This island extends about thirteen leagues in length from the north-west to the south-east, and near as much over in its broadest part.

Dominica is divided into the Caves-Terra and Basse-Terra; that is, into the high and low-land part. The soil is good, and the sides of the hills bear the finest trees in the world; and, according to some authors, it is one of the best of the Caribbee islands, on account of its fruitful vallies, large plains, and fine rivulets. It is watered by several rivers abounding with fish, and produces mandioca, cassava, bananas, and the finest figs. It has also potatoes and ignamas, with a great deal of millet and cotton.

Here are great numbers of ringdoves, partridges, and ortolans. The inhabitants breed hogs and poultry; of the former are two sorts of wild ones descended from such as were first brought from France and Spain.

The Caribbeans retiring hither for the most part on their being driven out of the other islands by the Europeans, are therefore most numerous here. The French having frequented the island more than the English, are said to be best beloved by the natives. The French always opposed the attempts of the English to settle here, because it would enable them in time of war to cut off the communication between Martinico and Guadaloupe: the English, however, frequently made use of it to wood and water. But this island was, however, ceded to the king of Great Britain, in express terms, by the late treaty of peace.

The island of St. Lucia received its name from its being discovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr St. Lucia. It is situated in the thirteenth degree forty-five minutes north latitude, and in the sixty-first degree west longitude, lying about six leagues south of Martinico, and north from St. Vincent, and is twenty-one miles to the north-west of Barbadoes, which, it is said, may be seen from thence in a clear day. St. Lucia is twenty-three miles in length, and twelve in breadth. It has several hills, at the foot of which are fine pleasant valleys, which contain good land, well watered with rivers. In these valleys are tall trees that afford excellent timber.

The air is esteemed salubrious, the hills being not so high as to intercept the trade-winds, which always fan it to the east, and by these the heat of the climate is mitigated. It has also several good bays and harbours, which afford good anchorage for ships.

The English first settled on this island in 1637, and lived here without any disturbance from the natives or any others, till the year 1639, when they were driven

out by the Caribbees, who were exasperated against them; for an English vessel being becalmed before Dominica, some of the Caribbeans of that island, thinking her to be a French ship, from her bearing a flag of that nation, went aboard with their fruit, and drinking freely of brandy, the master hoisted his sails, and the Caribbeans suspecting his design, endeavoured to recover their canoes; but being hindered, leaped over-board and swam to the island, except two, whom the villainous master of the vessel put in irons, and sold for slaves. Those who escaped complaining of this treachery to the natives of Martinico and St. Vincent, they massacred the English at Barbadoes, Antigua, and others of the new settlements; then coming to St. Lucia in the night-time, surprized the English in their beds, killed the governor and most of the inhabitants, plundered their ware-houses, burnt their habitations, destroyed their provisions, and in short did incredible mischief, which obliged those who escaped to fly to Montserrat. This affair so terrified the English, that they gave over all thoughts of settling again in the island.

In 1644 M. de Parquet, governor of Martinico, sent about forty men from Granada, under M. de Rousselan, who took possession of the island, erected a fort, which they fortified with cannon and pateraroes, encompassed it with a palisado and good ditches, and raised a fine habitation near it, where they planted vegetables proper for food, and cured tobacco. As Rousselan was well beloved by the natives, on account of his marrying one of their women, the French enjoyed a perfect tranquility till the year 1654, when he died, and was succeeded by la Riviere, who expecting to live with the natives upon as good terms as his predecessor, erected a fine habitation, where he had not lived long with his family, before the Caribbeans formed the barbarous design of assassinating him. That la Riviere might not suspect their design, they paid him several visits, in order to sell him fruit; after which they one day came in great numbers to his house, where he gave them a friendly reception and plenty of liquor; but, while he suspected nothing, they treacherously murdered him, with ten of his men, and, after plundering his house, carried off his wife, two of his children, and a negro slave.

He was succeeded by M. Haquet, who took all proper precautions not to be surprized by the Caribbeans, yet could not escape the snares they laid for him; for in 1656, on the pretence of selling him a considerable quantity of turtle, which they had left upon a hill not half a mile from the fort, they decoyed him thither, with only three soldiers to attend him; and, while they amused the soldiers, threw him from the hill into the sea: yet not being much hurt he got safe to land, through a shower of arrows, and taking out one of his pocket pistols, they were so frightened that they fell on the ground. He seized that opportunity to escape to the fort, but just before he reached it, one of them shot him in the flank with an arrow, and he died three days after. M. Parquet, the governor of Martinico, sent M. le Breton to succeed him, who having been formerly his lady's footman, the garrison resolved to assassinate him; and one of them shooting at him when he was without the fort, le Breton thought it his best way to take shelter in the woods, where not being able to find him, they were in fear of being called to an account for their crime, therefore stripping the fort and the governor's house, seized a vessel in the road, and escaped to the Spaniards.

Eleven days after a French vessel passing by and finding the colony gone, but the guns, pateraroes, and apartments in good condition, the captain left four of his seamen there, with ammunition and provisions, to keep the fort; and as he was setting sail M. le Breton made a signal to him from an eminence, on which he was received on board his vessel, and another garrison was soon after sent.

In 1663 the English purchased this island from the natives, by a treaty concluded with the Indians by Mr. Warner, the son of Sir Thomas by a Caribbean woman; and the English sending a considerable force in 1664, had the fort delivered to them without resistance, on condition that the French governor, with the garrison, cannon, arms, and baggage, should be sent to Martinico.

Fourteen

Fourteen or fifteen hundred men were now settled on the island, but they being soon after seized with the bloody flux, six hundred of them died in less than three months, among whom was the governor and principal officers; upon which those who survived abandoned the island on the sixth of January 1666, after setting fire to the fort, and dispersed themselves into the other English colonies.

Though the island was deserted, it was still considered as a part of the British dominions, and was accordingly included in every commission of the governor of Barbadoes, who sometimes asserted his jurisdiction over it by going thither in person with great pomp, displaying the king's colours, firing guns, &c. However, in 1719 the French king granted this island to the marshal de Etree, who sent a colony to possess, settle, and plant it; on which the English ambassador at Paris represented the affair with such spirit, as a violation of the rights of his Britannic majesty, that orders were sent to the marshal de Etree's colony, to evacuate the island; which they accordingly did.

Three years after king George I. granted this island and that of St. Vincent to the duke of Montague, who settled a colony here; but soon after a sloop arrived from Martinico, the master of which brought a copy of a mandate from the king of France, in which it was declared, that neither St. Vincent nor St. Lucia belonged to the king of England: that the first of them ought to continue in the possession of the Caribbeans, and that the second belonged to the king of France, who had been willing, however, at the request of the king of England, to suspend the settlement of that island; and that the chevalier de Fouguiere, governor-general of the islands, should summon them to retire in fifteen days; and if they did not depart, he should compel them to it by force of arms.

Mr. Uring, the governor, took every prudent step to secure the colony, by sending to the governors of the other islands, and the captains of the men of war then stationed there, to procure their assistance; but they declining to act in a hostile manner against the French in time of peace, who sent between two and three thousand men against him, he was obliged to surrender; when it was agreed, that the English might re-embark all their cannon, stores, arms, and baggage, without molestation; that the French should also evacuate the place; and that the island should remain inhabited by neither the French nor English, till the dispute between the two crowns relating to it was decided; but that the ships of either nation should be at liberty to frequent its ports for wood and water. It was soon after determined by both crowns that this island, with that of St. Vincent and Dominica, should remain neutral. However, the French before the late war began to settle these islands; but, by the late treaty of peace, resigned all claim to them to his Britannic majesty.

The island of St. Vincent is seated in the thirteenth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in the sixty-first degree west longitude, fifty miles to the north-west of Barbadoes, and ten leagues to the south-south-east of St. Lucia. It is about twenty-four miles in length, eighteen in breadth, and sixty in compass.

This island has a deep fat soil, capable of producing every thing proper for the climate, and has abundance of rivulets and springs of excellent water. It has several mountains with plains at the bottom, which, if cultivated, would be exceeding fruitful. There are here large straight trees of all the kinds produced in America: tobacco has been cultivated here, and is esteemed excellent; together with mandioca, Turkey wheat, potatoes, ignamas, gourds, and the finest large melons; indigo also thrives here remarkably.

It is said that the Caribbeans, the original inhabitants of this island, people only a part of the island, there being also a great number of negroes, some of whom are descended from a ship load of Africans either driven or run ashore here about ninety years ago, and many fugitives from Barbadoes and the other islands. These are now numerous, and have many villages, where they are said to live well: both these different people are tenacious of their liberties, and jealous of foreigners, though they

readily furnish them with cassavi bread, fruit, and other provisions, in exchange for knives, hatchets, and the like.

We shall now proceed to Barbadoes, an island better known, and of which we are able to give a more accurate and circumstantial account.

S E C T. XIX.

Of B A R B A D O E S.

Its Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, and Climate: of the Land sliding from the Hills into the Vallies; with a Description of Cole's Cave, the Water, and bituminous Fossils in the Island.

THE island of Barbadoes extends from the thirteenth degree ten minutes to the thirteenth degree twenty-three minutes north latitude, and from the fifty-eighth degree forty-nine minutes three quarters to the fifty-ninth degree two minutes and a half west longitude from London; stretching in its greatest length from Goulding's-green, in St. Lucy's parish, to Ananias-point, in Christchurch parish, twenty miles three quarters, and its greatest breadth from Kirtrige's-point, in St. Philip's parish, to a point in St. James's parish, thirteen miles three quarters, and the circumference of the whole island from some of the surrounding principal points is almost fifty-four statute miles.

Its first appearance to the sea eastward is somewhat hilly, but to the south-west and the north-west is more level. The surface in general appears covered with an agreeable verdure, variegated with lofty trees, and large buildings, affording many beautiful prospects. The highest part of the island is a rocky cliff, whose perpendicular altitude is nine hundred and fifteen feet above high-water mark.

The atmosphere is in general serene, clear, and seldom cloudy; and from the total absence of hail, frost, or snow, it is never liable to those many and sudden vicissitudes so common in the climates more to the southward and northward of the tropics. The air is in general very healthy, which is chiefly owing to the regularity of the trade-winds, and to its having neither bogs nor marshes, in which the stagnated waters being exhaled to vapours might prove pernicious; nor large forests, which not only obstruct the passage of the winds, but generate a moist air, caused by the great quantity of vapours which perspire through the leaves, as well as from the shaded moist soil.

The soil in the low deep lands is chiefly black, in shallower parts somewhat reddish, on the hills frequently of a whitish, chalky, and marly nature, and near the sea it is generally sandy. By this variety Providence has wisely adapted different soils to the different nature of the several kinds of trees, shrubs, and plants. Where the soil is black, as it imbibes the rays of the sun, and reflects few or none, the circumambient air is there not near so hot, as where the soil is sandy or gravelly. As the fertility of this, as well as others of the West India islands, depends upon seasonable rains, a long chain of hills, interspersed with deep vallies, are providentially situated to the eastward of some parts of the island, to intercept the clouds and vapours. Hence that part of the island called The Thickets, in St. Philip's parish, being low land, and having no hills nor high cliffs to the eastward to make any resistance to these clouds, is often scorched with drought, when the middle and more hilly parts of the island are replenished with rain.

It sometimes happens that large pieces of ground planted with canes, and even land with plantain and banana trees growing upon it, have slid down to the vallies from the sides of the hills. This happens in very rainy seasons; for as the soil upon these hills is commonly not above eight or nine inches deep, and of an oozy and sopy nature underneath, it easily separates from the next immediate substratum, which is of a slippery chalk, flat stones, or loose gravel. When the soil slides in large pieces, its motion is less violent than when it is confined in narrow chasms in the meeting of two hills, especially if the situation be very steep; for there the collection of water being

considerable and heavy, instead of gliding softly between the two strata, it breaks out in different places at once, and then runs down the precipice a mingled torrent of earth and water.

The beautiful prospects from several hills over the vales below is quite enchanting; we ought not here to omit Hackleton's cliff, where nature at one view displays a great variety of surprizing landscapes. Here the high impending rocks yield a dreary rueful appearance: the several deep chasms below, over which they project, are imbrowned with the thick foliage of lofty trees. The adjacent steep declivity consists of irregular precipices and broken rocks, the whole view terminating on the sea, over whose craggy shores the foaming waves incessantly break. The view appears solemnly awful, except when the eye is relieved by a glimpse or sometimes a full view of the neighbouring plantations. To complete this uncommon contrast, a deep rapid river runs through the vallies at the bottom of these precipices, which though in the dry seasons is almost without water, yet in the rainy months of June, July, and August, it often overflows its highest banks.

The island abounds with caves, the most remarkable of which, called Cole's cave, is situated almost in the bottom of a melancholy hideous gully, or a deep chasm made between hills by repeated torrents of rain. This gully is about a hundred and sixty-five feet deep, from whence you can see nothing above you but the tops of high rocks and impending cliffs, through the gloomy branches of lofty trees. The descent towards the entrance of this cave is by a steep craggy precipice of great height, where your security from falling depends much upon the good hold you take of the roots of trees and branches of underwood. Having rather slid than walked down in this manner a considerable way, you are suddenly within an inclosure of very high perpendicular rocks, where the light of the sky is admitted by two holes in the roof. On the west side of this gloomy apartment lies the mouth of the cave, which is of considerable size. Upon your first entrance into it the light of the day begins to grow weak, and proves but an uncertain guide. Twenty yards farther it appears no stronger nor brighter than the glimmering of a star in a dull hazy night, and a few steps more envelops you in total darkness. "From hence, with the assistance of a candle and lanthorn," says the learned and reverend Mr. Hughes, from whom we have taken this account, I began my subterraneous tour; and, soon after my entrance, turned upon my left hand, to take a view of what is called the Dry cave. This has the top and roof crowded with innumerable petrified icicles hanging downwards. The sides of the cave were likewise in several places thick set with them, especially where there was a cavity: there they grow from the upper to the under shelves of the rocks, like so many balustrades, but more in number, irregular, and sometimes in two or three divisions. The next thing remarkable in these subterraneous apartments is the Wet cave, which, near its first separation from the Dry already described, is very spacious and lofty; but its bottom much furred, and torn up by the repeated torrents of rain, which in wet seasons run through it. Soon after our entering it, we were agreeably surprized with the murmurs of a distant stream, which a little farther we found a considerable spring of the most transparent water, issuing from a large projected rock, or rather the impending side of the cave. The roof near this place is remarkably pitted with several holes, representing shallow cones, of diameters from nine to twenty inches; but their greatest depth did not exceed twenty-four inches. These holes probably owe their origin to large cavous icicles which formerly hung from them, but were broken off by some convulsions of the earth. The spring here made a small basin or bathing-place, and from henceforward the cave gradually lessened in height and breadth, and the icicles hanging from the top and irregular sides were more in number, but less in magnitude. Here I began to want air, and at last the passage became so narrow and low, that I was obliged to stoop much, and the icicles were so small

"that the largest of them did not exceed my little finger in length and diameter. This place, distant near a quarter of a mile from the entrance, was my *ne plus ultra*, being so much fatigued, and wanting air so much, that I durst not, without presumption, proceed farther."

The island has several springs, and a few rivulets. The inhabitants of St. Andrew's, and some part of St. Joseph's parish, are plentifully supplied with fresh water by digging holes in the sand, from ten inches to three feet deep; and these are almost instantly supplied with fresh water percolated through the sand; but in other parts the inhabitants are obliged to preserve rain water in reservoirs, which are generally dug near a descent.

Among the fossils the most remarkable are the following: An oily bituminous exudation issuing from some hills in St. Andrew's and St. Joseph's parishes, of a dirty black, inclining to a green. It is procured by digging a hole or trench in or near the place where it issues out of the earth: this by degrees fills with water, having a thick film or cream of this liquid bitumen swimming upon the surface; from whence it is skimmed off, and preserved in earthen jars or other vessels. The most proper season for gathering it is in the month of January, February, and March. It is of so inflammable a nature, that it serves to burn in lamps. As to its medicinal qualities, it is used with great success in paralytic and nervous disorders, and in the cure of cutaneous eruptions.

There is another species of bitumen of a solid substance, called here *munjac*. This is dug out of the earth at different depths on the sides of hills in St. John's and St. Andrew's parishes, and nearly resembles that bitumen found in the Dead Sea. If by accident any of these veins take fire, they continue to burn a long time, though in a dull slow manner, for the veins being surrounded with earth it crumbles, and falling into the flame, stifles it.

In St. George's parish are often dug up lumps of a transparent resinous substance resembling resin, from which it is chiefly distinguished by the fragrance of its smell, and upon comparing it with the gum of the birch gum tree it appears to be of the same species.

S E C T. XX.

Of the Vegetables of Barbadoes; with a particular Description of the Palm-Oil Tree, the Burgamot Tree, the Forbidden-Fruit Tree, the Guava, and the Manchineel Tree. Among the Animals are described the Surinam Scorpion, and a particular Account of a Battle between a Sailor and a Shark.

THE trees of Barbadoes are vastly numerous; that called the palm-oil tree grows about fifty feet high; its branches somewhat resemble those of the cabbage-tree, but are much less uniform, shorter, and less verdant: the middle rib of each leaf is thickly studded with sharp-pointed prickles, each two inches long. The fruit is inclosed in a pod, which opening exposes to view many small nuts covered with a husky tegument of a yellowish colour, containing in its many interstices, when ripe, a considerable quantity of fine sweet oil, which the slaves, after the whole fruit is first roasted in the embers, greedily suck. When this outward husky covering is taken off, the nut appears, which is of a somewhat blunt conic shape, and the inside filled with a white kernel.

The burgamot-tree resembles that of the orange, but the fruit is somewhat larger; it has, however, very little juice, and what it yields is exceeding sour: what is most valuable is its oil, which is extracted by slicing the outward skin, and squeezing the fruit into a glass, on which the oil immediately separates from the juice, and swims upon the surface. This being carefully drained off and preserved, is what alone ought to be called the genuine burgamot oil. The Portuguese have a method of making snuff-boxes of the rind, which retain for a long time the grateful fragrance of the oil.

What is here called the forbidden-fruit tree has the trunk, leaves, and flowers like those of the orange. The fruit, when ripe, is something larger and longer than the finest

finest orange, which it also exceeds in its delicious taste and flavour.

Here are also the four orange, the Guinea orange, the golden orange, so called from its being of a deep yellow within; the shaddock, the citron, the St. Helena lemon, the Spanish lemon tree, and the lime; the pomegranate and the guava tree.

The latter is distinguished into two sorts, the white and the red; and these, with regard to their shape, into the round and the pear-fashioned, or perfumed guavas. The latter have a thicker rind, and a more delicate taste than any other. This tree, if carefully cultivated, grows to about eighteen feet in height, has a very smooth bark, of a reddish grey, with sharp-pointed leaves and white flowers. The perfumed guava is round, and about the size of a large tennis-ball; the rind, or skin, is generally of a russet stained with red, lined with an apple-like substance, as thick as a crown-piece. The inside is full of an agreeable pulp mixed with innumerable small white seeds. The rind, when stewed, is eaten with milk, and preferred to any other stewed fruit. From the same part is made marmalade, and from the whole fruit the finest jelly perhaps in the world.

Besides the trees already mentioned there are the pineapple, and a great variety of other fruits, with many trees admired for the beauty and solidity of the wood, particularly *lignum vitæ*, red wood, iron wood, and many others; we shall only add the following, which is one of the most remarkable of the American trees, and is found in most of the Caribbee Islands, as well as Barbadoes.

The manchaneel tree is remarkable for the beauty of the timber, and its juice being one of the strongest poisons yet discovered. Historians have, however, exaggerated the accounts they have given of the poisonous nature of this tree; for it has been pretended, that the heads of the persons who sleep under its shade swell, and they become blind; that if the leaves but touch the naked skin, they raise pustules, which cause deadly pains, unless helped with water and salt, or fasting spittle. This, however, is not true, nor is any ill consequence to be feared from the leaves touching the naked body, unless they are bruised, and the white milky juice they contain is suffered to pervade the pores; which if it does, it raises blisters like those of the confluent kind in the small-pox, causing acute pains; but simple drops of rain water falling from those leaves upon the skin will not have any bad effect, which Mr. Hughes tells us he has experienced upon repeated trials.

This tree is of a very quick growth, and is seldom or never found growing to any perfection, but in a loose and sandy soil, near the sea or other water. The trunk, when full grown, is generally from two feet and a half to three feet in diameter, branching, most commonly, from three to fifteen feet high from the ground. The heart, which is very small, in proportion to the bulk of the tree, is very hard and solid, of a pale yellow, with a greenish cast, interspersed with small blackish veins, the grain smooth, and the wood durable: the bark is of a sleek whitish grey, the branches many in number, and covered with thick, smooth, shining leaves, among which are long pendulous catkins. It bears a fruit of the same make as the round sort of crab-apples which we have in England, and is of a beautiful colour and fragrant smell. The pulp of these manchaneel apples does not exceed one-seventh of an inch in depth, the inside being a hard stony kernel, in which are included the seeds. The juice of the apple is of the same colour and quality as that of the leaves, and yet the reverend gentleman just mentioned observes, that he has known a woman big with child, who longed for them, to have eaten of them, without any apparent bad effect; but adds, he cannot say that the fragrance of the smell, or their tempting looks, have induced others to follow her example by so dangerous an experiment: yet if some of this crude milky juice does but fall upon a horse, the hair of the part affected soon falls off, and the skin rises up in blisters, which will require a long time to heal. Formerly no one dared to cut down these trees, without first having made a large fire round them, in order to burn the bark and dry up the sap and juices that fly from them in cutting: but now naked negroes venture to cut them down, only using the

caution of previously rubbing their whole bodies with lime-juice, which prevents the sap from corroding or ulcerating their skins. Bruising and mashing the tender leaves and boughs, and then throwing them into fish-ponds, has often been practised by villains to destroy the fish, which soon after grow stupid, float with their bellies upwards on the top of the water, and frequently die. Some sorts of fish that will eat these apples, are often found dead in the water, and if taken while alive and eaten often prove poisonous; even the large white crab that burrows in the sand is not, if near these trees, to be made use of for food. We shall conclude this account with mentioning a remarkable instance of the goodness of Providence, that wherever a manchaneel tree grows, there is found either a white wood or a fig tree near it, the juice of either of which is an infallible antidote against the poison; salt water is no less efficacious, and as these trees grow by the sea-side, this remedy is also near at hand.

Among the vegetables of a lower growth are Guinea and Indian corn, and a vast variety of plants, the most valuable of which is the sugar-cane, and many medicinal herbs.

With respect to the animals, the sheep bred here are, as in the other Caribbee Islands, hairy like goats: for to be covered with wool would be as prejudicial to them in these hot climates as it is useful in cold countries, for shelter and warmth; yet as cloathing is necessary, especially in the rainy season, to the inhabitants, the want of wool is abundantly supplied by the cotton tree, of which there are here several sorts which annually supply the inhabitants with the finest wool in the world.

They have coach-horses from England, saddle-horses from New England, and others for carts and common uses from Bonavista, the Cape Verd Islands, and Curasou. They have also a breed of their own, which is mettlesome, swift, and hardy, but not strong enough for much service. The first planters brought black cattle from Bonavista and the Isle of May, and a few of their breed still continues. They have asses, which are of extraordinary use, because they can carry burthens where horses cannot pass.

Among the number of animals, either peculiar to or brought to this island, there is not one that is mortally venomous; while many of the neighbouring French islands are infested with vipers, and other poisonous snakes. There are here but three species of reptiles that can be properly called venomous, the black spider, the forty-leg, and the Surinam scorpion.

A full grown scorpion of the common sort is about ten inches long, the skin soft but scaly, and of a dull copper colour. The reverend Mr. Hughes observes, that the very young ones are surprisingly preserved from danger; for when this threatens, the parent scorpion opens her mouth and swallows them, and afterwards voids them when the danger is over.

The Surinam scorpion is, however, only three inches in length, from the head to the extremity of the tail. From the fore-part of the neck rise two claws, about three quarters of an inch long, divided into three joints, each claw near its extremity ending in a long, slender, whitish forceps. It has two eyes, which are black, small, and shining, with four pair of legs, the hindermost being the longest: each joint of the legs, as well as the back, is marked with several faint whitish lists, the intermediate space being of a russet colour, mixed with blackish spots. The tail is divided into six joints, and at the extremity of the last appear two small horny crooked strings in the form of a wide extended forceps, the upper being double the length of the lowermost: the longest coming from the upper side of the last joint of the tail, the other from the lowermost part, the intermediate space being fleshy. When this scorpion walks or runs she generally curls up her tail in a ring, and when provoked extends it to its full length, and with a quick motion darts it into her adversary. Those who have the misfortune to be stung by them, endure very acute pain for several hours, and the flesh near the wound generally turns livid; but the wound is not mortal. These scorpions are chiefly to be found among old boards, old books, or other loose papers. They never bear any young but once: the female carries her young upon her back,

back, and as these grow in strength the parent decays and dies.

Monkeys are not very numerous in this island; they chiefly reside in inaccessible gullies, especially where there are many fruit-trees. They do great mischief to the neighbouring planters, by digging out of the earth their yams and potatoes, and sometimes breaking and carrying off the ripe sugar-cane. But as a premium is granted for destroying both these and the racoons, they rather decrease than multiply.

The most destructive quadrupeds, with respect to their sugar-canes, are the rats, which are so numerous that the annual loss to the inhabitants of the parishes of St. Joseph and St. Andrew alone is computed at no less than two or three thousand pounds.

The birds of this island are not very numerous; there are none of them remarkable for their notes, nor for the beauty of their feathers, excepting the humming-bird. The tame fowls are much the same as those in England; besides which they have the Guinea fowl, Muscovy ducks, and rumplefowls.

The shores afford a great variety of shell-fish, some of which are exceeding beautiful, and a variety of other productions. "We are no sooner, says our author, advanced to the shore on the west side of the island, but we are, especially in calm mornings and evenings, pleased with the sight of groves of corals, sea-feathers, and sea-roids; the former grow in thick clusters, yielding an embrowned shade, and remain, as sturdy oaks, unmoved; the latter, with their numerous pliant branches, wavily bend with the undulating flow motion of the water. The interspersed, vacant, sandy spaces resemble so many bright lawns, which please by a kind of regular confusion."

Among the more extraordinary kinds of fish are the flying-fish, the toad-fish, the ink-fish, which is so called from its discolouring the water with a black liquid when in danger of being caught, by which means it becomes invisible to the enemy; the cat of nine-tails, and the scuttle-fish, both of which, as well as the ink-fish, eject a black liquid; the old-man, the old-wife, the dolphin, the mud-fish, the star-fish, and the shark. This last fish we have already described in the course of this work; but we cannot forbear mentioning a very unequal and hazardous combat with that voracious animal by a common sailor, which may perhaps be considered as heroic an instance of disinterested friendship and personal bravery as any recorded in history. The account we find in the reverend Mr. Hughes's Natural History of Barbadoes, and shall give it in his own words.

"About the latter end of queen Anne's wars, captain John Beanis, commander of the York Merchant, arrived at Barbadoes from England. Having disembarked the last part of his lading, which was coals, the sailors, who had been employed in that dirty work, ventured into the sea to wash themselves; there they had not been long, before a person on board espied a large shark making towards them, and gave them notice of their danger; upon which they swam back and reached the boat, all but one; him the monster overtook almost within reach of the oars, and gripping him by the small of the back, his devouring jaws soon cut him asunder, and as soon swallowed the lower part of his body; the remaining part was taken up and carried on board, where his comrade was. His friendship with the deceased had been long distinguished by a reciprocal discharge of all such endearing offices, as implied an union and sympathy of souls. When he saw the severed trunk of his friend, it was with an horror and emotion too great for words to paint. During this affecting scene the insatiable shark was seen traversing the bloody surface in search after the remainder of his prey; the rest of the crew thought themselves happy in being on board, he alone unhappy, that he was not within reach of the destroyer. Fired at the sight, and vowing that he would make the devourer disgorge, or be swallowed himself in the same grave, he plunges into the deep armed with a sharp-pointed knife. The shark no sooner saw him, but he made furiously towards him; both equally eager, the one of his prey, the other of revenge. The moment the shark opened his rapacious

jaws, his adversary dexterously diving, and grasping him with his left hand somewhat below the upper fins, successfully employs his knife in his right hand, giving him repeated stabs in the belly: the enraged shark, after many unavailing efforts, finding himself overmatched in his own element, endeavours to disengage himself, sometimes plunging to the bottom, then mad with pain, rearing his uncouth form, now stained with his own streaming blood, above the foaming waves. The crews of the surrounding vessels saw the unequal combat, uncertain from which of the combatants the streams of blood issued; till at length the shark, much weakened by the loss of blood, made towards the shore, and with him his conqueror; who, flushed with an assurance of victory, pushes his foe with redoubled ardour, and, by the help of an ebbing tide, dragging him on shore, rips up his bowels, and unites and buries the severed carcass of his friend in one hospitable grave."

This story, our author adds, is of so extraordinary a nature, that he would not have dared to give it his reader, had he not been authorized by the testimony of a very credible gentleman, who was ready to confirm, by oath, the truth of what is here related.

SECT. XXI.

Of the different Inhabitants, the Divisions of the Island, and a particular Description of Bridge Town, the Capital; with the Government and Trade of Barbadoes.

THE inhabitants of Barbadoes consist of the masters, who are either originally English, Scots, or Irish; with a few Dutch, French, Portuguese, and Jews: the white servants, and the black slaves. The masters, who consist of the merchants and planters, both clergy and laity; lawyers, physicians, &c. live very elegantly, having a number of servants for their plantations and household, rich equipages, fine liveries, and the most wealthy of them have pleasure-boats in which they make the tour of the island.

The white servants are either by covenant or purchase, and are of two sorts, such as sell themselves in Great Britain or Ireland, for four years or more, and such as are transported thither for their crimes. When the term of the covenant-servants is out, the British servants have each five pounds, the others but forty shillings. Their work is not so hard as that of our day-labourers, yet their encouragement is greater; and if they are good for any thing, they may be employed upon their own terms when their time is expired. They are not allowed near so much flesh as those who are employed in our country farms, yet they do not want; for the planters give them English biscuit, which the negroes have not; and the chief of them are supplied from their masters' tables.

The servitude of the blacks is perpetual, and those masters who are men of humanity have a double interest in taking care of them, because if a negro dies the owner loses forty or fifty pounds; while by the death of a white servant he only loses the wages he pays to another to supply his place, during the remainder of his term. The business of the blacks lies mostly in the field, except those who are taken into the sugar-mills, store-houses, and dwelling-houses, where the handsomest and neatest maids are made menial servants, and the cleverest fellows lacquies, coachmen, and grooms: others are frequently employed as coopers, joiners, masons, and the like. A slave who is a good mechanic is worth a hundred and fifty or two hundred pounds, and even much more has been given for a boiler of sugar. The negroes are purchased out of the Guinea ships, after being all viewed naked, and are frequently allowed two or three wives, that they may increase the planter's stock; for their posterity to all generations are slaves, unless they are restored to liberty. The women are very constant to the man who passes for their husband. Their choicest fare is plantanes, which they boil or roast; and they have twice or thrice a week either salt fish, mackarel, or salt pork, with some bread made of Indian corn of the produce of the country, fetched from Carolina.

Every

Every negro family has a cabbin built with sticks, withs, and plantane leaves. These stand round the planter's house, with a garden, where they plant yams, potatoes, cassava roots, &c. and breed goats, hogs, and fowls, for their own eating or for sale. The negroes born in Barbadoes are much more useful than those brought from Guinea, and those that come children from Africa make much better servants when they are grown up, than those that come over at years of maturity; but it is reckoned that a fourth part of the negroes die in seasoning.

Every plantation has a chief overseer, who is allowed a hundred or one hundred and fifty pounds a year, besides two or three under him, with accomptants, and other officers. The country being too hot for hunting and hawking, the planters and other gentry are obliged for the most part to divert themselves by playing at cards, dice, tables, quoits, and bowling; likewise by resorting to balls and concerts.

The principal diseases of this island are the dry-gripes, so called from its affecting that part of the body with great costiveness and pain; but this dreadful disease was formerly much more frequent and fatal than it has been of late. There are likewise other kinds of colics, the yellow jaundice, hysteric disorders, diarrhoeas, and dysenteries; fluxes are also very common, especially in the rainy seasons, when by catching cold the perspiration is interrupted, and what should have been exhaled through the skin is thrown upon the bowels; they are also caused by eating immoderately of fruit. The yellow fever is another fatal disease, as are also the small-pox, the measles, the leprosy, and the yaws. The last appears in fleshy knobs as large as a thimble, covering the face, breast, arms, and other parts of the body.

The precincts of this island, with their respective parishes, are as follow:

In the south part of the island are St. Michael's or Bridge precinct, containing the parishes of St. Michael, St. George, and St. John. In St. James's, or the Hole precinct, are the parishes of St. Thomas and St. James; and in St. Peter's, or Speight's precinct, is the parish of St. Peter, with All Saints chapel.

In the east part is Offine's precinct, which contains the parishes of Christ church and St. Philip's.

In the north is St. Andrew's Overhill, or Scotland precinct, which contain the parishes of St. Andrew and St. Joseph.

In the west is only the parish of St. Lucy.

Bridge Town, the capital, is reckoned the finest and the largest in all the Caribbee Islands. It is seated in the south-west part, in the thirteenth degree north latitude, and in the sixtieth degree west longitude, and was at first called St. Michael's, from the name of its church; but received its present denomination from a bridge erected over the waters, that after rains flow from the neighbouring marshes. It is situated in the innermost part of Carlisle-bay, which is large enough to contain five hundred ships. The houses, which are of brick and stone, are lofty, and amount to about twelve hundred; they have glazed windows, and many of them are sashed: the streets are broad, and one of them, named Cheapside, has the rents as dear as those of the houses of Cheapside in London. The wharfs and quays are very neat and convenient, defended by several forts. The first to the west is James fort, which is mounted with eighteen guns: the next to this is Willoughby's, built on a small neck of land that runs out into the sea, and is mounted with twenty guns: there are three batteries between this and Needham's fort, which is also mounted with twenty guns. Above Needham's, and more within land, is the Royal citadel called St. Anne's. Charles fort is built on Needham's-point, and lies out in the sea to the windward of the bay and town. From this a platform runs to Ormond's fort. On the east side of the town is a small fort of eight guns, and a magazine built of stone, where the powder and stores of the island are kept under a strong guard. In short, this is both the strongest and richest town in all the Caribbees; the store-houses and shops being generally as well furnished as those in London.

The church, which is as large as many of our cathedrals, has a noble organ, a good ring of bells, and a

curious clock. In the town are also large taverns and eating-houses, with a post-house, packet-boats being established by the government to carry letters monthly to and from this place. This is the seat of the governor, council, and assembly; and also of the court of chancery. The number of militia for this town and St. Michael's precinct is no less than twelve hundred men, who are called the Royal regiment of foot guards. There is here a college founded and well endowed by the liberality of that great man colonel Christopher Codrington, who was a native of this island, and was distinguished by a great number of amiable and useful qualities. The town has also a convenient free-school, and an alms-house of twenty poor widows.

There are several other towns; but they are small: indeed every part of the island is strewed with gentlemen's houses, encompassed by fields of sugar-canes, and the bloom and fragrance of orange, lemon, lime, and citron trees, guavas, papas, aloes, and a vast multitude of other elegant and useful plants. Even the negro huts, though mean, contribute to the beauty of the country; for they shade them with plantane trees, which give their villages the appearance of so many beautiful groves.

The government of this island resembles that of the others, and the inhabitants support the expence of their own establishment, which is very considerable, with great credit. The governor's place is worth at least five thousand pounds a year, and the rest of the officers have considerable incomes. The people provide very handsomely for their clergy, who are of the church of England, which is the religion established here as it is in the other islands; and here are very few Dissenters. There is in general a greater appearance of order and decency than in any other colony in the West Indies; and there is no place comparable to Barbadoes, in the number of the people, the cultivation of the soil, and those elegancies and conveniencies which result from both.

The island can raise five thousand men of its own militia, and has generally a regiment of regular troops, though it is seldom complete. It is fortified by nature all along the windward shore by the rocks and shoals; so that near two-thirds are utterly inaccessible. On the leeward side it has good harbours; but the whole coast is protected by a line of several miles in length, defended by twenty-two castles and forts, and twenty-six batteries. All freemen here are obliged to enter themselves in the regiment of their own district, and there is a law here obliging all persons who design to leave the island to give notice of it at the secretary's office, three weeks before their departure.

The number of inhabitants amounts at present to twenty-five thousand whites, and near eighty thousand negroes; and there are shipped from hence above twenty-five thousand hogheads of sugar, valued at three hundred thousand pounds; besides rum, molasses, cotton, ginger, and aloes: an immense peopling and produce for a country that does not contain above a hundred thousand acres of land.

The inhabitants of Barbadoes trade with New England, Carolina, Pennsylvania, New York, and Virginia for lumber, bread, flour, Indian corn, rice, tobacco, salt beef and pork, fish, pulse, and other provisions; with Guinea for negroes; with Madeira for wine; with Tercera and Fayal for wine and brandy; with the isles of May and Curassou for salt; and with Ireland for beef and pork. The other goods which they import from Great Britain and Ireland are Osnaburghs, which are the chief wear of their servants and slaves; linen of all sorts, with broad cloth and kerseys for the planters, their overseers, and families; silks and stuffs for their ladies and household servants; red caps for their slaves of both sexes; stockings and shoes of all sorts; gloves and hats; millinery-ware and perukes; laces for linen, woollen, and silks; strong beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter, and cheese; iron-ware, as saws, files, axes, hatchets, chissels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, gouges, planes, augers, nails; lead, powder, and shot; brass and copper-ware; all sorts of India goods and toys, coals, and pantiles.

The voyage is commonly five or six weeks outward-bound, and six or seven homeward. The planters send

to Guinea guns, powder, ball, perpetuanas, hats, and other wearing apparel, which they have from England, and dispatch small vessels thither to bring slaves for their plantations, which must be recruited every year with twenty or thirty negroes to every four or five hundred acres; so that, notwithstanding the means used to make the slaves propagate, this island alone is said to receive a supply of a hundred thousand negroes every thirty years; and yet at the end of that time their number was never found to be increased. It cannot be here improper to mention, that upon a parliamentary enquiry in 1728, it appeared, that in three years only the number of negroes sent to Barbadoes, Jamaica, and Antigua alone amounted to forty-two thousand.

SECT. XXII.

A concise History of the Island of Barbadoes.

IT is not distinctly known when this island was first discovered and settled, but it was probably about the year 1625. When the English first landed here they found the country extremely wild, it having not the least appearance of its ever having been peopled even by savages. There was no kind of beast of pasture, nor any marks of cultivation; yet as the climate was good, and the soil appeared fertile, some gentlemen of small fortunes in England resolved to become adventurers. The first planters had not only the desolateness of the place and the extreme want of provisions to struggle with, but the trees were generally so large, of a wood so hard and stubborn, with wide spreading tops, that they proceeded in the necessary work of clearing the ground with a difficulty that must have subdued any ordinary patience. And even when they had tolerably cleared a small spot, the first produce it yielded for their subsistence, probably for want of sowing the seed in a proper soil, was so small and ordinary, at the same time their supplies from England were so slow and precarious, that nothing but an invincible courage, and a firmness that cannot be sufficiently commended, could have carried them through the discouragements they met with in the noble work of cultivating and peopling a deserted part of the earth. But by degrees things wore a more favourable aspect; some of the trees yielded fustic for the dyers; cotton and indigo were found to agree well with the soil; tobacco then becoming fashionable in England, answered tolerably; and the country gradually began to submit to culture, and to lay aside its savage appearance.

This happy change, and the storm that some time after began to gather in England, encouraged many to go over; but still the colony received no encouragement from the government, which at that time understood the advantages of colonies but little; and the court took no other notice of this island than to grant it to the earl of Carlisle, which proved of no advantage to the settlement. However, as this colony had the hardiest breeding, and the most laborious infancy of any of our settlements in this part of America, so it was far stronger, and grew with greater speed, even to a height that seems incredible; for in this small island in the year 1650, which was little more than twenty years after its first establishment, it contained upwards of fifty thousand whites of all ages and sexes, with a much greater number of blacks and Indian slaves. The former of these slaves they bought; but the latter they acquired by the most base and dishonourable methods; for they seized upon those unhappy people, without any pretence, in the neighbouring islands, and carried them into slavery: a practice which rendered the Caribbee Indians their most inveterate enemies.

The small island of Barbadoes, peopled by upwards of a hundred thousand souls, was not yet above half of it cultivated, nor was the industry of the inhabitants at a stand. A little before the period just mentioned they learned the art of making sugar; and this enlarging the sphere of their trade, they grew prodigiously rich and numerous.

The government in England being about this time in the hands of Cromwell, confined the trade of Barbadoes to the mother country; for before it had been entirely managed by the Dutch. The severity with which the

royal party were treated, now obliged several gentlemen of very good families to settle in the island, which were far from being peopled like several other colonies by fugitives, and persons in unhappy circumstances. After the Restoration it continued still advancing by very hasty strides. King Charles II. soon after his ascending the throne, created thirteen baronets from the gentlemen of this island, some of whom were worth ten thousand pounds a year, and none so little as one thousand.

On the thirty-first of August, 1675, the island was afflicted with a most dreadful hurricane, which it is said was not inferior in its deplorable consequences to the earthquake that happened at Jamaica; for it left never a house or tree standing, except the few that were sheltered by some neighbouring hill or cliff. Some hours before the storm began the heavens were overcast with thick clouds of a black reddish hue; the air calm, but sultry; and the more it lost its expansive force, the closer the clouds condensed, and the blacker they appeared. In the afternoon, when the violence of the storm began, the wind was high, and varying almost in an instant to every point of the compass; but settled chiefly at north, being attended with dreadful rain, thunder, and lightning. The sea, where not guarded with high cliffs, overflowed its banks above an hundred yards, and during the day-light nothing was to be seen but one rueful spectacle of almost universal ruin. The night as it came on was ushered in with a continued rumbling noise in the air, with the increase of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning; especially the latter, which now with redoubled force darted, not with its usual short-lived flashes, but in rapid flames, skimming over the surface of the earth, as well as mounting to the upper regions. The next morning, when the storm was abated, the whole island, says our author, afforded a lively but terrible idea of the tenth Egyptian plague; for there was scarce a house but lamented one dead in it, or in general something equal or worse. Several families were entirely buried in the ruins of their houses, and there were few that escaped but with the loss of some relation, friend, or acquaintance.

This dreadful calamity happened in the meridian of this settlement, when their whites were computed to be much more than fifty thousand, and their slaves were increased to upwards of a hundred thousand of all kinds. They employed four hundred sail of ships, one with another of a hundred and fifty tons, in their trade. Their annual produce, consisting of sugar, indigo, ginger, exported cotton, &c. amounted to upwards of three hundred and fifty thousand pounds, and their circulating cash at home was two hundred thousand. Perhaps no country in the world was ever peopled in the same proportion; nor has land of the same dimensions which produces any thing like the same profits. But since that time the island has been upon the decline. The growth of the French sugar islands, and the settlement of Antigua, St. Christopher's, Nevis, and Montserrat, as well as the greater establishment in Jamaica, have drawn away a vast number of the people. A terrible contagion attacked the island in the year 1692; it raged like a pestilence; twenty have died in a day in their principal town, and all parts of the island suffered in proportion. This sickness continued, with some abatements, for several years, and is said to have rendered the climate less healthful than it was before. At the same time with this distemper war raged, and the Barbadians, who raised a good number of men, lost many of them in fruitless expeditions against the French islands. All these causes contributed to reduce the number and opulence of this celebrated island; but it is only in comparison with itself, that it can be considered in any other than the most flourishing condition, even at this day.

SECT. XXIII.

Of TABAGO, or TOBAGO.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, Produce, particularly its valuable Spices, an Account of its Animals, and a concise History of its several Revolutions.

TABAGO, the most easterly of all the Caribbee Islands, is seated in the eleventh degree ten minutes

north latitude, about thirty-five leagues to the south-east of St. Vincent, forty leagues east of Grenada, twelve leagues north-east of Trinidad, and between thirty and forty north-east of the Spanish Main. It is thirty-two miles in length from the south-east to the north-west, and about nine broad from east to west, the whole being above seventy miles in compass; so that it is rather larger than Barbadoes, or indeed than any of our Leeward Islands. At a small distance from the north-east extremity is a small island called Little Tabago, which is two miles in length and a mile in breadth.

The climate of Tabago is not so hot as might be expected from its being seated so near the equator; and it is said to enjoy one favourable circumstance, which is of the greatest advantage, this is its lying out of the course of those hurricanes that have sometimes proved so fatal to the other West India islands.

The surface of the island is agreeably diversified with hills and vales; its north west extremity is mountainous; but no part of it is rugged or impassable. Its soil is of different kinds; but in general its mould is black, rich, and proper for producing, in the greatest plenty, whatever is raised in other parts of the West Indies. The many springs on the island contribute to its healthfulness, and its bays and creeks are so disposed as to be very commodious for all kind of shipping: yet its situation requires fortifications, especially as the natural richness of the island serves but to render it the more inviting to invaders.

The valuable trees which grow in Tabago are perhaps its richest produce; for, besides its producing the different kinds of wood to be found in the West India islands, the Dutch, by whom it was once settled, affirm, that both the true nutmeg and the cinnamon tree, with that which produces the real gum-copal, grows upon this island. The Dutch can indeed be scarcely supposed to be deceived in the natural properties of those valuable trees, which they acknowledge to be, in some respects, different from those in their plantations in the East Indies; yet a great doubt remains, whether they are the original productions of Tabago, or whether they had not been imported and planted there from the East Indies. Tho' the latter is the most probable opinion, yet as the fact itself, which is undisputed, evinces that those rich spices may be cultivated upon the island, it renders it an object highly worthy the attention of the public. This island is also said to produce five different kinds of pepper, the long, the cod, the bell, the round, and Jamaica pepper, all which we are told grow upon the island without culture.

The soil naturally produces Indian and Guinea corn; but no English grain, except pease and beans, can be raised there. The fig-trees produce as good fruit as those of Spain and Portugal. The pomegranate, the pine-apple, the banana, the prickly-apple, oranges of two sorts; lemons and limes of both kinds, sour and sweet, are found in plenty upon this island; and the marmalade made of its guavas is inferior to none. Plantanes grow here of an excellent kind, as do tamarinds, grapes, the custard-apple, the sour-apple, the papaw-apple, the mammee-apple, and the yellow plum are plentiful here. The cherries that grow upon the island are but indifferent. The cocoanut, of which we have given a description in treating of Asia, grows here to such perfection, that the Indians call it God's-tree, as producing both meat, drink, and cloathing. Cucumbers, musk and water melons, pomkins, and gourds, likewise thrive here. The inhabitants have also potatoes, yams, cassava-root, onions, carrots, parsnips, and turnips.

Horses, cows, asses, sheep, deer, goats, and rabbits, were probably introduced by the Courlanders and Dutch, and their breed are still to be found on the island. Here are also the pickery, which resembles a hog, armadilloes, and guanoes.

Its shores are stored with excellent fish, particularly with turtle of every kind, and mullets of a most delicious taste, with other sorts unknown in England: no island, perhaps in the world, can boast of such variety of fowl.

We shall now give a concise history of this island, which was first discovered by Columbus in 1498; but it does not appear that the Spaniards ever made any settlement upon it. At length, in 1628, William, earl of Pembroke, obtained a grant of this island from king

Charles I. but dying soon after, the design of peopling it dropped. About the year 1632, some Zealanders trading in these seas, took such a liking to this island, that upon their return home, they engaged the company of merchants, to which they belonged, to settle it; and it received the name of New Walcheren, from one of the largest islands in the province of Zealand. The new colony soon increased to about two hundred; but being attacked by the Spaniards and Indians, they were all of them exterminated.

Some years after, James duke of Courland sent a colony of his own subjects to this island, who settled upon what was afterwards called Courland Bay, and erected a small regular fort, with a town in its neighbourhood. Here they lived so inoffensively, that they remained unmolested either by the Caribbees or the Spaniards; and found the soil so good, that the colony soon made an excellent appearance. They were supplied from their own country with all kinds of utensils, and flourished to such a degree as to awaken the jealousy of the Dutch, who revived their claim. In 1654, Mess. Adrian and Cornelius Lampsin of Flushing, two Dutch merchants, fitted out some ships, and landed some men on Tobago; but finding the Courlanders too powerful to be opposed, took possession of a different part of the island now called Rockley-Bay, acknowledging themselves under the protection of the duke of Courland.

But the duke, having given umbrage to Charles Gustavus of Sweden, had the misfortune to be taken prisoner in 1658, and to be carried to Riga. This news reaching Tobago, the Dutch besieged and took the Courlanders fort, and thus became masters of the whole island; but promised to restore the fort as soon as the duke should recover his liberty.

The court of France soon after inserting Tabago among the other islands granted to the French West-India company; and the Dutch planters, thinking this a favourable opportunity for establishing themselves under so powerful a protection, Lampsin, in 1662, applied to the court of France, where he had such interest, that he was created baron of Tobago, and becoming sole proprietor of the island, under the crown of France, sent over M. Hubert de Beveren as governor. The new governor called the town his countrymen had built, Lampsinburg; and gave the same name to the harbour, and also to a regular fortress he erected at the same time. He likewise built Fort Beveren; and besides raising several other forts for the security of the colony, laid the foundation of a new town, which he intended to call New Flushing. Mean while the planters proceeded with great spirit; they laid out cacao walks, which served equally the purposes of beauty and profit; erected indigo-works and sugar-mills; and Tobago seemed as if it would soon rival the most flourishing of the English West-India settlements.

The duke of Courland, being at length restored to his liberty by the treaty of Oliva, demanded of the States General the restoration of his fort on the island of Tobago; but not meeting with any success, he applied to Charles II. king of England, who granted to him that island, on consideration of certain services reserved to the crown of Great Britain; this only served to put the Dutch at Tobago on their guard: but soon after, in the first Dutch war, the English privateers destroyed the Dutch forts and colony of Tobago; however, in the succeeding war carried on by the French and Dutch against England, the English were, in their turn, dispossessed of the island, and the Dutch reinstated in it. It afterwards served as a rendezvous for the combined fleets of the two nations, who by this means did prodigious damage to the English trade; but before the end of the war, Sir John Harman attacked and defeated their joint squadrons, and totally destroyed the remains of that of France. The Dutch, however, after the defeat of their fleet, and that of their allies, not only kept possession of Tobago, but in five years time fortified it with three strong forts, and a numerous artillery; so that it was considered as impregnable; yet Sir Tobias Bridges, in 1673, made a descent upon the island, which he not only plundered, but carried away four hundred of the inhabitants prisoners.

The peace which took place the next year between the English and Dutch, left the latter once more in possession

sion of this island; and they even conquered from the French the island of Cayenne. They kept it however but a short time; for the count of D'Etrees, vice-admiral of France, soon after reconquered Cayenne, and appeared before Tobago. James Binkes, the admiral of Zealand, was then lying in Great Rockley harbour, with a strong squadron of Dutch ships, which the count attacked by sea and land, on the third of March 1677; when, after a desperate engagement, the Glorieux, the count's ship of seventy guns, with several others, being blown up, he was obliged to retire, having first destroyed in the engagement great part of the Dutch squadron. Towards the end of the year the count was reinforced with a stronger squadron, when landing his men, he regularly invested the principal fort in the island, which he found so strong, that he was obliged to bombard it; but the third bomb that was thrown fell upon a magazine of powder, which blew up the fortress, together with admiral Binkes, and the greatest part of the officers and garrison. The count then completed the reduction of the island, and on the twenty-seventh of December the same year, entirely destroyed the Dutch colony.

After this, the English published proposals for settling the island; but these were never carried into execution: and at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, Tobago was one of the four islands that were declared neutral. Notwithstanding this, the marquis de Caylus, governor of the French islands, sent troops and men to fortify and settle it; but the British court warmly remonstrating to the court of France, against so manifest a violation of the peace, the French disavowed his proceedings, ordered him home, and the settlement to be discontinued. In this state it remained till the definitive treaty of Fontainebleau, by which Tobago was ceded to Great Britain; after which the government of it was given by his present majesty to colonel Melvil, and measures taken to sell the land in shares, and people the country.

S E C T. XXIV.

Of GRANADA, and the GRANADILLAS, or GRANADINES.

A Description of Grenada, or Granada, and of the smaller Islands; their Situation, Extent, Produce, and History.

THE chief of these islands, named Granada, or Grenada, is situated in the twelfth degree north latitude, and in the sixty-first degree forty minutes west longitude. It is the last of the Windward Caribbees, and lies thirty leagues north of New Andalusia, on the continent. It is said to be about thirty miles in length, in some places fifteen in breadth, and about sixty-six in circumference.

Granada and the Granadines produce very fine timber; the latin tree, which grows here, has a tall body, and its leaves, when tied together, serve as thatch for houses; experience has proved, that its soil is fit for producing sugar, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it carries with it all the appearances of becoming as flourishing a colony as any in the West Indies of its dimensions.

A lake on the top of a high hill in the middle of the island supplies it with streams of fresh water, which render the soil extremely fertile, and it abounds with wild game; among the fowl are wood-pigeons, thrushes, and parrots; and among the fish are eels, mullets, and cray-fish.

Several bays and harbours lie round the island, some of which might be fortified to great advantage; so that it is very convenient for shipping, and has the happiness of not being subject to hurricanes. The chief port, called Lewis, is on the west side, in the middle of a large bay, with a sandy bottom; and it is said that a thousand vessels from three hundred to four hundred tons may ride secure from storms, and that a hundred ships of a thousand tons each may be moored in the harbour: besides, a large round basin, which is parted from it by a bank of sand,

if cut through would contain a considerable number of ships. At present large ships, on account of this sand-bank, pass within eighty paces of one of the mountains that lie at the mouth of the harbour; the opposite mountain lying at about half a mile distance. One of these mountains, when the English reduced the island, was strongly fortified, and might have made a good defence, but surrendered without firing a gun.

With respect to the history of this island, it will be proper to observe, that in 1638 the famous M. de Poincy attempting to make a settlement here, was driven off by the Caribbees. Afterwards M. Parquet, governor of Martinico, carried over two hundred men from that island, furnished with presents to procure the favour of the natives, and with arms to subdue them, should they prove untractable. The number of the French are said to have frightened the savages into submission; and we are told that their chief not only welcomed the new settlers, but, in consideration of their being presented with some hatchets, knives, scissars, toys, and the like, yielded to Parquet the property of the island, only reserving to themselves their habitations. The French began with raising tobacco, which proved remarkably good; but they had scarcely got in one crop, when they began to discover that all the seeming complaisance of the natives was dissembled; who now took every opportunity of cutting off their new guests. This produced a war, and the colony having received a reinforcement of three hundred men from Martinico, drove the natives to a mountain, where, having exhausted all their arrows and other weapons, they rolled down trunks of trees on their enemies. They were soon after joined by other savages from the neighbouring islands, and attacked the French with fresh vigour, but were again defeated; yet were so desperate, that forty of them who had escaped the sword, threw themselves from a precipice into the sea. The French then vented their rage on the habitations of the natives, levelled them with the ground, and destroyed their provisions.

Fresh supplies of Caribbees however arriving, the war was renewed, and they killed many of their enemies; on which the latter came to a resolution of exterminating the whole race upon the island, and a hundred and fifty attacking them by surprize, inhumanly murdered, not only the men, but the women and children; and likewise set fire to their canoes, to cut off all communication between the survivors and the Caribbees of the neighbouring islands. The French were here the savages, and not the Caribbees.

These barbarities exasperated the Caribbees still more against the French; they became their irreconcilable enemies, and by their frequent opposition at last obliged Parquet to desist from his design of peopling the island, his property in which he sold to the count de Cerillac in 1657 for thirty thousand crowns. The count sent thither as governor a person of brutal manners, who by his behaviour made the better sort of the French abandon it; and soon after he was shot by those that remained. In 1664 there remained no more than a hundred and fifty planters out of five hundred, who, when the count bought it, were settled on the island; yet he sold it to the French West India company for a hundred thousand crowns: but in 1674 they were obliged to surrender all their rights in it to the king.

After this the island continued to be inhabited chiefly by the French; but was never fully settled. In the last war, when Granada was reduced by the English, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were so amazed at the reduction of Guadaloupe and Martinico, that they lost all spirit, and surrendered without making the least opposition. Afterwards the full property of this island, and of the Grenades, which bear nearly the same products as Grenada, were confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the definitive treaty of 1763, and are now in part settled by the subjects of Great Britain.

We have now concluded our account of the British dominions in America; an amazing tract of country, much improved, and still capable of immense improvements.

C H A P. V.

Of the FRENCH AMERICAN Dominions, particularly LOUISIANA,
and the FRENCH WEST INDIAN Islands.

S E C T. I.

Of LOUISIANA.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a concise Description of New Orleans; and some Observations with regard to the French Policy, with respect to their Colonies.

LOUISIANA was, till lately, considered as a much more extensive country than it is at present; M. de Lisle extending it on the north to Canada; on the east to the provinces of New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Carolina, and Georgia; on the south to the Gulph of Mexico; and on the west to New Mexico, New Spain, and unknown countries inhabited by Indians. But by the seventh article of the late treaty of peace, a great part of this country, containing all on the east-side the river Mississippi, was ceded to Great Britain; and of this we have already given as accurate an account as it was possible for us to obtain.

The country at present named Louisiana, extends from the twenty-ninth to the fortieth degree of north-latitude, and from about the eighty-eighth to the ninety-sixth or ninety-seventh degree west-longitude from London. The soil is very indifferent near the mouth of the Mississippi; but the country contains a great deal of excellent land, well stocked with a variety of trees, planted by the hand of nature; the soil on the south is adapted to the cultivation of indigo, cotton, tobacco, and rice, and the north, to that of wheat; but several spots of great extent, on the eastern side of the Mississippi, are no less fertile.

With respect to the vegetables, and the wild animals, they are, in general, the same as those we have described in treating of Virginia, and the other British plantations. The Mississippi, with the many smaller rivers that water this country, abound with a variety of fish; but their banks are much infested with alligators, and snakes of a very large size; as the air of the low-lands, near the rivers, is with musketoes.

The isle of Orleans, at the mouth of the Mississippi, is a very beautiful and fertile spot of ground, on which the French have a considerable city, named New Orleans, which is the capital, and indeed the only city of Louisiana. It is fortified in a regular manner, and according to some French authors, has about six hundred handsome houses, and five parish churches; with straight and handsome streets, that cross each other at right angles: but the buildings are chiefly of wood, and not remarkable for their beauty.

The French have several other settlements in the country, and are supposed by major Rogers, to amount to about one hundred thousand; the negroes are also very numerous; and he observes, that as the number of the inhabitants increases very fast, it may in a short time become a very formidable colony.

Before we proceed farther, in the description of the French colonies, it will give some satisfaction to the reader to know the plan of conduct which France has pursued, with regard to this interesting and important subject. They are sensible that as the mother-country is ultimately to receive all the benefits of their labours and acquisitions, the prosperity of their plantations must be derived from the attention with which they are regarded at home: for this reason, the plantations are particularly under the care and inspection of the council of commerce, a board composed of twelve of the most considerable officers of the crown, assisted by the deputies of all the considerable trading cities and towns in France, who are chosen out of the richest and most intelligent of their traders, and paid a handsome salary for their at-

tendance at Paris, from the funds of their respective cities. This council sits once a week, when the deputies propose plans for redressing every grievance in trade; for raising the branches that are fallen; for extending new ones; for supporting the old; and in fine, for every thing that may improve the working, or promote the vent of their manufactures, according to their own lights, or the instructions of their constituents. They have a watchful eye upon every article of commerce; and not only propose improvements themselves, but hear the proposals of others, which are neither disdainfully rejected, nor rashly received. They neither render the access to them difficult, by affecting state; nor admit the vexatious practice of fees, and perquisites, in their inferior officers; nor suffer forms and methods to load and incumber that business they were solely intended to advance. They summon and examine those who are supposed to be the most competent judges of the matter before them, even the meanest artificers; but though they examine these men, they are determined by their own opinion. When they are satisfied of the usefulness of any regulation, they propose it to the royal council, where their report is always received with particular attention. An edict to enforce it accordingly issues; and is executed with a punctuality that distinguishes their government, and which alone can render the wisest regulations any thing better than serious mockeries. To this body the care of the plantations is particularly entrusted.

The government of their several colonies is in a governor, an intendant, and a royal council. The governor is invested with a great deal of power; which on the side of the crown, is checked by the intendant, who has the care of the king's rights, and whatever relates to the revenue; and on the side of the people, it is checked by the royal council, whose office it is to see that the people are not oppressed by the one, nor defrauded by the other; and they are all checked by the constant and jealous eye which the government at home keeps over them; the officers of all the ports of France being charged, under the severest penalties, to interrogate all captains of ships coming from the colonies, on the reception they met with at the ports to which they have sailed? how justice was administered to them? what charges they were made liable to, and of what kinds?

That the colonies may be as little burthened as possible, the governor's salary is paid by the crown: he has no perquisites, and is strictly forbidden to carry on any trade, or to have any plantations in the islands, or on the continent; or any interest whatever in goods or lands within his government, except the house he lives in, and a garden for his convenience and recreation. All the other officers are paid by the crown, out of the revenues of the mother country; the fortifications are built and repaired, and the soldiers paid out of the same funds.

In all the French islands judges of the admiralty are appointed, to decide in a summary manner all disputes between merchants, and whatever has any relation to trade. These judges, before they are appointed, are strictly examined as to their skill in the marine laws, which have been improved and digested in France, with such care and good sense, that all law-suits are quickly decided; though in other respects, the practice of the law admits of as much chicanery, and has as many, if not more delays, than with us.

That the colonies may be properly replenished with people, every ship that sails from France for America, is obliged to carry a certain number of indented servants: thus all vessels of sixty tons, or under, are to carry three

three; from sixty to a hundred, four; and from a hundred and upwards, six servants, of sound and strong bodies, between the ages of eighteen and forty. Before their departure, they are examined by the officers of the admiralty, to see whether they are the persons required by law; as they are also by the commissary, on their landing in America, where they are to serve three years. The avarice of the planters makes them always prefer negro slaves, because they are more in subjection than the Europeans, may be more worked, are subsisted with less difficulty, and are besides the entire property of their master, which would in time render the safety of the colony extremely precarious. The planters are therefore obliged to keep a certain number of white servants in proportion to their blacks; and the execution of this law is enforced by the commissary, who adjusts the price, and forces the planters to take the number of servants required by the ordinance, who would otherwise be a burden upon the masters of ships who brought them.

As to the negroes, they are not left, as with us, with their bodies and souls wholly at the discretion of the planter. Their masters are obliged to have them instructed in the principles of the Romish religion. Methods are also taken to protect the slaves from the cruelty of the planters, and to preserve the colony from the ill effects that might arise from treating them with a lenity not consistent with their condition. In short, the Code Noir, and other ordinances relative to these unhappy beings, shew a very just and sensible mixture of humanity and steadiness. Their planters, however, as well as ours, have the common error of working these unhappy creatures in a manner not suitable to their constitutions, and the nature of the climate.

We shall only add, that all debts, though contracted by the planters in France, are levied with great ease; for the process being properly authenticated, is transmitted to America, where it is admitted as proved, and levied on the planter's estate, of whatever kind it be. Care is however taken, that while compulsory methods are used to make the planter do justice, the state shall not lose the benefit arising from the industry of an useful member of the community; the debt is always levied according to the substance of the debtor; in such a manner, that one of the parties is not sacrificed to the other; the creditor is satisfied; the debtor is not ruined; and the credit of the colonies is kept up at home, by the sure methods that are used for recovering all demands in the plantations.

Some of these regulations, for which we are obliged to a judicious work lately published, entitled, *An Account of the European Settlements in America*, would doubtless be of great use, were they to be introduced into our colonies, especially the islands, where proper regulations are much wanted, and where they might be easily rendered conformable to the mode of those royal governments.

SECT. II.

Of HISPANIOLA, or ST. DOMINGO.

Its Name, Situation, Extent, Climate, and Produce. A concise Account of the Buccaneers, and the Manner in which a Part of this Island became Subject to the French. Their Trade; the principal Places in the Island; with a concise Account of St. Lewis, and of the Isle of Vache, or Cows-Island.

WE shall now proceed to the island of Hispaniola, or St. Domingo, which was discovered by Columbus in his first voyage in 1492, and by him called Hispaniola; but afterwards building a city, which he called St. Domingo, in honour of his father Dominic, the name was first extended to that quarter, and at length the whole island was called St. Domingo, by which name it is as well known as by that of Hispaniola.

This island, part of which belongs to the Spaniards, is the largest of all the Antilles, next to Cuba, it extending from the seventeenth degree thirty-seven minutes,

to the twentieth degree north latitude, and from the sixty-seventh degree thirty-five minutes, to the seventy-fourth degree fifteen minutes west longitude; it being about four hundred and twenty-six miles from east to west, and almost one hundred and twenty-four where broadest, from north to south. It lies in the middle between Cuba and Jamaica, on the north-west and south-west, and Porto Rico on the east, and is separated from the latter only by a narrow channel.

The climate is extremely hot, but cooled and refreshed by breezes, yet the air is not reckoned unwholesome; for some of the inhabitants are said to live to above a hundred years of age. Its salubrity is said to be owing in a great measure to its beautiful variety of hills and vallies, woods and rivers, which every where present themselves to the view.

This island is allowed to be the most fruitful and the pleasantest in the West Indies; its forests contain cabbage-trees, palms, elms, oaks, pines, and other trees, taller and larger, with more beautiful and better tasted fruit than in most of the other islands, particularly pine-apples, bananas, oranges, lemons, citrons, limes, grapes, dates, and apricots. Here are also all the birds common to the West Indies. In the savannas, or meadows, are innumerable herds of black cattle, that run wild in the country; horses enough in the French part of it to supply all their neighbouring colonies, besides wild horses and wild hogs of the breed brought over by the Spaniards. The hunters shoot the beves for their hides, as they do in Cuba: besides, there is scarce a country in the world better watered, either by brooks or navigable rivers, which are all full of fish, as the coast is with turtle. In the sands of these rivers gold-dust is found, and it had formerly mines of gold, silver, and copper.

The chief commodities of the island are hides, sugar, indigo, cotton, cacao, coffee, ginger, tobacco, salt, wax, honey, ambergrise, and various kinds of drugs and wood for dying; but it produces little corn. The French here are said to equal, if not outnumber, the Spaniards, who both together fall very short of what the extent and fertility of the island is capable of supporting.

This country was treated with the utmost severity by the Spaniards, who in battle and cold blood destroyed no less than three millions of men, women, and children, and entirely extirpated the inhabitants, by many of whom, at their first settlement in this island, they had been treated with kindness.

We have already mentioned the Spaniards attempting to ruin St. Christopher's, when divided between the English and French; but by this unjust act they brought upon themselves a very severe revenge: for several of the French inhabitants, who were expelled from St. Christopher's, being reduced to great indigence, began to think of desperate courses. They betook themselves to piracy, and uniting with some English, Dutch, and other resolute fellows, they resolved to begin a piratical war with the Spaniards. At first they satisfied themselves with taking their ships, and destroying their trade. This they did effectually; but soon encouraged, and strengthened by this success, they landed upon the continent of New Spain and Terra Firma, burning and plundering the open country. Their number and boldness increasing with their success, they assembled and took some of their strongest fortresses and opulent cities, particularly Porto Bello, Campeachy, and Maracaibo; they even took the city of Panama by storm, and burnt it, after defeating an army which came to its relief. In all these places, and in the others they had taken, they gained an incredible booty, and committed the most unheard of cruelties. Another party of these pirates passing the streights of Magellan, and entering the South Sea, rendered the whole coast of Peru, Chili, and the coast of Mexico one scene of desolation; while they were every where attended with success, because they every where acted with the bravery and conduct that, in a more just cause, would have merited the highest honours.

These pirates, whom we improperly call Buccaneers, the French denominated Flibustiers, from the Dutch fly-boats, in which they made their first expeditions. The Buccaneers are persons who hunt wild cattle in America

merica for their hides and tallow: some of whom joined the Flibustiers in their first expeditions, and from them the English gave the name of Buccaneers to the whole body. These people frequently brought their prizes and plunder to Jamaica, as we have already observed, by which they greatly enriched that island. Others finding that the Spaniards were so weak in Hispaniola that they had in a manner deserted a considerable part of the island, made it a place of rendezvous. They who hunted the cattle found the deserts left by the Spanish tyranny a proper place for exercising their proper professions. To these two sorts of people were added a third, who were some of the French in the Lesser Antilles; who finding how much might be gained by supplying men who were lavish in their expences, and not very exact in their bargains, and perceiving that no part of America afforded a better soil, passed over to the island, and exercised the employment of planters and merchants. These three sorts of people, who were mutually of use to each other, lived in very good harmony. Indeed they were several times dislodged by the Spaniards; but they still returned with new strength; so that it was with difficulty that the Spaniards were able to retain one part of the island.

The French court beheld in silence the progress of these people, and whenever complaints were made they disavowed their proceedings: but when they at length found the French in Hispaniola numerous, strong, and wealthy, they owned them as subjects, sent them a governor, and regular forces to defend them in what they had done: the old method of piracy was still connived at, while the trade of skins increased and the plantations extended. At length the French obtained a legal right by the cession which the Spaniards made them of the north-west part of the island, by the treaty of Ryswic in 1697, the best and most fertile part; and this is the principal settlement of the French in the West Indies, and in all America.

This settlement begins at a large plain called Bahaia on the north side of the island, about thirty leagues east of Cape Francois, extending all along the coast; from thence to the west, reaching on the south side as far as Cape Morgon; it being two hundred leagues in circuit, and, including the windings, about a hundred more.

This colony, if it may be so called, has since met with great encouragement from France, which in 1726 had no less than thirty thousand whites, and a hundred thousand negroes; they made sixty thousand hogheads of sugar of five hundred weight each; the indigo was half as much in value as the sugar; they likewise exported large quantities of cotton, and also sent a considerable quantity of cacao and ginger to France. Since that time they have raised coffee here to a very great amount, and all the other branches of their commercial products have since that period increased to an astonishing degree. A Spanish writer of great judgment, who was well informed, and who wrote about seventeen years ago, reckons the produce of the plantations near Cape Francois, the capital of French Hispaniola, and which were exported from that single town, at thirty thousand tons in sugar, tobacco, indigo, and coffee, which at the lowest calculation cannot amount to less than six hundred thousand pounds sterling. If to this be added the exports of the two considerable ports of Petit Guaves and Leogane, and the other inferior ones, which are supposed to send out at least as much as the capital, the exported produce of the island must be annually worth one million two hundred thousand pounds. There is another branch of trade of extraordinary advantage to the mother-country, which is that they carry on with the Spaniards wholly in the manufactures of France, and for which they receive their returns in silver; and this article alone is said to bring annually to France no less than two millions of dollars.

The principal places in the island are Cape Francois, which is situated on the northern part, and is by the French often called the Cape, by way of eminence. It stands in the nineteenth degree thirty-five minutes north latitude, and in the sixty-eighth degree forty-nine minutes

west longitude, and contains about eight thousand whites and blacks. In the middle of it is a spacious square, about three hundred paces in length and breadth, at which seven or eight streets terminate: but this town was destroyed in the beginning of the reign of king William by the English and Spaniards in conjunction. The town is neither walled nor paled in, and is said to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town.

Leogane, on the west side, though inferior in point of size, is a good port, a place of considerable trade, and the seat of the French government, which is in the hands of the governor and an intendant, who are mutually a check upon each other. There are besides two other towns considerable for their trade, Petit Guaves at the west end of the island, and Port Louis on the south-west part.

The capital city belonging to the Spaniards is St. Domingo, situated in the eighteenth degree seven minutes north latitude, and in the sixty-ninth degree twenty-seven minutes west longitude. It is a large well-built city, with a good port, and has several magnificent structures, particularly the houses of the king of Spain's collectors; with a fine cathedral, seven large monasteries, and two nunneries; besides a mint, and a college, which has a revenue of four hundred ducats; an university, and an hospital endowed with twenty thousand ducats a year. This city is the seat of an archbishop, and the residence of the governor-general of the Spanish Indies and of the judges of the royal courts. The greatest part of the little trade the Spaniards have in this island is carried on from this port, which has fifteen fathoms water at the bar, is large and safe, it being defended by several batteries and a castle, with other fortifications. The town is built of stone after the Spanish manner, and has a large square market-place in the middle of it, about which are the cathedral and other public buildings; and from this square the principal streets run in a direct line, they being crossed by others at right angles. The town is almost of a quadrangular form, and its situation very delightful, between a large navigable river on the west, the ocean on the south; and a fine fruitful country on the north and east.

In the French part of Hispaniola are the two following islands.

St. Louis is about six leagues to the north-east of the isle of Vache, and is scarce half a mile long and not a quarter of a mile over; but the French have here a fort. This island is just high enough not to be over-flown at high water. It is separated from Hispaniola by a strait not three quarters of a mile in breadth, where small vessels ride in deep water close to the shore. There is not a drop of fresh water in the island, and the rain soaks through it immediately as if it were a sieve; so that those who live upon it fetch their water every day from a little river in Hispaniola, at the distance of a mile and a half. In 1737, an hurricane in this little island levelled a town with the ground, except the church and two houses: several dwellings about the fort were also blown down; the ships that were at anchor under it were cast upon the coast, or driven out to sea; but some vessels and magazines were burnt by lightning, several persons were drowned, and all the sugar-canes and cotton trees in the island and its neighbourhood were destroyed.

Vache, or Cows-Island, is about three leagues from Hispaniola, and five or six leagues in length. The soil is very good, and it has two or three tolerable ports, one of which is able to receive ships of three hundred tons burthen. The island is conveniently seated for a trade with the Spanish colonies on the continent of America, and for maintaining an intercourse with the island of Cayenne, the only French settlement on the coast of South America. It received its name from its being used for the grazing of black cattle and hogs, and here the Buccaneers used formerly to rendezvous to share the spoils they took from the Spaniards.

There are many other small islands round Hispaniola, most of which are uninhabited.

S E C T. III.

Of ST. BARTHOLOMEW, MARIGALANTE,
and DESEADA.

*Their Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a short View
of their History.*

ST. Bartholomew's is situated in the eighteenth degree north latitude, and in the sixty-second degree thirty minutes west longitude, twenty-five miles north of St. Christopher's, and thirty north-east of Saba; it is reckoned only fifteen miles in circumference, but produces tobacco and cassava, and is covered with trees that give it a delightful appearance, as the sope tree, the calabash tree, the canapia tree, which yields a very pleasant and salutary gum, lignum-vitæ, and iron-wood. On the shore are found the fish called the sea-star and the sea-apple; and has also an infinite variety of birds. It has, however, no fresh water, but the rain saved by the inhabitants in cisterns. It is encompassed by so many rocks, that it is dangerous for ships of great burthen to come near it. The harbour is, however, a very good one, and from thence in time of war the French greatly annoy our trade.

This island was peopled in 1648, by Poincy the French governor of St. Christopher's; and as the soil was thought but indifferent, the French were suffered to enjoy it without molestation till the year 1689, when Sir Timothy Thornhill landed upon it. The inhabitants had, during their long tranquility, fortified their island with batteries and breast-works, which extended over two acres of ground, and were double palisaded round with stakes six feet high. Sir Timothy however made himself master of these works, and after ravaging the island, carried off about seven hundred of the inhabitants with their cattle and effects, sending the men to Nevis, and the women to St. Christopher's. The English government thinking this proceeding too severe, suffered the inhabitants to return to the island, but they were to possess it as English subjects. However, at the peace of Ryswic it was restored to the crown of France. During the first war with France, that broke out under George II. this island was so convenient to the French for privateering, that above fifty English ships were carried into its harbour; and therefore, two privateers from Antigua attacked the French by surprize, and reduced the inhabitants before they had time to defend themselves, making near four hundred white people prisoners, of whom one hundred and forty were fit to bear arms, and also three hundred negroes. It was however restored to the French, who have retained the possession of it ever since. Its chief productions for exportation are drugs and lignum vitæ, with lime-stone, which the inhabitants send to the neighbouring islands.

The island of Marigalante is seated in the sixty-first degree west longitude, and in the fifteenth degree forty minutes north latitude, about thirty miles north-east of Dominica, and forty south-east of Guadaloupe: it was discovered by Columbus in 1493, who gave it the name of his own ship.

This island, which is about sixteen miles from north to south, and four from east to west, is full of hills; along the eastern shore run high rocks, so perpendicular, that they seem formed by art, and give shelter to a prodigious number of tropic birds, they being as full of holes as a pigeon-house. On the south-east side of the island are black rocks; but the western shore is plain. The island has several large grottos, with many little streams and ponds of fresh water: it is covered with trees; and particularly abounds with tobacco, and the wild cinnamon tree. Its product is the same with the rest of the Caribbee islands, and the plantations are on the south side. At the time of its being last reduced by the British arms, it annually produced no more than a thousand hogheads of sugar.

The French began to send colonies hither about the year 1647; and, after a long contest, remained in possession of it; but it was afterwards twice plundered by the Dutch; and in 1691, general Codrington and comodore Wright failed thither from the Leeward islands,

and landing their men, took the town and fort without opposition, made the governor and his lieutenant prisoners, and ruined the plantations. Since that time Marigalante could scarcely be called an object of military operations, and the English became twice masters of it, exclusive of its last submission, without resistance, and by the late definitive treaty it was restored to France.

Deseada, or Desirada, that is, The Desireable Island, received its name from Columbus, it being the first of the Caribbee Islands he discovered in his second voyage in 1493. It is situated in the sixteenth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the sixty-first degree twenty minutes west longitude; about twenty miles to the north-east of Guadaloupe. It extends sixteen miles in length, and two in breadth. Some part of it is very fertile, the soil being proper for the cultivation of sugar and cotton, of which last it produces the best in all the French islands. Deseada was of importance during the late war, on account of the convenient shelter its ports afforded to privateers; it was however then taken by the English; but was restored to France by the definitive treaty of 1763.

S E C T. IV.

Of GUADALOUPE.

Its Name, Situation, Mountains; with a particular Description of a Volcano, called the Mount of Sulphur. The Climate, Vegetables, and Animals. With a concise Account of the little Islands called Xaintes, or All-Saints. A History of Guadaloupe, and an Account of its Trade.

THE island of Guardaloupe, or Guadaloupe, was thus called by Columbus, from the resemblance of its mountains to those of that name in Spain. It is situated in the sixteenth degree six minutes north latitude, and in the sixty-second degree west longitude, about thirty leagues to the north-west of Martinico, and is the largest, as well as the finest island belonging to the French in those parts, it being about forty-five miles in length, and thirty-eight in breadth; and is divided into two parts by a small arm of the sea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ship can venture; but the inhabitants pass it in a ferry-boat. The country on the east side, which is called Grand Terra, is destitute of fresh water, which abounds in the other division, and is defended by fort Louis, with a redoubt which commands the road. The western part is called Basle Terra, and here the metropolis stands, which is defended by a citadel and other fortifications.

This island is encumbered with many high mountains and precipices, to which the inhabitants used to convey their most valuable effects in time of danger: here are also many beautiful plains watered by brooks and rivers, which fertilize the soil, and enable it to produce a great quantity of sugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, and cassia; bananas, pine-apples, rice, maize, ginger, mandioca, and potatoes.

In this island is a hill, called the Mountain of Sulphur, which rises to a great height; the top of it is bare, with nothing upon it but fern, and some sorry shrubs laden with moss; but it affords a fine view of Dominica, Marigalante, Martinico, Montserrat, Nevis, and the other neighbouring islands. Upon the highest part is a rugged platform covered with burnt stones of all sizes, and from several clefts and chinks issue smoke. On the east side are two mouths which open into a pit of sulphur, one of which is an oval hole of about a hundred feet in its greatest diameter, out of which also frequently rises thick clouds of black smoke, accompanied with sparks of fire. The negroes who sell brimstone fetch it from this mountain. About two hundred paces below the lowest of these mouths are three pools of very hot water, four or five paces from one another; that of the largest is very dark coloured, and smells like the water in smith's forges: the second is whitish, and has the taste of allum: the third is blue, and has a vitriolic taste. Here are also several small springs, which uniting their streams, form several torrents. The middle and bottom of this burning mountain are extremely different from

from the top of it, they being covered with tall trees and herbage; watered by a number of rivulets, and cultivated with all possible care and industry.

Near the little island of Goyaves are found springs that are boiling hot, and are said to contain many medicinal properties, particularly in the cure of dropsies.

In the Grand Terre are several indentings made by the sea and the land, capacious enough to shelter vessels from storms, and shaded by palmeto trees, to which they may be fastened. That called the Great Col de Sac affords excellent riding for ships of all burthens.

The air is clear and salubrious, and among the vegetables are the copau tree, famous for its sanative balsam or oil: the milk shrub, from whose fibres are prest a liquor that resembles milk; and the corbary tree, which bears fruit covered with a shell, within which is a downy pulp of a saffron colour, that yields a gum, which being hardened in the sun becomes very clear and solid, so that the native Caribbees formerly used it for bracelets and other ornaments.

The most remarkable bird is one said to be peculiar to this island and Dominica, though it is a bird of passage. It is called the devil bird, from the blackness of its plumage, and is of the size of a young pullet. Its wings are long, its legs short, and its feet, which are like those of a duck, have strong claws: its beak is crooked, sharp, hard, and in length about an inch and a half: its eyes are large, and serve to distinguish fish, which it catches at night in the sea; but it is unable to bear the light in the day-time when flying; so that these birds often rush upon interposing objects and fall down. After their fishing in the night they repair to the Devil's Mountain, where they lodge by pairs in holes like rabbits. They continue there during the months of October and November, tho' they are seen singly in other months; but all of them disappear in May, and are never seen again till September. The negroes of the island have a peculiar way of hunting these birds with dogs and hawks. Their flesh, when cured of its fishy taste, is good and nourishing food, and, during their season, the negroes and poor of the island subsist upon them.

The gulphs on the coasts of Guadaloupe contain turtles, sharks, land-crabs, and many kinds of fish.

The bees of Guadaloupe are entirely different from those of Europe, they being black, smaller, and without stings. They never hive but in hollow trees, and their wax, which is of a dark purple approaching to black, is too soft for candles, and cannot be bleached. These bees, instead of making combs, deposit their honey in bladders of wax, of about the form and size of a pigeon's egg: but this honey is said never to harden, nor become of any other consistence than that of olive oil.

The island is pestered with an insect called a raver, shaped like a May bug, of an offensive smell, and preying upon paper, books, and furniture; and whatever they do not gnaw is discoloured by their ordure. These offensive insects, which are very numerous and appear chiefly by night, would be intolerable, were it not for a large spider which entangles them in its web, and takes all opportunities of surprizing them, on which account the inhabitants are very careful not to offer the least injury to these spiders.

Under the government of Guadaloupe are comprehended Desada, just described, and the islands of Xaintes, or All Saints. These last are three in number, and their soil is pretty much the same with that of Guadaloupe. The westernmost island, which is the best, is about nine miles in compass; but none of these islands seem ever to have been properly inhabited, on account of their being destitute of fresh water, though they produce all the other necessaries of life.

We have no account of the history of this island from the time of Columbus to the institution of the French general company of the American islands in 1635, who being unable of themselves to plant or cultivate their islands, empowered M. St. Olive, their lieutenant-general of St. Christopher's, and M. du Pleffis, to contract with some merchants of Dieppe for settling Guadaloupe. The religious differences in France soon produced adventurers, who, besides the inducement of enjoying liberty of conscience, were stimulated by views of interest.

Those merchants contracted with four hundred men, who were obliged to serve them four years, but many of the protestant adventurers were far from imagining that the new settlement was under the direction of cardinal Richlieu, who sent with them four Dominican friars, provided with full powers from pope Urban VIII.

The adventurers happened to make an unfortunate choice of the place on which they landed, for the soil was bad: as an addition to this misfortune, D'Olive and Du Pleffis disagreed in the partition of their command, and had been guilty of an unpardonable oversight, in not being provided with sufficient stores; for on examining them, they found no more left than could maintain them for two months, on which the two chiefs dividing them, as well as the men and ammunition, agreed to separate.

The natives, so far from shewing any dislike to them, assisted them in raising their huts, and not only furnished them with cassava bread, but with seed for raising tobacco, cotton, and pease; and taught them to catch turtle and fish. The French probably made an ungrateful return for this kindness, since they were soon after afflicted with a dreadful famine, of which many died: others retired to St. Christopher's, and those who remained were reduced to the horrible necessity of devouring even the dead bodies of their companions, which they dug from their graves. Mean while a ship arriving from Dieppe with one hundred and forty men, landed a month's provision; but that being spent, the famine and mortality still continued. However, by some means or other, some of them lived for near five years; but their bodies were reduced to such a state of weakness, as to be unable to clear the ground, or raise either corn, plants, roots, or fruit.

Amidst these calamities Du Pleffis died, and the command devolved solely on D'Olive, whose insatiable avarice and cruelty equalled the affliction of the famine. D'Olive broke with the natives, numbers of whom he massacred, as the readiest means of procuring subsistence. They applied to the Caribbees of the neighbouring islands, who attacking the French, such numbers were cut off, that those who remained scarce deserved the name of a colony. During this period it appears several reinforcements were sent them both from Europe and St. Christopher's; but the French writers tell us, that all their convoys of provisions miscarried. Mean while D'Olive's ambition for command would not even suffer him to entertain the thoughts of resigning this miserable colony; and he sent over a Dominican, as his agent to the court of France, which was filled with complaints against him, to solicit speedy supplies. The Dominican represented the colonists as rebellious heretics, and D'Olive was appointed sole governor of the colony. The governor on receiving his commission, assembled his officers to hear it read; but while this ceremony was performing, the Dominican church, with all its rich furniture, was consumed by fire. D'Olive's repeated applications for fresh supplies were now without effect, and the dreadful situation he was in affected his brain; and becoming blind, he went to St. Christopher's, where he was put under an arrest by M. de Poincy, governor-general of the French islands. Supplies of men were now sent to Guadaloupe; but their officers behaved with such tyranny, that the men broke out into rebellion, and M. de Poincy was obliged to send over five hundred men from St. Christopher's to reduce them.

The colony after this suffered greatly by other bad governors, by hurricanes, and by swarms of caterpillars.

It was afterwards under the New West-India Company; but in 1674, was taken into the king's hands, whose ministers adopted a commercial system, and it soon became the most flourishing colony subject to France. It was fortified with forts and redoubts, which were in so good a condition in 1702, when admiral Bembow made a descent upon the island, with a considerable body of land forces, that he did not think proper to attack them; but was satisfied with destroying many of their plantations and open villages.

However, in 1759 a fleet of ten men of war, besides frigates and bomb-ketches, under the command of com-

modore Moore, with a body of land forces commanded by general Hopson, after making an unsuccessful attack on Martinico, sailed for Guadaloupe. This squadron began to bombard the town and citadel of Basse Terre, and notwithstanding many batteries erected on the shore, the houses and churches were that night every where in flames, and the powder of the magazines blown about the enemies ears. The next day the English landed, and found both the town and citadel abandoned, but the island was far from being taken. The French, with their armed negroes, threw up intrenchments on the mountains, and bravely resolved to defend themselves as long as possible. Soon after general Hopson died, and the command devolved upon major general Barrington. The English were harrassed by perpetual alarms, and fatigued with constant duty; they however gained one pass after another, and still advanced, alert in the hour of caution, and invincible whenever they attacked. They frequently suffered from concealed fires out of the woods, and from lurking parties of armed negroes, that could not be discovered. At length the French governor, finding all resistance vain, sent a flag of truce, by which means Guadaloupe was surrendered to the English.

After the French king took Guadaloupe under his immediate protection, it became incomparably the most profitable colony belonging to that crown. Many mercantile writers of great credit, who were upon that island, after its being conquered by the English, confidently affirmed that before that period, it produced more sugar than all the British sugar islands put together: some have raised the quantity annually exported from Guadaloupe, and its dependencies, to the incredible number of one hundred and fifty thousand hogsheds; but more moderate calculations have fixed them at one hundred thousand, besides its coffee, cinnamon, and other commodities.

Since the French by the treaty of 1763, re-entered into possession of this island, they seem more sensible than ever of its importance, and have endeavoured to bring it nearly to the constitution of a Spanish colony, by publishing an ordinance that no foreign vessel should navigate nearer its coasts than the distance of a league, or send any boat ashore, without a written permission from the intendant, on the penalty of the confiscation of the vessel and cargo, paying three hundred livres, and suffering a year's imprisonment.

SECT. V.

Of MARTINICO.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, the Face of the Country, and its Produce. Its Government, principal Towns, Trade, and History.

MARTINICO is not only the chief, but the largest of the French Caribbee Islands, and is situated between the fourteenth and fifteenth degrees of north latitude, and between the sixtieth degree thirty-three minutes, and the sixty-first degree ten minutes west longitude, about twenty leagues north-west of Barbadoes. It is near sixty miles in length from the north-west to south-east; but is of a very unequal breadth, and about one hundred and thirty miles in compass.

The air is hotter here than at Guadaloupe, but hurricanes have neither been so frequent nor so violent as in that and some of the other Caribbee islands. Though Martinico is generally said to be healthful to the people settled upon it, yet it is certain, that the great quantity of water that runs through it, creates an humidity, very noxious to the constitutions of the inhabitants. The island is likewise much subject to epidemical diseases, which are chiefly brought over in ships from Asia and Africa.

The country is hilly within the land, and at a distance resembles three distinct mountains. Also on the north side are three rocks, so situated, that at sea, they give it the appearance of three separate islands.

It is said to have no less than forty rivers, some of which are navigable a great way up the country. However, besides the streams, which in the rainy season over-

flow the dales and savannas, there are ten rivers that are never dry, which run from the mountains into the sea, and sometimes overflowing their banks, carry away trees and houses. Some of the hills are cultivated, and on their steep ascents grows tobacco, which is better than that in the valleys: other hills are overgrown with trees, that afford shelter to wild beasts, and abundance of snakes. The other produce of the island is much the same with that of Barbadoes, namely, sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, aloes, pimento, Indian figs, bananas, pine apples, melons, cassia, mandiacas, potatoes, and other roots. With respect to the first, it is computed that here are made, one year with another, ten thousand hogsheds of sugar, each weighing about six hundred pounds weight. The chief provisions, besides hogs, are Guinea pigs, turkies, wood-pigeons, ortolans, frogs, and lizards. The coast abounds with commodious bays and harbours, in which are plenty of turtle.

Martinico is not only the chief of the French Caribbee Islands, but the residence of the governor-general and an intendant. It is likewise the seat of a sovereign council, which superintends all their other islands, and even their settlements in Hispaniola. This council consists of the governor-general, the intendant, the governor of the island, an attorney-general, the lieutenant-governor for the crown, and twelve counsellors. Their power is very extensive, for this council judges in the last resort upon all matters brought by way of appeal. The governor-general, if upon the island, is president of the council, or, during his absence, the intendant. If both are absent the eldest counsellor then present collects the votes, and pronounces the sentence of the court. The other officers of the island are two lieutenant-governors, one for Capes Terre, and another for Basse Terre, with a secretary of the marine, who has a very extensive commission. This island, before it was subdued by the English, could raise ten thousand white inhabitants fit to bear arms, and above forty thousand negroes. Besides this force, some companies of regulars were always quartered in the island; so that the French pretended that it was impregnable.

The principal places in Martinico are St. Peter's and Port Royal.

St. Peter's, the capital of Martinico, was built in 1665, in order to overawe the mutineers of the island, who rebelled against its proprietors, the second West India company, who were at the same time the proprietors of all the French Antilles. The town extends along the shore, and a battery, which commands the road, is erected on the west side, which is washed by the river Royolan, or St. Peter. The principal entry to the fort is from the east. Upon the high ground, which overlooks the town, is built a wall, which extends thirty-five fathoms, is well mounted with cannon, and has a large tower at each extremity: this fortification commands the parade and the town. The fort has neither ditch nor covert-way; but the walls are four feet and a half thick, with a parapet and battlements of stone; and the gates are defended by strong palisadoes. The parade is a square which extends each way about three hundred feet, and is surrounded on three sides by houses, from which run five streets, and on the other side is the fort. The town is divided into three wards; the middle, which is properly St. Peter's, begins at the fort, and runs westward to the battery of St. Nicholas, which is mounted with eleven guns, and is seated on an eminence. Under the walls of the second ward ships at anchor ride more securely than under the fort, on which account this ward is called the Anchorage; it extends from the battery of St. Nicholas to that of St. Robert, which bounds the town on the west side. The third ward, called the Gallery, extends along the sea-side from Fort St. Peter to the Jesuits river, and is the most populous part of the city; but the fortifications, formidable as they appear on paper, made a very inadequate defence against the English when they reduced the island. The houses of St. Peter's ward are neat, commodious, and elegant, particularly those of the governor of the island, the intendant, and the other officers. The parish-church of St. Peter is a magnificent stone building belonging to the Jesuits, a hundred and twenty feet long, and thirty-six wide, with a noble front of the Doric order. The church of the Anchorage, which belongs to the Jacobine

cobine friars, is likewise of stone, and is ninety feet long by thirty. There are also two chapels belonging to each church. Nothing can be more delightful than the walk from the yard in which this last church stands to the Jacobine convent. It is formed by two rows of fine orange trees, and crossed by two others half a mile in length. The kitchen-garden of the convent is furnished with all kinds of delicious fruit. The Jesuits cloyster is built with marble and free-stone, and commands a very fine prospect over a great variety of gardens and vineyards.

Fort Royal, the next place of great consequence in Martinico, is twenty-one miles distance by land, and twenty-seven by water from Fort St. Peter, but the road is so very inconvenient, that travellers generally chuse to go by water. This fort is built on an eminence fifteen fathoms above the surface of the sea, by which it is almost surrounded, there being only a neck of land about fifteen fathoms over; so that the fort may be said to be built on an isthmus. It is of earth, and defended by two small demi-bastions and a half-moon, a wet ditch, a glacis, and a covert-way palisadoed. On the flank of one of the demi-bastions is the harbour, from which a flight of steps leads up to a fortified platform. On that side the fort is shut up by a double wall, and towards the sea is a parapet with some port-holes. The soil on which the town is built is a kind of quicksand, but though it contains regular streets and a large church belonging to the Capuchins, it is said to be much inferior to St. Peter's.

Cul de Sac Robert is seated in a large bay almost two leagues deep, with two small islands at its entrance, which, by breaking the force of the waves, render the bay a fine, safe, natural harbour; for it will hold many of the largest ships, and these may in several places reach the shore by a plank.

Fort Trinity lies at the bottom of Trinity-bay, and is formed by Point de Caravel on the east side, and on the west by an isthmus about two hundred feet broad. The lieutenant governor of Capes Terre has his residence in Trinity Town, in which are a considerable number of merchants, and, for its convenient situation for the European trade, and the safety of its port, is become one of the most thriving places in the island, it having very considerable manufactures of cotton, sugar, cocoa, and other commodities, the produce of the island being much the same with that of Barbadoes.

In 1637 M. d'Esnambuc brought from St. Christopher's, which then belonged to the crown of France, a hundred soldiers to Martinico, all well provided for forming a colony. He landed at Bassé Terre, which lies on the west and south parts of the island, and it is said the inhabitants yielded up all that coast, on which he built a fort called St. Peter. The natives retiring to Cape Terre, the new colonists applied themselves to the cultivation of potatoes, cotton, mandiaca, and tobacco; and d'Esnambuc retiring to St. Christopher's, left du Pont, his lieutenant, governor in Martinico. The French pretend that the inhabitants forming plots against them murdered them whenever they had an opportunity, but by their own accounts they were the aggressors. Hostilities daily multiplying, they gave no quarter to the natives, who sending to the neighbouring islands, were joined by other Caribbees, to the number of fifteen hundred, who landed from their canoes under their fort. The French governor had removed all his men and provisions within his intrenchments, and the Caribbees, imagining the fort to be abandoned, advanced within pistol-shot of the walls. This was what du Pont had foreseen, and watching his time, he poured upon them a full discharge of his cannon and musketry, which killing one-half of them, the survivors fled to their canoes. This secured the French the quiet possession of their settlements, which they greatly enlarged, and soon after the natives sued for peace.

The French now divided the island into five wards, or parishes, each containing a church, or chapel, an armoury, store-houses, dwelling-houses, and other conveniences. At length they learned from M. Poincy the art of cultivating the sugar-cane, from which they soon reaped great advantages.

About the year 1646 many of the inhabitants refused to pay their imposts to the West India company, which

produced an insurrection that was quelled by the death of the chief ringleaders. About this time the Portuguese recovering from the Dutch the possession of Brasil, the former landed at Martinico with some rich Jews who offered to settle there, which was strongly opposed by the Jesuits, on the pretence that they would introduce Judaism and heresy into the island; but the wealth with which they were possessed, induced the governor to allow them a settlement in a separate quarter. However, the climate not agreeing with them, many of them died, while others removed from the island, and the few who staid set up public-houses, by which they acquired fortunes.

At this time the Caribbees took arms, and nothing but the most horrid massacres ensued: many of the more dissolute among the French spirited up the natives, and Parquet, who was then governor, was besieged in his own house, where he must have perished had not some Dutch ships arrived, who seeing several parts of the island in flames, landed three hundred men, and defeated the natives. This gave Parquet an opportunity of taking the field, and the original inhabitants, together with the negroes who had joined them, were every where slaughtered or obliged to fly to Dominica and St. Vincent, by which means the French became masters of Capes Terre, and at last of the whole island.

In 1650, the old West-India company sold Martinico, St. Lucia, Grenada, and the Grenadines, to Parquet, for fifty thousand livres; but in 1664, Lewis XIV. obtained the possession of this island, and granted it to a new West-India company; but ten years after suppressed that company, and all the above islands became part of his domain. After this Martinico was attacked by the famous Dutch admiral De Ruyter; and the English made many unsuccessful expeditions against this island.

In 1700, the French settled in Martinico were computed at fifteen hundred, besides the negroes they employed, and a great number of Caribbees, who were readmitted into the island, but were obliged to work as slaves, and to live among the French, that they might have no opportunity of forming plots and conspiracies. In 1727, was a dreadful earthquake, which, with short intervals, lasted eleven hours, and threw down St. Peter's fort. Many people lost their lives, and besides churches, convents, and other public buildings, above two hundred sugar-works were ruined. One mountain was levelled, another cleft in two, and copious streams of water issued from the chasm. However, a few years recovered the island, the inhabitants having the Guadaloupe sugars shipped from hence, with many other advantages.

The English had in vain attempted to take Martinico, but in 1761 the court formed the resolution of sending an armament against that island superior to any that had ever been seen in those seas. Eleven battalions were drawn from New York, a considerable draught was made from the garrison of Belleisle, and all the troops that had been cantoned in the Leeward Islands were ordered to rendezvous at Barbadoes: general Monckton, who had bravely distinguished himself at the conquest of Quebec, was appointed to command the land forces, while rear admiral Rodney had the command of the fleet.

On the seventh of January following the whole armament arrived at St. Anne's-bay in Martinico, where Sir James Douglas, a captain under Mr. Rodney, silenced some batteries that were raised on the shore; but in this service the English lost the *Raisonable*, yet all her men, guns, and stores were saved. After having found a safe landing-place, and having silenced all the batteries, the troops landed without opposition. Several skirmishes passed after their being on shore, to the disadvantage of the French, and the English encamped upon the heights above the Cas de Navires; but upon examining the country they found the grounds intersected with gullies and ravines, with rivulets between them, and wherever they were passable the French had erected batteries for their defence.

Though the French regulars were not very formidable, yet the militia, the mulattoes, and negroes, all of whom were in arms, were numerous, brave, and well disciplined. The English happened to land at a place where there were greater obstructions than any-where else in the island.

island. The view of the army was bounded by two great eminences, Morne Garnier and Morne Tortonson, both of them fortified with the utmost care, though they seemed almost inaccessible by nature. Morne Tortonson was first to be attacked, and batteries were raised to defend the British troops in their passing a very wide gulley, lying between them and it. Three dispositions were made for the attack. It was begun by the grenadiers under major Grant; brigadier Rufane, with his division, assisted by a thousand seamen in flat-bottomed boats, fell upon the enemies redoubts along the shore; and brigadier Walsh, with his brigade, and the left infantry under colonel Scott, after attacking the left of a plantation, were to endeavour to get round the enemy. All these operations were performed with astonishing impetuosity and success. The attack began at break of day, and by nine in the morning the enemy, having been driven from post to post, were obliged to abandon Morne Tortonson to the English, who were to the last degree amazed, upon viewing its strength and situation, at the dangers they had surmounted, and the numerous redoubts of the French, all of them mounted with cannon. The enemy, after suffering severely, fled, part of them to Morne Garnier, and part of them to Fort Royal, the British grenadiers pursuing them to the bridge of the last mentioned place, where they even made some prisoners.

General Monckton took possession of certain posts proper for carrying on the attack against Morne Garnier, and erected batteries on Morne Tortonson for carrying on that against Fort Royal. Some days after the French presuming that their enemies were entirely discouraged, and wanted only a pretext to make the best of their way back to their ships, attacked the British light infantry, and colonel Haviland's brigade, who, with the utmost ardour and intrepidity, repelled their enemies, improved their own defensive situation into a most vigorous charge, and being well supported, pursued the enemy across the ravine, where they seized their batteries, and took post even in the enemy's redoubt; and happily improving the advantage, Morne Garnier was by nine at night, with all its works, in the possession of the English.

General Monckton now prepared to batter the citadel of Fort Royal, from the eminences he had gained, which the enemy perceiving, on the third of February beat the chamade, and accepted of a capitulation.

The conquest of Martinico in a manner closed the operations between the English and French in America, during the late war. It even struck the court of Versailles with greater consternation than they had even felt for the loss of Canada, and the rather because their ministers at foreign courts had, in no very decent terms, reproached that of London with want of judgment in fitting out an armament against an island, that might securely bid defiance to all their power, by its artificial, as well as natural strength, and the number, spirit, and martial disposition of its inhabitants. The people of Martinico remained with great tranquility under the military government of the English during the short time they held it, and even seemed well pleased at their change of masters. In short, this island was restored to the French by the definitive treaty of 1763.

We have now finished the description of the French Caribbee Islands, only it is necessary here to observe, that St. Lucia, which, by mistake, we have placed among the islands ceded to Great Britain, was delivered to France by the late treaty of peace, and ought to have been placed here.

St. Croix, or Santa Cruz, another of the Caribbee Islands, has, till very lately, been considered as belonging to France, and is therefore placed among the islands of that nation in Salmon's Grammar, and all the other geographical works in which it is mentioned; but being deserted by France, it was seized by the late king of Denmark.

SECT. VI.

Of CAYENNE, or EQUINOCTIAL FRANCE.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a concise Description of the Isle of Cayenne.

THE country we are now to describe lies on the coast of Terra Firma, and consists of a part of the continent, and an island called Cayenne.

Equinoctial France is seated between the equator and the fifth degree of north latitude, and between the fiftieth and fifty-fifth degree of west longitude, extending two hundred and forty miles along the coast, and three hundred miles within land; it being bounded on the north by Surinam, on the east by the Atlantic ocean, on the south by Amazonia, and on the west by Guiana.

All the coast is very low, but within land there are fine hills very proper for settlements; the French have, however, not yet extended them so far as they might; but they raise the same commodities which they have from the Caribbee Islands, and in no inconsiderable quantities. With respect to the climate, vegetables, and animals, we shall give a particular account of them when we come to treat of Terra Firma.

The isle of Cayenne is seated at the mouth of a river of the same name, in the fifth degree north latitude, and is about forty-five miles in circumference. The anchorage for vessels is between Cape Caperon in the island and that of Corbin in Terra Firma, where above a hundred ships may ride securely. The island is excessively unhealthy, though not so bad as formerly. It has several pleasant hills, very convenient for settlements, and is almost cut in two by a river of salt water, which affords an easy communication between the several plantations, and facilitates the transportation of merchandize. The island is also watered by several springs proper for drinking, and for turning sugar mills. The French have a fort opposite the road, on a little rising ground at the point of the island; but though it is pretty conveniently situated, it wants fresh water, of which they can have none but the rain they save in cisterns. There are in the island several meadows which produce very good grass. The principal commodities of the island are sugar and roucou, for they have neglected the cultivation of indigo. However, since the year 1722, they begun to plant coffee shrubs, and the coffee berries are brought to be full as good as those of Arabia. The French who settled here about the year 1635, built the fort which they called St. Lewis, and near it is a small town of two or three hundred houses, inhabited by the soldiers of the garrison and by all sorts of tradesmen. About four leagues from the town to the north-east of the fort is a village called Armire, seated on a rising ground, the lower part of which is inhabited by Jews and negroes, and the upper part, which has a chapel, is inhabited by French and negroes. There are several other plantations of French scattered up and down the island, with some other fortifications besides the fort already mentioned.

C H A P. VI.

Of the AMERICAN Dominions of the DUTCH and DANES.

S E C T. I.

*Of ST. EUSTATIA, SABA, and ST. MARTIN'S.**Their Situation, Extent, Climate, Face of the Country, Produce, Trade, and History.*

ST. Eustatia is situated three leagues north-west of St. Christopher's, and is only a mountain rising out of the sea like a pyramid, but almost round. The air is wholesome, but the island is subject to terrible storms of thunder, hurricanes, and earthquakes. Its chief produce is tobacco, and the Dutch are said to have here five thousand white people and fifteen thousand negroes. Its situation renders it the strongest of all the Caribbee Islands, there being but one good landing-place, which may be easily defended by a few men, and the haven is commanded by a fort mounted with guns. It is only the very top of the mountain that is covered with wood; for though it is so small, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the industry of the Dutch have made it turn out to very good account; and it is fully peopled; the sides of the mountain are divided and laid out into neat plantations, in which they raise sugar and tobacco. On the summit is a pretty large plain, which harbours wild beasts. In this, as well as in several of the adjacent islands, there are neither rivers nor springs of fresh water, but the inhabitants are so careful that they never want proper supplies of water from their ponds and cisterns which receive the rain. There are several store-houses well supplied with all necessaries, and particularly with European commodities, which they sell to their neighbours at a very high price, whenever they are disappointed with supplies from England or France; and they also carry on a contraband trade with the Spaniards.

The Dutch took possession of this island in 1635, and the States granted it to certain merchants of Flushing, who soon settled a colony upon it of about six hundred families. In 1665 it was conquered by the English, but was soon after retaken by the united forces of the French and Dutch, after which it had a French garrison; but it was restored to the Dutch by the treaty of Breda. In 1689 it was conquered by the French, from whom it was taken the very next year by the English, under Sir Timothy Thornhill, who allowed the French only their lives and their baggage, and is said to have had only eight of his own men killed and wounded in the attack, though the fort was mounted by sixteen great guns, encompassed by a strong double palisado, and defended on one side by a deep ditch and a narrow bridge over it to the gate, which admitted only one man at a time. The island was again restored to the Dutch by the treaty of Ryswic, and they have ever since remained in the quiet possession of it.

Saba is a small but pleasant island, thirteen miles north-west of Eustatia, and thirty south-west of St. Bartholomew's. It is four or five leagues in compass, and is said to have formerly belonged to the Danes. At first sight it seems only a rock, but a Dutch colony sent from St. Eustatia to manure it, found in it a valley sufficient to employ and subsist many families; but it has the misfortune of having no port. The fishing about it, especially for the bonetta, is very plentiful, and it is in no want of other necessary refreshments. The sea on its coasts is so shallow, that stones may be seen at the bottom, and nothing but sloops can come near, nor even they, but at a small sand creek on the south side of the island, to which the inhabitants draw their canoes. There is a road cut from the top of the rock to the bottom; but it is so steep, that it resembles an impregnable fortification, formed by the hand of nature. The in-

habitants, for their greater security, have in many places, by the side of the rock piled up heaps of stones on scaffolds, so disposed, that by only pulling a rope the scaffolds fall, and instantly discharge such a shower of stones, as are enough to crush a whole army to pieces. The French Buccaneers surprised, and thought to have mastered this island in 1688, but miscarried. Labat says, when he was here in 1701, the island was divided into two parts, containing no more than about fifty families, who lived in genteel, convenient, and well furnished houses, but traded for the most part in shoes, by making which, and raising indigo and cotton, they purchased slaves, good furniture, and were in easy circumstances. The inhabitants live in great harmony, and are said to make it a practice to dine at one another's houses; for there being no shambles here, as in the other more considerable islands, they kill their cattle in turn.

St. Martin's is seated in the eighteenth degree fifteen minutes north latitude, between Anguilla on the north-west, and St. Bartholomew on the south-east, about fifteen miles from each, and is twenty-one miles in length, twelve in breadth, and forty-two in circumference. It has commodious bays and roads on the north-west side, with some good salt pits, and lakes of salt water, which run a great way within the land, and abound with good fish and turtle; but has no fresh water, except what comes from the clouds, and is saved in cisterns.

In this island are several trees, from whence distil various gums; with plenty of the candle-wood-tree, the small sticks of which when dry, are lighted up instead of candles, and yield a very fragrant smell, arising from the gum contained in the wood: but its tobacco, which is esteemed the best in the Caribbees, is the chief commodity that employs the care of the inhabitants.

Here are great flocks of the birds called flamens, parrots without number, turtle-doves, and many other fowl.

Formerly the Spaniards kept a garrison here, to prevent other nations settling on the island; but about the year 1650, they blew up their fort, destroyed their cisterns, burned their houses, and abandoned the place. Then came the French and Dutch, and sharing the island between them, lived very friendly together, and had their particular churches in their respective quarters. The French had that part next Anguilla, which was in every respect the best half, and the other side of the island, in which the Spanish fort stood, remained to the Dutch, by virtue of the partition-treaty made between the two nations: but in 1744 some English, under the deputy-governor of Anguilla, assisted by two privateers from St. Christopher's, drove the French out of their half of the island, and took possession of it themselves, since which time it has belonged to the English and Dutch.

S E C T. II.

*Of CURASSOU, or CURACAO.**Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Trade, and the great Advantages the Dutch receive from it. With a concise Description of the Islands of Bonaire and Aruba.*

THE island of Curassou, or Curaçao, is the only place of importance possessed by the Dutch in the West-Indies. The northernmost point is settled in the twelfth degree forty-five minutes north latitude, about twenty-five leagues from the continent, and is about thirty miles long,

long, and ten broad. At the east end is a good harbour, called Santa Barbara; but the chief harbour is about three leagues from the south-east end, where the Dutch have a very good town, and a strong fort. Ships bound thither are obliged to keep close to the harbour's mouth, and have a rope ready to send one end ashore at the fort; for there is no anchoring at the entrance of the harbour, and the current always sets to the westward; but being got in, it is a very secure port. At the east end are two hills, but the rest of the land is pretty level.

Though it is naturally barren, it produces a considerable quantity both of sugar and tobacco; and here are also very great salt-works, which furnish a good deal for the English islands, and for which there is a considerable demand from our colonies on the continent; but the trade for which it is chiefly valued, is the contraband, constantly carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and that carried on between them, the English, and the French in time of war.

The Dutch ships from Europe touch at this island for intelligence, or proper pilots, and then proceed to the Spanish coasts for trade, which they force with a strong hand, it being very difficult for the Spanish guarda costas to take these vessels; for they are not only stout ships, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of chosen seamen, deeply interested in the safety of the vessels and the success of the voyage. They have each a share in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the station of the owner, supplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime cost: this animates them with uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, because every man fights in defence of his own property. Besides this there is a constant intercourse between this island and the Spanish continent.

Curassou has numerous ware-houses, always full of the commodities of Europe and the East Indies. Here are all sorts of woollen and linen cloths, laces, silks, ribbons, iron utensils, naval and military stores, brandy, the spices of the Moluccas, and the calicoes of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch West India, which is also their African company, annually bring three or four cargoes of slaves, and to this mart the Spaniards themselves come in small vessels, and carry off not only the best of the negroes, for whom they give a very high price, but great quantities of all the above sorts of goods; and the seller has this advantage, that the refuse of ware-houses and mercers shops, with every thing that has grown unfashionable and unsaleable in Europe, go off here extremely well, every thing being sufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and silver, coined or in bars, cacao, vanilla, Jesuits bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities. The ships that trade directly from Holland to the Spanish continent not only touch here, on their outward passage, to gain intelligence or assistance, but on their return put in here to complete what is wanting of their cargo with the sugar, tobacco, ginger, and other produce of the island itself.

The trade of Curassou, even in time of peace, is said to be annually worth to the Dutch no less than five hundred thousand pounds sterling; but in time of war the profit is still greater, for it is then in a manner the common emporium of the West Indies: it affords a retreat to ships of all nations, and at the same time refuses none of them arms and ammunition. The intercourse with Spain being then interrupted, the Spanish colonies have scarce any other market from whence they can be well supplied either with slaves or goods. The French come hither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which the English bring from the continent of North America, or which is exported from Ireland; so that the trade of this island flourishes extremely.

This is far from being owing to any natural advantage whatsoever: for it seems as if it were the fate of the Dutch to be every where obliged, both in Europe and America, to exert their ingenuity and patience in opposing an unfriendly soil; for the island is not only barren, and dependent on the rains for its water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worst in America. The Hollanders have indeed entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largest, and by far the most

elegant and cleanly towns in the American islands. The publick buildings are numerous and handsome, the private houses commodious, and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. Almost all kinds of labour is here performed by engines, some of them so admirably contrived, that ships are at once lifted into the dock, where they are completely careened, and then furnished with naval stores, provisions, cannon, and every thing proper either for war or trade.

Bonaire is seated in the sixty eighth degree ten minutes west longitude, and the middle of the island is laid down in the twelfth degree sixteen minutes north latitude. It is about twenty leagues from the continent, and is sixteen or seventeen leagues round. The road is on the south-west side near the middle of the island, where a pretty deep bay runs in. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in raising maize and Guinea corn, yams, and potatoes; and also in grazing.

Aruba, which also belongs to the Dutch, is seven or eight leagues to the westward of Curassou. The two last islands have no trade of consequence, but are chiefly employed in raising fresh provisions for the principal island, and for the refreshment of such ships as use those seas.

The trade of all the Dutch American settlements was originally carried on by the West India company alone. At present such ships as go upon that trade pay two and a half per cent. for their licences; the company, however, reserve to themselves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American islands.

S E C T. III.

Of DUTCH GUIANA, or SURINAM.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Trade, and Government.

DUTCH Guiana begins at the river Maroni, in the sixth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and extends to the mouth of the river Oroonoko. The mouth of the river Maroni is so choked up with sand banks, that often shift their places that no vessel of above twenty tons can enter it, and even those not without danger. The river runs mostly from south to north, it is about a league broad, and all the coast from Maroni to Surinam, which is about fifty-five miles, is low and commonly covered with water. This country is generally reckoned unwholesome. From the end of November to the month of July, the weather is pretty temperate, on account of the clouds which shelter the people from the sun, the great rains that fall at that time, and the north-east wind, which continually blows: but during the rest of the year the weather is sultry hot.

The climate is however greatly improved, and rendered much more salutary than it was formerly by the industry of the Dutch, who have cut avenues through the woods, and made passages for currents of air that carry off the unwholesome exhalations that proved fatal to the first colonists; and notwithstanding the inconveniences under which it once laboured, the great number of Dutch who have plantations here, have raised this colony to a very flourishing condition, so that it has extended itself thirty leagues above the mouth of the river Surinam; but it will probably never be extended much higher on account of the cataracts, which render it impossible to navigate the rivers, and the rocks which prevent their penetrating farther into the country; and even these have the advantage of forming a rampart for the security of the colony, against the inroads of the Indians who inhabit the mountains, and who cannot be civilized.

The chief settlement is at Surinam, a town built upon the river of the same name, in the sixth degree sixteen minutes north latitude, and this name now extends to the adjacent country for above a hundred miles round. Of this district the Hollanders regard themselves as the sovereign, and are said to behave with the haughtiness peculiar to that nation wherever they have gained the superiority; a conduct, says a modern writer, by no means agreeable to the phlegm of that people, or the wisdom of the constitution, since by gaining the detestation of the natives,

natives, they furnish the means to any enterprising European power to supplant them.

The planters and traders of this place take the name of the society of Surinam; the settlement being the joint property of the Dutch West-India company, the city of Amsterdam, and the proprietary of Samelsdyck: but in what manner their different rights arose, or how they were formed, we cannot learn.

The colony is now in the most flourishing situation, and a prodigious trade is carried on, not only with Europe, but with the West-India islands. The river of Surinam facilitates commerce, and the Dutch have been careful to improve the natural situation by all that art and industry could bestow. They have a fort called Zelandia, built with brick, about two leagues from the entrance, and at a little distance from it, a small town called Paramairamba, containing about four hundred houses. There are no less than seven or eight inland towns, all of which are rich, populous, and commercial, which evidently proves the assiduity with which that nation improves every advantage they have once obtained.

The chief trade of the colony consists in the produce of the country, as sugar, cotton, gums, tobacco, coffee, flax, skins, and wood for dying. For the tilling of the ground the proprietors have slaves, whom they purchase of the West India company, who carry thither every year a certain number from Guinea.

The country is under the command of a governor, who has under him a commandant, and is appointed by the directors of the West-India company, but must be approved by the States General, and take an oath to them, as well as to the directors. The governor has a sovereign authority in their name over the whole colony, both in civil and military affairs. Yet in those of moment he is obliged to assemble and consult with the political council, of which he is president, as he is also of the court of justice; yet he has only one vote in each, and is obliged to determine according to the majority of voices. The political council is composed of the governor, the commandant, who is the first counsellor, and nine other members. The council, or court of justice, consists only of five counsellors, a secretary, and a bailiff or mayor, besides the governor. This great officer has the disposal of all vacant employments, civil and military, till such time as he can receive orders from the court of directors; and forms such regulation as he imagines most conducive to the security of the colony against attacks of an enemy.

The troops kept in pay for the defence of the colony consist of four companies of foot, each commanded by a captain, a lieutenant, an ensign, and two serjeants, and of which the governor is colonel. Besides there is a militia composed of eight companies of burghers.

S E C T. IV.

St. THOMAS'S and St. CROIX, or SANTA CRUZ.

Their Situation, Extent, Produce, and Trade, with the Revolutions that have happened in the last island.

ST. Thomas's, the principal island subject to the Danes, is situated in the sixty-fourth degree twenty minutes west longitude, and in the eighteenth degree thirty minutes north latitude. It has a safe and commodious harbour, in which are two mounds, that seem as if formed by nature for raising batteries upon them. Though the island is only fifteen miles in circumference, it is subject both to the Danes and Brandenburgers, but the latter are under the protection of the former. Almost in the center of the harbour is a small fort, without ditch or outworks, and about fifty or sixty paces to the west of it begins the town, which chiefly consists of one long street; at the end of which is the Danish factory, a large building with convenient warehouses both for the stowage of their commodities, and for the reception of the negroes, in which they trade with the Spaniards. On the right side of this factory is the Brandenburg quarter, which consists of two little streets, full of French

refugees from Europe and the islands. Most of the houses are of brick, built and tiled after the Dutch manner, but only one story high, on account of the badness of the foundation; for before they have dug three feet deep, they meet with water and quicksand.

The island produces oranges, citrons, lemons, guavas, bananas, mandiaca, millet, potatoes, and most sorts of fruit and herbage, particularly sugar and tobacco; but it is much infested with musketoos. These islands, so long as they remain in the hands of the Danish West-India company, were ill managed, and nothing like the proper advantage was made of them; but that wise and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the company's stock, and laid the trade open, and since that time the island of St. Thomas has been so greatly improved, that it is said to produce upwards of three thousand hogheads of sugar at a thousand pounds weight each, and others of the West-India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war privateers bring in their prizes here for sale, and a great many vessels trade from hence along the coast of Terra Firma, and return with money in specie or bars, and valuable merchandize.

St. Croix is about five leagues east of St. Thomas's, eight from Porto Rico, and about thirty west of St. Christopher's. It is seated in the eighteenth degree north latitude, and in the sixty-fifth west longitude. It is about ten or twelve leagues in length, and about three on the east side where it is broadest. The air is extremely unhealthy, but this will probably continue no longer than till the woods, with which the island is at present almost covered, are farther cleared, and room left for a proper circulation of the air. The soil is black, easy to be cultivated, very fertile, and produces several fine trees proper for the joiner and cabinet-maker, with sugar canes, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, citrons, a sort of papay called mamee, which is said to bear once a month excellent fruit, shaped like a woman's breast, from whence it takes its name.

A large bay on the north side has a basin and a small island, and in another on the south side opposite to it, the country is indented by the sea with so many inlets, that it seems one continued marsh, intermixed with a number of small islands, whence it has been called the drowned country.

With respect to its history; the Spaniards destroyed the natives, and, as in other places, soon after deserted it, after which it lay for a long time desolate; but it had afterwards several masters in a short compass of time; the English and Dutch, after disputing the sole possession of it, shared it between them; but, in 1649, the English being most numerous, ejected their neighbours, and were soon after turned out themselves by the Spaniards from Porto Rico, who in a descent burnt the houses, put all the men they found in arms to the sword, and sent off the rest with their wives and baggage to the island of Barbuda. Some Dutch from St. Eustatia and St. Martin hearing that the English were expelled, and imagining that the Spaniards were also gone, came thither to repossess it, but the Spaniards being still there, and ten times more numerous, attacked them by surprise, and forced them to surrender prisoners; but while the Spaniards were preparing to carry them to Porto Rico, Poincy, the French commander, came with a superior force, upon which the Spaniards were glad to quit both the place and their prisoners, whom Poincy carried back to St. Eustatia; and the next year, which was 1651, having reimbursed the Dutch merchants at Flushing for the expences they had been at in settling the colony, he made an acquisition not only of this island, but of St. Martin's, St. Bartholomew's, and several others, for the use of the knights of Malta, of whom he was grand master. This island was afterwards purchased of those knights by the French West India company; but the French abandoning it in 1696, the Danes obtained the possession of it, and it belonged to the West India company till it was purchased by his late Danish majesty. It was however then a perfect desert, but it has begun to settle very fast, for several persons from the English islands, and among them some of great wealth, have gone to settle there.

We

We have now gone through the countries and islands in America possessed by the English, French, Dutch, and Danes; the remaining part belongs to Portugal and Spain; but, before we begin with their dominions, we shall conclude this chapter with the characters of the several European nations, as they regard America, which we shall extract from the ingenious author of a work intitled, *An Account of the European Settlements*.

“ There seems, says he, to be a remarkable providence in the casting the parts, if I may use that expression, of the several European nations who act upon the stage of America. The Spaniard, proud, lazy, and magnificent, has an ample walk in which to expatiate; a soft climate to indulge his love of ease; and a profusion of gold and silver to procure him all those luxuries his pride demands, but which his laziness would refuse him.

“ The Portuguese, naturally indigent at home; and enterprising rather than industrious abroad, has gold and diamonds, as the Spaniard has, wants them as he does, but possesses them in a more useful, though less ostentatious manner.

“ The English, of a reasoning disposition, thoughtful and cool, and men of business, rather than of great industry, impatient of much fruitless labour, abhorrent of constraint, and lovers of a country life, have a lot which indeed produces neither gold nor

silver; but they have a large tract of a fine continent; a noble field for the exercise of agriculture, and sufficient to furnish their trade without laying them under great difficulties. Intolerant as they are of the most useful restraints, their commerce flourishes from the freedom every man has of pursuing it according to his own ideas; and directing his life after his own fashion.

“ The French; active, lively, enterprising, pliable, and politic; and though changing their pursuits, always pursuing the present object with eagerness, are notwithstanding tractable and obedient to rules and laws which bridle their dispositions, and wind and turn them to proper courses. This people have a country, where more is to be effected by managing the people than by cultivating the ground: where a peddling commerce, that requires constant motion, flourishes more than agriculture and a regular traffic; where they have difficulties which keep them alert, and where their obedience serves them for personal wisdom. In the islands the whole is the work of their policy, and of a right turn their government has taken.

“ The Dutch have got a rock or two on which to display the miracles of frugality and diligence; which are their virtues, and on which they have exerted these virtues, and shewn those miracles.”

CHAP. VII.

OF PORTUGUESE AMERICA, containing BRASIL.

SECT. I.

Its Name, Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, Climate, Vegetables, and Minerals; with a particular Account of the Gold and Diamonds of Brasil, the Manner in which they are obtained, and the Regulations in relation to them.

THE Portuguese, by whom this country was first discovered, gave it the name of the Holy Cross; but it afterwards obtained the name of Brasil, or Brazil, from the great quantity of Brasil wood which grows there, which was known in Europe and called brasil, before the discovery of the extensive country that bears its name.

Brasil is seated between the mouth of the great river of the Amazons under the equator, and the river Plata in the thirty-fifth degree south latitude, and between the thirty-fifth and fifty-first degree of west longitude; it being bounded on the north by the mouth of the river Amazon and the Atlantic ocean, on the east by the same ocean, on the south by the river Plata, and on the west by a chain of mountains which divide it from Spanish America and the country of Amazons; it being two thousand five hundred miles in length along the coast from north to south, and about nine hundred miles in breadth. The settlements of the Portuguese, however, reach but a small distance within land.

With respect to the coast of Brasil, it is proper to observe, that, beginning at the mouth of the river of the Amazons, it runs eastward as far as Cape St. Roque, which is thirteen hundred and fifty miles, from whence it winds to the southward quite to the Spanish province of Paragua, so that almost the whole country lies under the torrid zone.

As to the face of the country, the land near the coast is, in general, rather low than high; but extremely pleasant, it being interspersed with meadows and woods, the trees of which are, for the most part, ever-greens; but on the west, far within land, are mountains in which are innumerable springs and lakes, from whence issue abundance of rivers, that fall into the great rivers the Amazon and the Plata, or run across the country from

west to east, and fall into the Atlantic ocean; these last are very numerous, and of great use to the Portuguese in turning their sugar-mills, and meliorating their lands, which they annually overflow.

The north of Brasil lying almost under the equator, this, like other countries in the same situation, is subject to great rains and variable winds, particularly in March and September, when they have such torrents of rain, with storms and tornadoes, that the country is overflowed, and the air at that season rendered unhealthy. But, with respect to the more southern provinces, no country within the tropics has the heat more tolerable, or the air more healthful, it being constantly refreshed with breezes from the sea, and in the inland parts the winds from the mountains are still cooler than those that blow from the ocean.

The soil of Brasil is generally good, producing very large trees of various sorts, fit for any use. Their savannas, or meadows, are covered with grass and herbs, and where cultivated produce every thing proper for the climate, as sugar-canes, tobacco, cotton, indigo, maize, and fruit.

The chief of the forest trees are the sapiera, the vermiatico, the commeserie, the guiteba, and the ferrie; speckled wood, three kinds of mangrove trees, and the manchineel.

The sapiera is a very tall tree, which has good timber, made use of in building houses; the vermiatico is also a tall straight-bodied tree, of which planks are made two feet broad, and of the trunks they likewise make canoes, they being only scooped hollow and shaped something like a boat at the head and stern: though they are so narrow as frequently to overset, yet they cannot sink, and the Indians, who excel in swimming, make no difficulty when they are overset to turn them up again.

The guiteba and commeserie are chiefly used in building of ships, and are as much esteemed for that use as oak is with us, and are even said to be a more hard and durable wood. The ferrie tree resembles the elm, and is very durable in water. Their mangrove trees are red, white, and black: the red are used in tanning leather,

of the white they make masts and yards for their barks, and of the black good planks; both the white and black being much larger than in the gulph of Mexico. There grows here also a wild cocoa-nut tree, neither so tall nor so large as those in the East or West Indies, nor are the nuts a quarter so big, but are in esteem for making beads for rosaries, bowls of tobacco-pipes, and other toys. At the top of the tree among the branches grows a long sort of black thread, resembling horse hair, but much longer. Of these they make cables, that are very strong, lasting, and serviceable, for they will not rot like cables made of hemp, though they lie exposed to heat and wet. They have also three sorts of cotton trees, but very little of the right West India cotton shrub of which cotton cloth is made.

With respect to fruits, they have several kinds of European grapes, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, and pomelcitrons, which were transplanted thither by the Portuguese. They have also jenipahs, papaws, cashews, fourtops, custard apples, cabbage trees, the true cocoa-nut, guavas, bananas, and plantanes.

The jenipah is a kind of fruit of the calabash or gourd kind, of the size of a duck egg, somewhat of an oval shape, and of a grey colour; but the shell is neither so thick nor so hard as that of the calabash. It is full of a whitish pulp mixed with small flat seeds, and both the pulp and seeds are taken into the mouth, but on sucking the pulp they spit out the seeds. It is of an agreeable sharp taste, and very innocent. The tree that bears it has some resemblance to the ash, is straight bodied, and of a good height, clear from limbs till near the top, where the branches put forth a small head.

The fourtop is a fruit as large as a man's head, of an oval shape, and when ripe green on one side and yellowish on the other. The coat or outside is pretty thick, and very rough, with small sharp knobs, and the inside is full of a spongy pulp, with black kernels of the shape and size of pumpkin-seeds. The pulp is very juicy, of a pleasant taste, and wholesome. The tree or shrub that bears this fruit, is only ten or twelve feet high, with a small short trunk, from which the branches grow pretty straight up. This fruit also grows both in the East and West Indies.

Besides these here are many sorts of fruit not to be met with any where else, as arisahs, mericasahs, petangoes, &c. The arisah is an excellent fruit, somewhat bigger than a large cherry, and shaped like a Catharine-pear, it being smaller at the stem, and swelling bigger towards the end. They are of a greenish colour, and have small seeds, are somewhat tart, yet very pleasant and wholesome.

The mericasah is an excellent fruit, of which there are two sorts; one that grows on a small tree or shrub, which is accounted the best, and the other growing on a kind of vine, which is usually planted about arbours for the sake of the shade, they having many broad leaves. The fruit is as large as a small orange; it is round, green, and when ripe it is soft, and full of a white pulp, mixed with little black seeds, and is very tart, pleasant, and wholesome.

The petango is a small red fruit, that also grows on small trees. It is of the size of a cherry, but not so round, having one flat side, and five or six small ridges. It is a very pleasant tart fruit, and has a large flattish stone in the middle.

The mungaroo is a fruit as large as a cherry, red on one side and white on the other, and contains small seeds.

The musteran de avo is a round fruit, of the size of a large haffle nut, covered with thin brittle shells of a blackish colour. It has a small stone in the middle, inclosed with a black pulpy substance.

They have likewise plenty of callavances, pine apples, water-melons, musk-melons, cucumbers, yams, potatoes, cassavas, cabbages, turnips, onions, leeks, and a variety of sallading, with several kinds of drugs, as sassafras, snake-root, &c.

No sort of corn thrives in Brasil like maize, for wheat and rye grow too rank, and run up into straw. Their seed time is at the beginning of the rainy season, and their harvest a little after it is over. The trees and shrubs proper to the country bear leaves, blossoms and

fruit all the year round; and the same is observed of their oranges, limes, and some other fruits that have been carried thither. It is said that those who would have ripe grapes all the year, only prune their vines at different times to effect it, and they produce a fine luscious grape as sweet as honey; and yet they can make no wine here that will keep.

As to their minerals they have gold and some silver; and here are found plenty of rich diamonds, jasper, emeralds, and other precious stones.

Gold was first found in the mountains which lie adjacent to the city of Rio Janeiro. The occasion of its discovery is variously related; but the common account is, that the Indians on the back of the Portuguese settlements, were observed by the soldiers employed in an expedition against them, to make use of this metal for their fishing-hooks; and their manner of procuring it being enquired into, it appeared that great quantities of it were annually washed from the hills, and left among the sand and gravel that remained in the valleys after the running off, or evaporation of the water. It is now little more than sixty years since any quantities of gold worth notice have been imported from Brasil to Europe; but from that time the annual imports from thence have been continually augmented by the discovery of places in other provinces, where it is to be met with as plentifully as at first about Rio Janeiro. And it is now said, that a small slender vein of it spreads through all the country, at about twenty-four feet from the surface; but that this vein is too thin and poor to answer the expence of digging. However, where the rivers or rains have had any course for a considerable time, there gold may always be collected, the water having separated the metal from the earth, and deposited it in the sands: whence it is esteemed an infallible method of procuring it, to divert a stream from its channel, and to ransack its bed. Indeed there are properly no gold mines in Brasil, all the gold being collected either from rivers, or the beds of torrents after floods.

The slaves, who are principally negroes, are kept in great numbers to examine the bottoms of rivers, the gullies of torrents, and to wash the gold found in them from the sand and dirt. The regulation of the duty of these slaves is very singular, for they are each of them obliged to furnish their master with the eighth part of an ounce of gold every day; and if they are either so fortunate or industrious as to collect a greater quantity, the surplus is generally considered as their own property, and they have the liberty of disposing of it as they think fit: so that it is said some negroes, who have accidentally fallen upon rich washing places, have themselves purchased slaves, and have afterwards lived in great splendor, their original master having no other demand on them than the daily supply of the above eighth part, which, as the Portuguese ounce is somewhat lighter than our troy ounce, may amount to about nine shillings sterling.

The quantity of gold thus collected in the Brasils, and annually returned to Lisbon, may in some degree be estimated from the amount of the king's fifth: this has been computed one year with another at one hundred and fifty arroves of thirty-two pounds Portuguese weight, which at four pounds the troy ounce, makes very near three hundred thousand pounds sterling; and consequently the capital of which this is the fifth, is about a million and a half sterling. The annual return of gold to Lisbon cannot be less than this, though it be difficult to determine how much it exceeds it. It has been supposed that the gold exchanged for silver with the Spaniards at Buenos Ayres, and what is privately brought to Europe, amounts to near half a million more, which will make the whole annual produce of the Brazilian gold near two millions sterling; a prodigious sum to be found in a country, which at the close of the last century was not known to furnish a single grain.

As to diamonds, the discovery of these valuable stones is still more recent, it being scarce forty years since the first were brought to Europe. They are found in the same manner as the gold, in the gulleys of torrents and beds of rivers, but only in particular places, and not so universally spread through the country. They were

frequently found in washing the gold, before they were known to be diamonds, and were consequently thrown away with the sand and gravel separated from it. It is well remembered that numbers of very large stones, that would have enriched the possessors, have passed unregarded through the hands of those who afterwards bore with impatience the mortifying reflection. However, about forty years ago a person acquainted with the appearance of rough diamonds, imagined that these pebbles, as they were then esteemed, were of the same kind: but it is said there was a considerable interval between the first starting of this opinion, and its being confirmed by proper trials, it being difficult to persuade the inhabitants, that what they had been long accustomed to despise, could be of such importance as this discovery supposed. And it is said, that in this interval a governor of one of their places procured a good number of these stones, which he pretended to make use of in playing at cards instead of counters. But it was at last confirmed by skilful jewellers in Europe, who were consulted on this occasion, that these stones were real diamonds, and many of them not inferior, either in lustre or any other quality, to those of the East Indies. Upon this determination the Portuguese in the neighbourhood of the places where they had been found, began to search for them with great assiduity; and they had even hopes of discovering considerable masses of them, as they perceived large rocks of crystal in many of the mountains from whence the streams came that washed down the diamonds.

It was however soon represented to the king of Portugal, that if such plenty of diamonds should be found, as their sanguine conjectures seemed to indicate, this would so debase their value, that besides ruining all the Europeans who had any quantity of Indian diamonds in their possession, it would render the discovery itself of no importance, and prevent his majesty from receiving any advantages from it. On these considerations the king thought proper to restrain the general search for diamonds, and for that purpose erected a diamond company, with an exclusive charter. This company, in consideration of a sum paid to his majesty, is vested with the property of all diamonds found in Brasil: but to prevent their collecting too large quantities, and thereby reducing their value, they are prohibited from employing above eight hundred slaves in searching for them. And to prevent any of his other subjects from acting the same part, and to secure the company from being defrauded by interlopers, he depopulated a large town, with a considerable district round it, and obliged the inhabitants, who were said to amount to six thousand, to remove to another part of the country; for this town being in the neighbourhood of the diamonds, it was thought impossible to prevent such a number of people who were on the spot, from frequently smuggling.

SECT. II.

Of the Beasts, Birds, Reptiles, Insects, amphibious Animals, and Fishes, of Brasil: containing a particular Description of the Ant-Bear and Armadillo.

THE beasts that were found in this country on its being first discovered, were in general the same with those of Mexico and Peru, particularly the Peruvian sheep, the pecaree, called by the Europeans the hog, from their bearing some resemblance to that animal, a great variety of monkeys, deer, hares, and rabbits, some lions and tygers; but these are neither so large nor so fierce as those of Africa; the ant-bear, the porcupine, the racoon, and flying squirrel, the armadillo, the opossum, the guano, and the sloth.

The ant-bear is as long and as tall as a middle sized dog; his hind legs resemble those of a bear, but his fore legs are more slender: his fore feet are flat, and divided into four toes, armed with long claws; but those behind have five toes. His head is long, with a sharp snout, small round black eyes, and very black ears: the tongue is said to be upwards of two feet in length, but very slender: he is obliged to bend part of his back when he keeps it within his mouth, the jaws being

otherwise too short to contain it. He lives upon ants, and when he has found any of their nests, he opens the upper part of them with his claws, that he may have room to put in his snout and his tongue: this is besmeared with a slimy liquor, and is soon covered with ants, when he draws it into his mouth and swallows them. This he repeats as long as they will run into the same snare. The tail of this animal in some measure resembles that of a fox; it is generally two feet long, almost flat, and covered with hair from fifteen to twenty inches long; it is harsh, very strong, and he can move it just as he pleases; when he turns it upon his back, it entirely covers it, and defends him from the rain, which he greatly dislikes.

The armadillo has his head, body, and tail, covered with a shield of a bony substance, forming most beautiful scales. On the upper part of the neck are two joints that he may move his head, and on the back seven divisions, with a yellow skin between each. The feet are covered with a thinner shield, but the lower parts of the body are without this covering. The head is like that of a hog, with a sharp snout. He has small eyes sunk deep in the head, and a narrow pointed tongue. The ears are naked, brown, and short, and the teeth of a middle size. The feet resemble hands, with five fingers and roundish nails. The tail at the root is near four inches thick, but grows gradually less to the end, where it terminates in a point. It lives upon melons, potatoes, and other roots, but will not eat flesh, and generally lies hid in the ground, which he turns up with the snout. This animal has a quick feeling, and will roll himself up like a ball. The flesh is white, fat, and delicate, but is best when seasoned with spices to quicken the taste.

Their fowls are maccaws, parrots, parroquets, the quam, the curasoe, the bill-bird, the cockreco, the crab-catcher, the fishing-hawk, and the humming bird; curleus, partridges, wood-pigeons, herons, and pelicans; they have also great variety of singing birds, several species of wild ducks, wild geese, and common poultry; and there is not any sort of the latter in Europe that has not been carried thither by the Portuguese. However, in these hot climates fowls of all kinds are dry meat, nor is their mutton very good; the pork is esteemed the best flesh, and is here thought of easy digestion. All the horses, cows, sheep, asses, hogs, and cats, were brought hither from Europe.

In some parts of Brasil the heat of the climate is thought to favour the generation of a great variety of poisonous insects and reptiles; and it is certain that no country produces a greater variety of serpents, some of which are said to be of an incredible length. The rattle-snake and other reptiles of the same species grow to an enormous size, and the serpent called ibibaboca is affirmed to be seven yards long, half a yard in circumference, and possessed of a poison instantaneously fatal to mankind. Indeed the accounts authors have given of the monstrous size of these reptiles in this country are so very improbable, that it is dangerous to give any credit to what they say. That they are large and numerous is not doubted; and it has been justly observed, that Providence has thought fit to give an alloy, by these inconveniences, to the many advantages of this invaluable country, in order to dispense her blessings more equally among the inhabitants of the earth in general.

Here are also scorpions, centeepees, spiders, and other insects that are venomous and of an extraordinary size. Their ants are almost as troublesome here as in Africa, marching in great bodies, and devouring every thing in their way. Here is also the fire-fly, which seems to differ but little from the glow-worm, except in having wings: when a number of these fix on the boughs of trees, they in the night appear at a small distance like so many stars. There are said to be here twelve several sorts of bees, some of which have vast nests in hollow trees in the woods, and others in holes of the rocks, and yield great quantities of honey and wax.

With respect to the amphibious animals, they have the three kinds of turtle, the hawks-bill, the loggerhead, and the green turtle; which last is most excellent food. The lakes and rivers abound with crocodiles, and they have a creature which the Portuguese call cachora de agua,

or the water-dog. It is as big as a mastiff, is covered with hair of a dark colour, and has a long head with four short legs : he lives in fresh water lakes and ponds ; but comes on shore to sun himself, and is said to be good food.

Their seas, lakes, and rivers are full of excellent fish ; the lean flesh of the whales, of which there are plenty on this coast, is eaten by the slaves and poor people of Brasil. The best fish on the coast is the manatee, which is as large as an ox. They have also the sword-fish, thrasher, paracood, cavally, old-wife, gar-fish, mullet, mackarel, snook, turpoon, oysters, crabs, shrimps, prawns, and other shell fish. Their best river fish resembles our perch, and they have others not unlike pike and carp.

S E C T. III.

Of the Divisions of Brasil ; with a Description of the City of St. Salvador the Capital, and the Manners of its Inhabitants.

BRASIL is usually divided into fifteen provinces, or captainships, of which eight only are annexed to the crown, the rest being fiefs made over to some of the nobility on account of their extraordinary services, who do little more than acknowledge the sovereignty of the king of Portugal, and his representative the viceroy of Peru. However, the whole gives the title of prince to the presumptive heir to the crown of Portugal. These captainships are, Paria, Maragnan, Siara, Poligi, or Rio Grande, Parayba, Tamara, Pernambuco, Seregippe, Batria de Todos Santos, Ilheos, Porto Seguro, Spirito Sancto, Rio Janeiro, St. Vincent, and Del Rey.

The principal city is St. Salvador, also called the city of Bahia, which is in the province of the same name, and was thus called from the commodiousness of its harbour. It is seated on a hill, in the twelfth degree eleven minutes south latitude. It is populous, magnificent, and beyond comparison the most gay and opulent city in all Brasil. The trade carried on here is prodigious; the gentry are polite ; but the vulgar, who have acquired wealth, are intolerably insolent and brutal. In this city are no less than twelve or fourteen thousand Portuguese, with three times that number of negroes. The harbour is capable of receiving ships of the greatest burthen, and its entrance is guarded by a strong fort called St. Antony. There are other small forts that command the harbour, one of which is built upon a rock about half a mile from the shore. Close by this fort all ships must pass that anchor here, and must also ride within half a mile of it, between this and another fort that stands on a point at the inner part of the harbour. Besides these there is another fort on the hill upon which the town stands.

Here are about four hundred soldiers in garrison, who commonly draw up and exercise in a large parade before the governor's palace, and many of them attend him when he goes abroad. They are decently dressed in brown linen, which, in these hot countries, is far more agreeable than woollen.

The city consists of about two thousand houses, the greatest part of which cannot be seen from the harbour ; but as many as appear in sight, being intermixed with trees, and placed on a rising hill, afford a fine prospect. The houses are handsomely built, mostly of brick or stone. The churches, convents, and hospitals, are not only built in the most sumptuous manner, but adorned with every thing rich and costly, particularly with fine paintings. The upper town has many splendid structures, particularly the cathedral of St. Salvador. The church which lately belonged to the Jesuits college is very magnificent, and built of marble brought from Europe ; and that college is a fine edifice. The viceroy's palace is a most sumptuous building, as is also the palace of the archbishop, the courts of judicature, the hospitals, &c. The principal streets are large, and all of them paved ; there are also several squares, and many gardens, both within the city and its neighbourhood, in which are a great variety of fruit-trees and flowers, fallading, and plants for the kitchen.

Most of the streets are, however, so steep as to be impassable for coaches or chairs, to supply which defect the rich cause themselves to be carried out in a kind of cotton hammocs, called serpentines, which are borne on the negroes shoulders by the help of a bamboo, about twelve or fourteen feet long. Most of these hammocs are blue, and adorned with fringes of the same colour ; they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind of tester with curtains, so that the person carried cannot be seen, unless he pleases ; but may either lie down or sit up, leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be seen he puts by the curtains, and salutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the streets ; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocs, and will even hold long conferences in them in the streets ; but then the two slaves who carry them make use of a strong well-made staff, with an iron fork at the upper end, and pointed below with iron ; this they stick fast in the ground, and rest the bamboo, or pole, to which the hammoc is fixed, on two of these, till their master's business or compliment be over. Scarce any man of fashion, or any lady, will pass the streets without being carried in this manner.

The lower class of the people are insolent, and the soldiers given to all manner of vice ; and some of them are dangerous assassins. The women are more strictly watched than in Portugal, yet sometimes find means to elude the vigilance of their keepers. However, the husbands make no scruple to stab or poison their wives, if they find them false.

The chief mechanic trades in this city are hatters, smiths, shoe makers, sawyers, carpenters, coopers, taylor, and butchers. All these buy negroes, whom they train up to their several employments. These slaves are also very useful as porters, for as there is here a great trade by sea, and the landing-place is at the foot of the hill too steep for the passage of carts, there is great need of slaves to carry the goods up into the town : but the merchants have the convenience of cranes with ropes, one end of which goes up, while the other is let down. The house in which the crane stands on the brow of the hill towards the sea, and there are planks set shelving all the way up, against which the goods slide as they are hoisted up or let down.

S E C T. IV.

Of the different Inhabitants of Brasil, their Manners and Customs ; with a more particular Account of the Brasilians.

THE present inhabitants of Brasil are Portuguese, Creoles, Mestizes, Negroes, and Brasilians. The Portuguese of Europe, who enjoy the places of trust and profit, are the fewest in number ; the Creoles, or those born of Portuguese parents in Brasil, are more numerous ; and the Mestizes, or mixed breed, are still more numerous than either ; for few of the Portuguese have been without black or tawney mistresses, and the issue of these having intermarried they are multiplied extremely. The Negroes are also very numerous, and those slaves are much more valued than the Brasilians, they being of a more robust constitution and fitter for labour ; for as they come from the coast of Africa opposite to Brasil, which is much hotter, they endure fatigue in the hot season better than the original natives ; nor are the latter very numerous, the Portuguese in their invasion of the country, like the Spaniards in their conquests, destroying the unfortunate natives by all the cruel ways they could invent.

The portrait given us of the manners and customs of the Portuguese in America by the most judicious travellers, is very far from being favourable. They are described as a people who, while sunk in the most effeminate luxury, practise the most desperate crimes : of a temper hypocritical and dissembling ; of little sincerity in conversation, or honesty in dealing ; lazy, proud, and cruel. In their diet penurious ; for, like the inhabitants of most southern climates, they are much more fond of shew, taste, and attendance, than of the pleasures of free society,

society, and of a good table; yet their feasts, which are seldom made, are extravagantly sumptuous.

The pride, indolence, luxury, and cruelty of the masters has, among other causes, been attributed to their being bred up among slaves, who perform all the business; and to their being permitted to keep a prodigious number of negroes, not merely to work in the field, nor for domestic employments, but solely for state, to attend their persons, and form their train. These become as corrupt as their masters, who make them the instrument of their crimes; and giving them an unbounded and scandalous licence, employ them as bullies or assassins whenever they are disposed to terrify or seek revenge. Indeed nothing can be conceived more adapted to create the worst disorders than the unnatural junction of slavery, idleness, and a licentious life. They are suffered to go armed, and there are vast numbers who have merited or bought their freedom; and this is suffered in a country where the negroes are said to be ten to one of the Portuguese and Creoles.

However, this picture is perhaps too highly coloured; it at best does not resemble those in the northern captainships, nor those in the most southern, by the Rio Janeiro, who are far from being so effeminate and corrupted as those of St. Salvador, which, besides being in a climate favourable to indolence and debauchery, is the capital city, and in all respects worse than the others.

Before the Portuguese planted Brasil the country was not divided into provinces, but was all one great common, every tribe and family inhabiting and cultivating what part of it they thought fit, and removing their dwellings wherever they pleased; only every man was considered as the proprietor of the ground he planted, till he removed and left it for another place he liked better. Their towns usually consisted of five or six great houses, each of which contained two or three hundred people, and sometimes many more. Over these the head of the tribe or family presided. Their houses were built of long poles, reeds, and palmeto leaves; and their furniture only consisted of hammocs of cotton net-work fastened to poles, in which they slept; some earthen pots and pans, and their gourds and calabashes, which being cut in half, served them for pails, tubs, and drinking-cups; for they have them of all sizes: besides which they had baskets, in which they carried their provisions. The ornaments of their houses were their bows, arrows, spears, and other arms.

In this extensive country were also some nations that had no settled abode; but living in tents, continually removed from place to place; and both these and the former slept as often without doors as within, tying their hammocs to the boughs of trees, and making fires near them to prevent the ill effects of the cold dews that fell in the night, or to keep off the wild beasts and noxious vermin.

The Portuguese and Dutch writers call the Brasilians who inhabit the north part of the country Tapuyers, and those who dwell in the south Tupinambes; but divide these into several petty nations differing in language, tho' very little in their manners and customs.

The Tapuyers are of a good stature, and of a dark copper colour; their hair black and hanging over their shoulders; but they have none on their bodies or faces, and go almost naked, the women only wearing at their waist a slight covering of leaves. Their ornaments are glittering stones hung upon their lips or nostrils, bracelets of feathers about their arms, and a circlet of feathers upon their heads. Some paint their bodies of all manner of colours, while others rubbing them with gums stick beautiful feathers upon them, which makes them at a distance look more like fowls than human creatures.

The Tupinambes, who inhabit the south of Brasil, are of a moderate stature, and of a less dark complexion than their northern neighbours, who lie nearer the line; but neither of them are so black as the Africans in the same latitude, for there were no negroes in America before they were transported thither by the Spaniards and Portuguese. These people have however flat noses, which are not natural, but made so in their infancy; a flat nose there being esteemed a beauty: they have also black curled hair on their heads, and paint themselves like the northern Brasilians.

The general food of all the Brasilians was cassava bread, of which they made cakes like our sea biscuit; they also used to feed on other roots, fruit, and herbs, with such venison as they took in hunting, and with fish and oil. They have been represented by many writers as cannibals, and all the Brasilians have been charged with eating human flesh; but this appears to be nothing more than a slander cast upon them to give a colour to the cruel treatment they have met with from their conquerors. The general liquor drank by the natives is spring water, of which they have the best and the greatest variety in the world; but they have other kinds of liquor made of the juice of their fruits or honey, with which they sometimes get very drunk, sitting whole days and nights over their cups. They were formerly acquainted but with few arts, except spinning, weaving, and forming their bows, arrows, lances, darts, and building their houses, which did not want any great contrivance. They had, however, some knowledge of the virtues of several herbs and drugs, which they frequently administered with success to the sick. Hunting, fishing, and fowling, were rather their business than diversion, they being necessary for the support of their families, in a country where they had neither corn nor tame cattle. Drinking, singing, and dancing, were their principal diversions; these they practised on their rejoicing days, on a victory, or the birth of their children. They are still great smokers, and take the strongest tobacco: their pipes are a hollow cane or reed, and the bowl a large nut shell, that holds almost a handful of tobacco.

The Portuguese will not allow that the Brasilians had any kind of religion, and yet confess that they had priests, and admitted of a state of rewards and punishments, according to their valour or cowardice. The prevailing notion among them is, that after death the good shall visit their ancestors, who dwell in a delightful place beyond the Andes. They believe in certain invincible beings, the dispensers of good and evil, the rewarders of virtue, and the punishers of vice. As to their having no temples, this may possibly arise from their profound reverence of the Deity, who is not to be circumscribed by time or place, or worshipped in the mean houses erected by human labour, but under the glorious canopy of the heavens.

Nor is the opinion of their living without any regard to government more agreeable to truth; for even those writers who deny that they had any policy speak of their kings, chiefs, and generals, and even admit that there was a scale of subordination among them. If one man injured another, he was obliged to make him satisfaction in kind if possible, and no people on earth display more hospitality and civility to strangers, which is acknowledged by the Portuguese writers themselves, even while they are endeavouring to stigmatize those generous people with the odious appellation of cannibals.

The rites observed at funerals is a farther proof of their belief of a future state. The friends and relations of the deceased set up a lamentable howl, praising alternately the beauty, virtue, strength, and talents of their departed relation, crying out in the most melancholy voice, that they shall never see him more till they dance with him beyond the mountains. When these lamentations had lasted for the space of six hours, preparation was made for burying of the corpse in a fitting posture, and a dome erected over it by way of vault: here they deposited meat and drink, his arms, and whatever was useful to him when alive. As to the master of the family, his tomb was usually in the middle of his own house, and his monument was generally adorned with the most beautiful feathers and other ornaments.

Such, according to the most authentic relations, were the ancient Brasilians, and such, with very little variation, are the modern race, where the manners of the Portuguese and those of the negroes have not mingled with their original customs.

In short, the native Brasilians are at present a tractable and ingenious people, ready to learn any art or science the Portuguese will teach them, and take nothing so kindly of the priests as their instructing their children, which has given them an opportunity of making many converts;

converts; those who live under the Portuguese generally conform to their customs in eating, drinking, and cloathing, and few of these go naked.

S E C T. IV.

Of the Government, Forces, and Trade of Brasil.

THE government of Brasil is in the Vice-roy, who, as we have already observed, resides at St. Salvador. He has two councils, one for criminal, the other for civil affairs, in both which he presides: but to the infinite prejudice of the settlement, all the delay, chicanery, and multiplied expences incident to the worst part of the law, and practised by the most corrupted lawyers, flourish here; at the same time that justice is so relaxed, that the greatest crimes are often suffered to pass with impunity.

The Portuguese in Brasil are sufficient to maintain the dominion of that country against any other power; they have a good number of European regular troops; the militia too is regulated, among whom there are some bodies of Indians and free negroes. On the other hand, the Portuguese, Creoles, Mestizes, Negroes, and Brasilians, are now in a manner one people, their religion the same, and their blood intermixed by marriages; and therefore, however they may disagree among themselves while they have no enemy to contend with, they would infallibly unite against all the rest of the world. This is an advantage which both the Spaniards, Portuguese, and the French have over the English in America; for they always make the natives and negroes where they have any power, of their own religion; and these, in a short time, discover as much zeal for their superstition as the Portuguese themselves, who would never bear that any people who bore the name of heretics should plant themselves among them; nor is the circumstance of marriage and alliance inconsiderable: these lay strong obligations upon all people to unite against strangers, and this the English do not enough consider, when they prohibit their people matching with the natives or negroes. Instead of this we treat the latter with greater cruelty than those nations who are least distinguished for their humanity. Hence they generally remain in a separate interest, and instead of serving their masters faithfully, are ever conspiring to cut their throats, or to escape out of their hands.

The trade of Portugal is carried on upon the same exclusive plan observed by the other European nations with the American colonies, and resembles the Spanish method in not sending out single ships, as the convenience of the several places, and the judgment of the European merchants, may direct; but by annual fleets, which sail at stated times from Portugal, and compose three flotas, bound to as many parts in Brasil, namely, to Fernambuca in the northern part, to Rio Janeiro at the southern extremity, and to the bay of All Saints in the middle, where is the capital, of which we have given a description, and there all the fleets rendezvous on their return to Portugal.

The trade of Brasil is very great, and increases every year; which is the less surprising as the Portuguese have opportunities of supplying themselves with slaves for their several works at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has settlements in America; they being the only European nation that has established colonies in Africa; and these being very considerable, both for their extent and the number of their inhabitants, they have of course advantages in that trade which no other nation can have, and every year draw from thence into Brasil between forty and fifty thousand negroes; and for this the situation of Brasil is very convenient, it being nearer to Africa than any other part of America. Hence it is principally that Brasil is the richest, most flourishing, and growing establishment in all America. The sugar exported from thence is very great, and it is finer than what any of ours, the French, or Spanish sugar plantations send us. Their tobacco is also remarkably good, though not raised in such large quantities as in our American colonies. The northern and southern parts of Brasil abound with horned cattle; these are hunted for

their hides, of which no less than twenty thousand are annually sent into Europe.

A considerable part of the gold brought from Brasil is coined in America: thus, that coined at Rio Janeiro bears an R, and that which is struck at St. Salvador, or the Bay, is marked with a B. Of the diamonds, there is supposed to be returned to Europe the value of one hundred and thirty thousand pounds. This, with the sugar, which is principally the cargo of the Fernambuca fleet, the tobacco, the hides, the valuable drugs for medicines and manufactures, may give some idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.

The chief commodities the European ships carry thither are not the fifteenth part of the produce of Portugal; they consist of the woollen goods of all kinds of England, France, and Holland; the linens and laces of Holland, France, and Germany; the silk of France and Italy; silk and thread stockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all sorts of utensils wrought in these metals from England; as well as flour, salt fish, beef, and cheese. They have oil from Spain: wine, with some fruit, is nearly all they are supplied with from Portugal.

Though the profits in this trade are great, few Portuguese merchants trade upon their own stock; they are generally credited by the foreign merchants, whose commodities they sell, especially by the English. In short, though in Portugal as well as in Spain all trade with their plantations is strictly forbidden to strangers, yet, like all other regulations that contradict the very intention for which they were made, they are little attended to. The Portuguese is, indeed, only the trustee and factor; but his fidelity is equal to that of the Spanish merchant, and that has scarce even been shaken by any public or private cause. This is extremely surprizing in the Portuguese, who in all other respects are far from being remarkable for their integrity, and is a striking instance how far a custom originally built upon a few examples, and a consequent reputation built upon that, will be able to affect in succession men of very different natural characters and morals.

England is at present most interested in the trade of Portugal, both for home consumption, and what they want for the use of the Brasils; and deserves to be most favoured, as well from the services the English have always done that crown, and from the stipulations of treaties, as from the consideration that no other people consumes so much of the produce of Portugal. However, the French have become very dangerous rivals to us in this, as in many other branches of trade.

S E C T. V.

ST. CATHARINE'S.

Its Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, Vegetables, Animals, and Climate.

BEFORE we take leave of Brasil, we shall take notice of St. Catharine's, the principal island on the coast of the southern part of this country. It is no where above six miles in breadth, though about twenty-seven in length, extending from the twenty-seventh degree thirty-five minutes south latitude to the twenty-eighth, and lying in the forty-ninth degree forty-five minutes west longitude from London.

Though it is of a considerable height, it is scarce perceivable at ten leagues distance, it being then observed under the continent of Brasil, the other mountains there rising exceeding high; but on a nearer approach it is easily distinguished, and may be known by a number of small islands lying at each end, and scattered along the east side of it. The harbour is defended by several forts.

The soil is truly luxuriant, spontaneously producing fruit of many kinds, and the ground is covered with one continued forest of trees of a perpetual verdure, which from the exuberance of the mould are so entangled with briars, thorns, and underwood, as to form a thicket absolutely impenetrable, except by some narrow paths which the inhabitants have made for their own convenience. These, with some spots cleared for plantations

along the shore facing the continent, seem the only uncovered parts of the island. The woods are extremely fragrant from the many aromatic trees and shrubs with which they abound; and the fruits and vegetables of all climates thrive here, almost without culture, and are to be procured in great plenty; so that here is no want of oranges, lemons, citrons, pine-apples, peaches, apricots, melons, and plantains; there are also abundance of onions and potatoes.

The flesh provisions are however much inferior to the vegetables; there are indeed to be purchased small wild cattle, somewhat like buffaloes; but these are very indifferent food, their flesh being of a loose contexture, and generally of a disagreeable flavour, owing perhaps to the wild calabash on which they feed. There are also great plenty of pheasants, but they are far inferior in taste to those we have in England. The other provisions are monkeys, parrots, and fish of various sorts, which abound in the harbour, are extremely good, and easily caught.

The water both on the inland and the opposite continent is excellent, and preserves at sea as well as that of the Thames, for after it has been in the cask a day or two, it purges itself, stinks most intolerably, and is soon covered with a green scum, which in a few days subsides to the bottom, leaving the water as clear as crystal, and perfectly sweet.

These are the advantages of the island; but it has several inconveniencies attending it, particularly with respect to the climate; for the woods and hills which surround the harbour, prevent a free circulation of air; and the vigorous vegetation which constantly takes place there, furnishes such a prodigious quantity of vapour, that all the night, and a great part of the morning, a thick fog covers the whole country, and continues till either the sun gathers strength to dissipate it, or it is dispersed by a brisk sea breeze. This renders the place close and humid. Strangers are here also much pestered with a multitude of musketos, which are all day extremely troublesome, and at sun set, when they retire, they are succeeded by an infinite number of sand-flies, which though scarce perceivable to the naked eye, make a great buzzing, and wherever they bite, raise a small bump in the flesh, which is soon attended with a painful itching, like that arising from the bite of an English harvest bug. This island is subject to a governor appointed by the king of Portugal, and has a garrison of soldiers for its defence.

SECT. VI.

A concise History of Brasil.

BRASIL is said to have been first discovered by Americus Vesputio, a Florentine, who had the good fortune to be honoured with giving his name to the immense continent some time before found out by Columbus. This was in the year 1498, but he then sailed no farther than to the fifth degree of south latitude. Afterwards, being employed by the king of Portugal, he sailed again to Brasil, and extended his discoveries to the fifty-second degree of south latitude; and the same year his Portuguese majesty sending a fleet to the East Indies under the admiral Peter Alvarez Capralio, he standing out to sea to avoid the calms upon the coast of Africa, fell in with the continent of South America, and landing in the seventeenth degree of south latitude gave the country the name of Santa Cruz, which, as we have already said, it soon after lost, and obtained the name of Brasil. The admiral sent one of his ships back to Portugal with an account of this discovery, the richness of the country, and its agreeable situation; and with the rest continued his voyage to India. His majesty, pleased with the account, resolved to send a colony thither, and the first settlement was made; but this was performed in a very improper manner, for it was only by banishing thither a number of criminals of all kinds. This introduced an evil disposition into the first principles of the colony, and made the settlement extremely difficult, from the disorders they introduced, and the offence they gave to the original in-

habitants. This settlement likewise met with some interruption from the court of Spain, who considered the country as within their dominions. However, the affair was at length accommodated by a treaty, in which it was agreed, that the Portuguese should possess all the country lying between the river of the Amazons and the river Plate.

Their right being thus confirmed, the Portuguese pursued the settlement with great vigour: considerable grants were made to those who were inclined to become adventurers; and many of the nobility of Portugal procured an interest in a country that promised such great advantages. The natives were in most parts subdued, and the improvement of the colony advanced apace. In a little time the crown became attentive to so valuable an acquisition; the government was new modelled, many exorbitant grants recalled, and every thing settled on so advantageous a footing, that all the sea-coasts for upwards of two thousand miles were in some measure settled, to the great benefit of the mother country. The Portuguese conquests on the coast of Africa greatly forwarded this settlement, by the number of negroes it afforded the settlers for their works; and this was the first introduction of negroes into America.

But in the very meridian of the prosperity of the Portuguese, when they were in possession of a most extensive empire, and a flourishing trade in Africa, Arabia, India, the islands of Asia, and one of the most valuable parts of America, they were struck by one of those blows which instantly decides the fate of kingdoms. Don Sebastian, one of their greatest princes, lost his life in an expedition against the Moors, and by that event the Portuguese lost their liberty, Portugal being absorbed in the Spanish dominions.

Soon after the same yoke which galled the necks of the Portuguese, becoming insupportable to the inhabitants of the Netherlands, seven provinces shook it off; and not satisfied with forming themselves into an independent state, and supporting their independency by a successful defensive war, with amazing ardour pursued the Spaniards into the remotest recesses of their extensive territories, and grew rich, powerful, and terrible by the spoils of their former ancestors. They particularly attacked the possessions of the Portuguese, took almost all their fortresses in the East Indies, and then turned their arms upon Brasil, unprotected by the Spaniards, and betrayed by the cowardice of the governor of the principal city. They would have conquered the whole island, had not Don Michael de Texeira, the archbishop, who was descended from one of the noblest families in Portugal, believed that in such an emergency the danger of the country superseded the common obligations of his profession: he took arms, and at the head of the monks, and a few scattered troops, put a stop to the conquests of the Dutch, making a gallant stand till succours arrived, and then resigned the commission, with which the public necessity and his own courage had armed him, into the hands of a person appointed by authority. By this stand he saved seven of the captainships out of fourteen into which Brasil is divided, the rest falling into the hands of the Dutch, who conquered and kept them with the utmost bravery and conduct.

To the brave count Maurice of Nassau the Dutch owed several of these conquests, the establishment of their colonies, and the advantageous peace by which they were secured to them. But as it is natural for a mercantile people to be desirous of sudden profit, and as this colony was not under the immediate government of the states, but subject to the Dutch West India company, they, from principles narrowed by avarice and mean sentiments, could not bear the present profits of the colony should be sacrificed to its future security. The prince kept up more troops and erected more fortresses than they were willing to allow him, and therefore treated him in such a manner as obliged him to resign.

The schemes of the company now took place; several persons were sent over who were to have the management of the colony, and who by their parsimony were to reimburse the company the sums the colony had cost. The chief of the illustrious persons who were the successors of the great count Maurice of Nassau, one of the ablest,

ablest, bravest, and most worthy men of that family, so famous for producing heroes, were Mr. Hamel, a merchant of Amsterdam; Mr. de Bassis, a goldsmith of Harlem; and Mr. Bullestraet, a carpenter of Middleburg; all men of good sense and great fidelity to the company: but unfortunately for the republic, as well as their masters, they understood trade better than the art of government. They sent over to Holland the produce of those lands which count Maurice had assigned for maintaining the fortifications, which in the mean time ran to ruin. They gave licences upon very easy terms to the soldiers to return home, which lessened the expence of the army. The charge of a court was retrenched, the debts of the company exacted with the utmost rigour and severity, their gains now increased cent. per cent. and in their opinion every thing was in a most flourishing state. But in a short

time all these fine appearances ended in the total loss of the country, and the entire ruin of the West India company. The hearts of the subjects were lost by their penurious way of dealing, the severity of their proceedings, and their rigorous exactions; those of the Portuguese who had been long settled in the country, and had submitted to the Dutch government, were now treated with very little ceremony: they therefore purchased fire-arms and ammunition of the government, and as they paid a very high price, they obtained whatever they wanted; joined the Portuguese who came from Europe to their assistance; by degrees recovered all the towns the Hollanders were in possession of, and in 1654 drove them entirely out of the country; since which time it has continued in the possession of the crown of Portugal.

C H A P. VIII.

Of the SPANISH AMERICAN Dominions.

S E C T. I.

Of the Isle of C U B A.

Its Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, Climate, Soil, Vegetables, and Animals; with a particular Description of the Havanna, the Manners and Customs of the People, and the History of the Island.

OUR desire to place the American dominions of each of the several European powers in one view, made it necessary to leave the West India Islands, to which we now return, and shall give as perfect, and at the same time as concise an account of them as we are able.

The island of Cuba is seated between the twentieth degree north latitude and the tropic of Cancer, and between the seventy-fourth and eighty-fifth degree fifteen minutes west longitude; it extends six hundred and sixty miles in length, from Cape St. Antonio on the west to Cape Maize on the east, but is very narrow in proportion, it being generally from thirty to forty miles in breadth. It is seated twenty-five leagues to the north of Jamaica, sixty miles to the west of Hispaniola, and a hundred miles to the south of Cape Florida, commanding the entrance of the gulphs of Mexico and Florida, and of the windward passage.

The natives had given it the name of Cuba before it was discovered by Columbus, who at first called it Juanna, from Don John, and afterwards Ferdinandino, from king Ferdinand V. who was king of Spain when this island was discovered; but it soon after recovered its American name of Cuba, which it still retains.

A ridge of mountains run almost through the island from east to west, in which are mines of copper, which furnish the Spanish plantations with the metal for all their brass guns; and gold dust being found in the sands of the rivers, it is conjectured that there are veins of gold, if not of silver, in the mountains. These mountains are shaded with trees, but the land near the shore is generally a plain champaign country. Abundance of rivulets run from the north and south sides of these eminences, but none of them are large, for they fall into the sea after a very short course. No place in the world has better harbours, the chief of which are the Havanna on the north west, which is one of the finest and most commodious havens in America; and that of St. Jago, which is at the bottom of a large bay, at the east end of the island.

The rainy season is in the months of July and August, when the sun is vertical, and consequently the weather would be extremely hot was the sun not clouded, and the air refreshed by the torrents of rain which then fall. The fairest season is when the sun is farthest from them, and

then the morning is much the hottest part of the day, for towards noon the sea breeze begins to blow pretty briskly, and thus continues till the evening. The trade wind in these seas blows from the north east. At the full and change of the moon, from October to April, they have brisk north or north west winds, which in December and January frequently become storms, though this is usually called the fair season.

This island is said to have in general the best soil, for so large a country, of any in America, and to produce all the commodities known in our American islands, particularly ginger, long pepper, and other spices, cassia fistula, mastic, and aloes. Here are large cedars and other odoriferous trees, oaks, pines, palm-trees, plenty of large vines, and fine cotton trees. There are two sorts of fruit here, called camitor and guanavana; the first resembles a China orange, and grows on a tree which has a leaf green on one side, and of a cinnamon colour on the other. The other is in the form of a heart, green without, and with some thorny prickles within: it has also some stones, and a tart juice. Their other fruits are plantanes, bananas, guavas, lemons, &c. here are also many large walks of cocoas. The country produces tobacco and sugar, said to be the best in the West Indies, though in no great quantity for want of hands to cultivate the canes, but their sugar works have both water mills and horse mills.

The black cattle formerly brought hither by the Spaniards, have multiplied to such an extraordinary degree, that numbers have run wild in the woods, and for want of people to eat the flesh, many fine fat beasts are killed purely for their hides, and left to rot on the ground. However, a great deal of flesh is cut into pieces, and dried in the sun, in order to serve for ships provisions. There are here also horses, mules, sheep, hogs and wild boars, wild and tame fowl, parrots, and partridges with blue heads; the shores abound with sea fowl, particularly with a sort of cranes that are white when young, but of several colours when old. Here are likewise large turtle, and there is no place where the seas and rivers abound more with alligators. The fish are chiefly barbel and shads.

This island is far from being improved as it might; for here, says our author, are more churches than plantations, more priests than planters, and more lazy bigots than labourers. To this it is owing, that this large island, with a luxuriant soil, capable of producing abundance of food, and which is perhaps easier procured and obtained here than in any other part of the world, here being forests which, besides the cattle just mentioned, afford plenty of venison; yet does not produce for exportation, including even their hides and tallow, their sugar,

sugar, tobacco, and snuff, near the value of our little island of Antigua.

Here are many considerable towns, but though St. Jago still retains the name of the capital, it is greatly inferior to the Havannah, which is by far the finest city in the island.

The Havannah is seated on the north west coast of the island, in the twenty-third degree twelve minutes north latitude, and in the eighty-second degree thirteen minutes west longitude. It was built by Diego de Velasquez, who landed here in the beginning of the sixteenth century with three hundred Spaniards, and with the assistance of Bartholomew de las Casas conquered Cuba. The last gentleman, after turning a Dominican friar, was made bishop of Chiapa, in New Spain, and distinguished himself greatly by his zeal in the cause of humanity; and from him we have the history of the Spanish cruelties, both here and in other parts of the West Indies. Its fort is said to be the most frequented, as well as the best in all the islands, and one of the finest in the world; it being so large, that a thousand sail of ships may commodiously ride in it in the utmost safety, without either anchor or cable, no wind being able to hurt them; and is so deep, that the largest vessels anchor at a small distance from the shore. The entrance, which has no bar to obstruct it, is by a channel about three quarters of a mile in length, but so narrow, that only one ship can go in at a time. The harbour into which it leads at the north west corner, is a long square lying north and south; the other three corners forming three creeks or bays.

This city stands in the most fertile part of the island, on the west side of the harbour, in a delightful plain that extends along the shore, and backwards it is washed by two branches of the river Lagida. The city is of an oval form, and begins about a quarter of a mile from the mouth of the harbour. The buildings, which are of stone, are very handsome, but not lofty, and the streets are narrow, but clean. Here are eleven churches and monasteries, two handsome hospitals, and a fine square in the middle of the town, encompassed with uniform buildings. The churches which are magnificent, are richly adorned, the lamps, candlesticks, and ornaments for the altars, being of gold and silver. Some silver lamps of most curious workmanship, are so large as to weigh two hundred marks, each mark being half a pound. The church of the Recollects has twelve beautiful chapels, and in their monastery are cells for fifty fathers. St. Clare's church has seven altars, all adorned with plate, and the nunnery contains a hundred women and servants. The church of the Augustines has thirteen altars, and that of St. John de Dieu nine altars, with a hospital for soldiers, that has a revenue of twelve thousand pieces of eight.

The city on the land side is encompassed with a wall defended by bastions, and a castle on the side towards the harbour; at the harbour's mouth are also two other strong castles to defend its entrance: the strongest of these has lines, which extend to the castle first mentioned, and is called the Moro fort: it is built on a rock at the foot of two hills, in which is cut a deep ditch, filled with sea water. The walls are of a triangular form, with three large bastions planted with forty heavy cannon. From this castle runs a line mounted with twelve prodigious long pieces of cannon, lying level with the water, each carrying a ball of thirty-six pounds, and these are by way of eminence called the twelve apostles. At the point between this castle and the sea is a tower, with a round lanthorn at the top, where a man continually watches to see what ships are approaching, of which he gives notice by putting out as many flags as there are ships. The second of the castles at the harbour's mouth is called the Puntal, and stands on a plain ground on the side of the entrance, opposite to the former. It is a regular fortification, with four good bastions well planted with cannon. The third fort, which was that first mentioned, is called El Fuerte, or, The Fort, by way of eminence: it is a small but strong work towards the end of the narrow channel, with four regular bastions, and another platform mounted with about sixty large heavy brass cannon. Besides these three forts there are two others, each of twelve guns, which stand on the shore four or five miles from the port. That to the east is called Coxemar, and

that to the west Bariavans. These forts have in the whole one hundred and twenty guns.

This city is of more importance to the Spaniards than any other in America, it being the place of rendezvous for all their fleets in their return from that quarter of the world to Spain; and from its lying at the mouth of the gulf of Florida, through which they are all obliged to pass, it has been called by the Spaniards, the key of the West Indies. Here rides the navy of the king of Spain; and here meet in September the merchant ships from several Spanish ports, both of the continent and islands, to the number of fifty or sixty sail, to take in provisions and water, in order to return to Spain in a body. Within the city is a continual fair till their departure, which is generally before the end of the month, when proclamation is made, forbidding any that belong to the fleet to stay in the town on pain of death, and upon firing a warning gun, they all go on board.

The inhabitants are generally more familiar than at La Vera Cruz, and the women in particular have more liberty, but do not go abroad without their veils. Many of them speak French, and dress after the French mode, some of that nation having settled there since Spain fell to the house of Bourbon. The diet most in use are hogs and turtle, with which all the ships complete their store of provisions. The pork is esteemed very nourishing, and contrary to that of other countries is binding. They cut the flesh of the turtle into long slices, and strewing salt over them, dry them in the wind. The wine here is pretty cheap, but provisions are in general dear, especially wheat bread, which is frequently sold at a penny an ounce, particularly when the galleons are here; this is ascribed to the want of wheat, which does not thrive here, and therefore all they have is imported from abroad. The inhabitants, however, in general make use of bread made of the cassava root. While the fleets are here, a fowl sells for a noble, and fruit and other things in proportion, so that a man can scarce live for two pieces of eight a day.

The other principal towns in the island are Santa Cruz, which is seated sixty-three miles to the east of the Havannah, on the same coast, and has a very good harbour. Porto del Principe, on the same coast, stands about three hundred miles south east of the Havannah; it was formerly a rich town, and was taken by the Buccaneers, after a stout resistance. Near it are some springs of bitumen.

St. Jago is seated in the twentieth degree two minutes north latitude, and in the seventy-fifth degree forty-seven minutes west longitude, at the bottom of a spacious bay, on the south east side of the island, about six miles from the sea. The entrance to the bay is narrow, and within it are small islands, which shelter it from storms, and form a commodious harbour. It is a bishop's see, and has a cathedral; it had once also a good trade, which is now removed to the Havannah, and though the city has jurisdiction over half the island, it has dwindled almost to nothing.

Though this island was discovered in 1492, it was not completely conquered till the year 1511. The natives were treated with all the cruelty that the united passions of savage bigotry, superstition, and avarice could invent; and it is said that some millions of them were cut off, and that at last orders were sent from the court of Spain to exterminate the few remains of its original inhabitants, which was accordingly executed with barbarous punctuality; so that the history of Cuba is no other than a relation of the most horrible massacres, which were industriously concealed by the Spaniards; for these monsters finding gold upon the island, concluded that it must come from concealed mines, and therefore tortured vast numbers of the natives, to make them discover where these mines lay; and it is said, that in the single year when the governor Velasquez arrived on the island, no fewer than six hundred thousand of the natives were put to death.

The houses of the Havannah were at first of no better materials than wood, and that town was so inconsiderable in 1536, that it was taken by the crew of a French pirate ship, who obliged the inhabitants to pay seven hundred ducats to save it from being burnt. The very day

day after the pirates departure three Spanish ships from Mexico arrived at the Havanna, and having unloaded their cargoes, sailed in pursuit of the pirate ship; but such was the cowardice of the Spanish officers, that the pirate took all their three ships, and returning to the Havanna obliged the inhabitants to pay them seven hundred ducats more.

To prevent the like accidents for the future, the inhabitants of the Havanna built their houses of stone, and ran up a fort at the mouth of the harbour: but as the town was still open on the land side, the English cruizers paid it several unwelcome visits, and more than once drove the Spanish inhabitants into the woods, while they plundered the place. During the war between Henry II. of France with Spain, a Dieppe ship, with no more than ninety men, plundered St. Jago, and afterwards attacked the Havanna; but the Spaniards had been so often used to those visits, that they had retired to the woods; so that the French found no inhabitants there. After remaining for some time in the town, searching in vain for plunder, two Spaniards came to them, seemingly to treat of the ransom of the town, but in reality to observe their numbers. The French demanded six thousand ducats for ransom-money, which the two deputies pretended was more than the inhabitants could raise, and took their leave. Upon their return to their countrymen, the majority came to a resolution to surprize the French sword in hand, and accordingly a hundred and fifty of them came, under cover of the night, to cut them off while asleep; but the French, after losing four of their number, stood to their arms, and soon put the Spaniards to flight. After this, by daubing the windows and doors of the houses with pitch and tar, of which they found great plenty, they set fire to the town, and afterwards pulled down the walls and the fort. In the year 1669 the English Buccaneers under captain Morgan took the city of Havanna, and would have kept it could they have had the king of England's protection.

In July 1741, admiral Vernon and general Wentworth landed at Walthenam harbour in the south-east part of the island, with a squadron of ships, made an encampment, and erected a fort on the shore, to which they gave the name of Cumberland harbour and fort. They continued there till almost the end of November following, when the sickness of the men obliged them to abandon the island.

The importance of the Havanna to the Spaniards was never thoroughly understood till after the succession of the house of Bourbon to the throne of Spain, and then nothing was wanting that could contribute to render it impregnable.

When the amazing successes of Great Britain in the late war united the three branches of the house of Bourbon, France, Spain, and Naples, in what was called the Family Compact, the mistakes of the former plans of war against Spain were observed, and it was resolved to begin the operations by the attack of the Havanna. This momentous plan depending so entirely upon military knowledge, his majesty referred, in a great measure, the execution of it to his uncle, the late duke of Cumberland, whose long experience in the army undoubtedly rendered him the best judge of the abilities of the officers who were to be employed in the execution of it. The chief command was given to the earl of Albemarle, the disciple of his royal highness in the art of war. Admiral Pocock, who had acquitted himself so much to the honour and interest of his country in the East Indies, had the command of the fleet, and Sir James Douglas was ordered to reinforce him with his squadron from Martinico.

The main fleet sailed on the fifth of March 1761, and was joined by Sir James Douglas with his reinforcement on the twenty-seventh of May off the north-west point of Hispaniola; the whole armament then consisting of nineteen ships of the line, eighteen smaller ships of war, and about a hundred and fifty transports, with ten thousand regular troops on board, which were to be joined about the time the operations were to commence by four thousand troops more, who were ordered from North America. The admiral, pressed by time, resolved to run along the northern shore of the island, through the old

streights of Bahama, which form a narrow passage, bounded on each side by dangerous sands and shoals about nine hundred miles in length. This the approach of the hurricane season rendered in some measure necessary, and the admiral having procured from lord Anson an excellent chart of those streights, conducted their passage with such success, that they got clear of all danger by the fifth of June.

Fourteen Spanish men of war, besides smaller ships, were then lying in the basin of the harbour of Havanna. The admiral, with twelve sail of the line, bore away to block them up, and to make a diversion on one side, while the landing was effected on the other, between the two forts, Barcarans and Coxemar, the first of which was taken possession of by the Mercury man of war, and the other by the Dragon; their garrison, which consisted of armed peasants and negroes, flying into the woods. Mean while the earl of Albemarle, favoured by the fire of the Dragon, passed the Coxamar river, and the army lay under arms along the shore.

On the eighth of June lord Albemarle marched to Guanamacoa, about six miles from the landing-place, and saw six thousand of the enemy, drawn up very advantageously, as if they intended to dispute his passage to that village, but they were soon dispersed; the next day his lordship formed the army into two bodies; one commanded by general Elliot lay towards the south-east of the harbour, extending considerably into the country, in order to cover the siege, and secure the foraging parties sent out for provisions. The other was commanded by general Keppel, and was employed in the attack of Moro castle, while colonel Howe was posted with a detachment to cut off the communication between the town and the country, and keep the enemy's attention divided. The hardships the English army sustained in carrying on the siege of the Moro castle, were inexpressible: the earth was every where so thin, that it was with great difficulty they could cover themselves in their approaches. There was no spring or river near them; it was necessary to bring water from a great distance, and so precarious and scanty was this supply, that they were obliged to have it brought from their ships: roads for communication were to be cut through thick woods; the artillery were to be drawn a vast way over a rough rocky shore, and several of the men dropped down dead with heat, thirst, and fatigue. In short, the siege of Moro castle was carried on with the utmost difficulty; and the fire continued with equal fury on both sides. To give the greater effect to the batteries, the Dragon, Marlborough, and Cambridge, laid their broadsides against the north east part of the Moro, and a most dreadful cannonading ensued for seven hours, both from the forts and the sea; but the situation and strength of the castle gave it great advantages over the ships, which were terribly shattered and obliged to sheer off. The enemy in the fort, who kept up a communication with the town, had landed two detachments of grenadiers of five hundred men each, with a great number of negroes and mulattoes, to attack the works of the English on the right and left; but they were defeated with the loss of above two hundred men, and a great number wounded. At length the batteries from the army had displaced many of the enemy's guns; but when it was thought that a speedy period would be put to the immense labours of the besiegers, the grand battery took fire, and with it was consumed the labour of six hundred men for seventeen days.

Sickness, the badness of provisions, and the scarcity of water, with the heat of the climate, had at length killed or rendered useless two-thirds of the army, and the seamen were in very little better condition, while the growing distempers of the season, and the exposed situation of the ships, threatened destruction both to the land and sea forces. After inexpressible toil the besiegers batteries again took fire, and they had now nothing to trust to but the arrival of their reinforcements from North America, because whatever losses the Spaniards sustained in the day time, were repaired in the night. At length the arrival of the Jamaica fleet inspired the troops with fresh hopes. On the twenty-second of July, a vigorous sally of fifteen hundred men, divided into three parties, was

made

made from the town, but they were repulsed with the loss of four hundred men, while that of the besiegers did not exceed fifty men. The ditch which secured the castle was cut in the rock about seventy feet deep, and forty wide, and though the enemy sent two boats and a floating battery out of the harbour, to fire grape-shot and small arms into the ditch where the miners were at work, they were not only repulsed, but a mine was sprung, which threw a part of the wall into the ditch, and left a breach, which though small, the troops were ordered to storm. The garrison of Spaniards within the castle was still considerable; but the soldiers mounting the breach, entered the fort with such amazing intrepidity, that the Spaniards, who had been regularly drawn up to resist them, lost all the spirit they had before exerted. Four hundred of them were cut to pieces, or perished in the water; four hundred threw down their arms, and received quarters. The marquis de Gonzales, the second in command, was killed while endeavouring to stop the shameful flight of his men: Don Lewis de Velasco, the governor, with about a hundred of the garrison, bravely defended their colours till he was killed, to the extreme regret of his generous conquerors. The Spaniards then directed their fire against Moro castle, now in the possession of the English. New batteries were erected by the besiegers, who battered both the Puntal and the town from forty-three pieces of cannon and eight mortars, with such success, that flags of truce appeared in all quarters of the Havannah, and a messenger was sent to the British camp to settle the capitulation, which was signed on the fourteenth of August, by which the men of war in the harbour, as well as the forts and the town, were delivered up to the English. And thus, says our author, a prophecy which had been long current with the Spaniards in those parts was fulfilled, namely, that the English should one day walk as masters through the streets of the Havannah. However, this important conquest was restored to Spain in the nineteenth article of the definitive treaty of 1763.

SECT. II.

Of PORTO RICO.

Its Name, Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, Climate, Soil, Vegetables, and Animals. A Description of the City of Porto Rico, and a concise history of the Island.

THE next island belonging to Spain, is that of Hispaniola, but as the most valuable part of it belongs to the French, we have placed it among the American islands subject to France. We now therefore come to Porto Rico, the last of the great Antilles that remains to be described.

This island, which was discovered by Columbus in 1493, received from him the name of St. John; but the chief town being afterwards built upon a harbour called Rico or Rich, as is supposed from its excellence, the whole island has since obtained the name of Porto Rico. It is situated between the eighteenth degree and forty minutes north latitude, and between the sixty-fifth and sixty-seventh degree west longitude, lying about eighteen leagues from the north east point of Hispaniola, extending one hundred and fifty miles from east to west, and between forty and fifty in breadth.

The soil is beautifully diversified with woods, vallies, and plains, and is extremely fertile. It abounds with fine meadows, and a ridge of mountains runs through the island from east to west. The north part, which is more barren than the south, has been represented by travellers as having mines of quicksilver, tin, and lead, with some of gold and silver; but there are none of the latter worked at present. It is well watered with springs and rivers, and there are reckoned no less than twenty-three that fall into the sea on the north or south side.

The rains which usually render the season unhealthy, generally fall in June, July, and August, which would otherwise be extremely hot, the sun being vertical, and

the wind is at south east, while at other times it is at north east. From eight in the morning till four in the afternoon they have a sea breeze, but from six in the morning till this refreshing gale springs up, the air is very hot; but the most sultry part of the day is at five in the afternoon, and the coolest from three in the morning till six.

The soil produces a long coarse grass, on which the cattle feed, but the inhabitants never make it into hay. It bears good ship timber, and variety of fruit trees, particularly cocoas, pine-apples, mammees, guavas, papaws, bananas, plantanes, palms, musk-melons, oranges, limes, pomegranates, citrons, grapes, plums, figs, Jamaica pepper, speckled wood, cassia fistula, the sensitive plant, and the bastard cinnamon, together with rice and Indian corn; but they make most of their bread of the cassava root. The common liquor here, besides water, is made of malasses and spices mixed together; but the better sort drink a liquor made of spices alone, and all the wine is brought from abroad.

The island is well stocked with wild cattle, which were originally of Spanish breed, with goats, hogs, and sheep. Their pork is excellent, as is also the flesh of their kids; but their mutton is poor dry food. Here are great flocks of parrots, wood-pigeons, and other wild and tame fowl, with all manner of European poultry, and plenty of fish.

The inhabitants are said not to exceed ten thousand. This island might, however, be rendered one of the most flourishing of all the Spanish colonies, if it was not for the mischief to which it is too liable from great droughts, hurricanes, and the descent of privateers, by which all the sea-ports have been frequently ruined. The principal commodities exported from hence are sugar, ginger, hides, cotton thread, raw cotton, cassia, mastic, &c. They have also great quantities of salt, and make considerable profit of their oranges, lemons, and sweetmeats. The inhabitants have many good vessels, in which they trade to various parts of America.

The city of Porto Rico is seated on the north side of the island, in a peninsula which joins to the continent by a causeway in the eighteenth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and the sixty-fifth degree thirty-five minutes west longitude. It is well-built, populous, and both the seat of the governor and the see of a bishop. The cathedral has a monastery belonging to it; but the heat of the climate renders it inconvenient to make use of glass-windows, and their canvas and wooden lattices disfigure their buildings. The city is defended by a citadel and a castle, and is the center of the contraband trade usually carried on by the English and French with the subjects of the king of Spain, notwithstanding the severity of the laws, and the extraordinary precautions taken to prevent it; hence it is large, and better inhabited than most of the Spanish cities in America.

When this island was taken by the Spaniards, it is said the natives amounted to no less than six hundred thousand, and had the character of a brave gallant people; but the Spaniards, by the advantage they had over them in the art of war, with much difficulty reduced them, and have since by degrees quite extirpated them. After which no more gold was to be found on the island; though the natives had a great deal of it, and on that account were murdered, that the Spaniards might have it all to themselves.

In 1595 Sir Francis Drake burnt the ships in the harbour of Porto Rico, and three years after the town was reduced by the earl of Cumberland, who fitted out a fleet at his own expence, in which were two regiments of queen Elizabeth's troops. He conquered the town with great difficulty, and had thoughts of keeping it; but losing four hundred of his men, who died of the bloody flux in a month's time, he abandoned it, after demolishing the forts, and carried off eighty pieces of brass cannon and a great quantity of plate. In 1615 it was taken and plundered by the Dutch; but they could not take the castle, which is now in a better condition than ever, as are also the other forts.

SECT.

S E C T. III.

Of the Islands of TRINIDAD and MARGARETTA.

Their Situation, Extent, and Produce; with some Observations on the Conduct of the Spaniards with respect to their West India Islands, and the Continent.

THERE are several other smaller islands belonging to Spain in this sea, particularly Trinidad, or Trinidad, which is seated in the tenth degree thirty-eight minutes north latitude, and in the sixtieth degree twenty-seven minutes west longitude, forming one side of the straits of Paria, or Bocca de Drago, and New Andalusia, in Terra Firma. It is about sixty-two miles in length, and forty-five in breadth. The soil is fruitful, producing sugar, fine tobacco, Indian corn, variety of fruit, and some cotton trees. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the island and extorted money from the inhabitants.

About five degrees to the westward of Trinidad is Margarett, which is seated near the northern coast of New Andalusia, from which it is separated by a straight twenty-four miles broad. It is fifteen leagues in length, six in breadth, and, as it is always verdant, affords a very agreeable prospect. The island is very fertile, it abounding with pastures, maize, and fruit; and has many groves. A great number of boats were formerly employed here in fishing for pearls; but this fishery is much declined, if not discontinued.

There are several other small islands near the last of little consequence, at least to the Spaniards, who seem to have paid but small attention to the cultivation of the larger and more valuable, and we do not find any thing relating to them worthy the observation of the reader. We shall therefore conclude this section, and our account of the Spanish West India islands, with some observations on the conduct of the Spaniards, with regard to their settlement of them.

The Spaniards, by a series of the most inhuman and impolitic barbarities, having exterminated the original inhabitants of Cuba, Hispaniola, and Porto Rico, have left them comparatively so many deserts, and deprived themselves of a thousand advantages they might have enjoyed by an equitable trade with the natives. The commerce between the islands and the Spanish continent is carried on by the Barvento fleet, consisting of six ships of good force and burthen, who annually make the tour of Cuba, Hispaniola, Porto Rico, and the coast of Terra Firma, not only to carry on the commerce between them, but to clear the sea of pirates and illicit traders; and now and then a register ship from Spain is bound to one or other of them. The Spaniards have hitherto seemed to keep possession of them, rather to prevent any other nation growing too powerful in those seas, than from the profit they expected to derive from them: for it is certain, that should any other nations obtain the possession of all these islands, the trade of the American continent, and perhaps the continent itself, would be entirely at their mercy. The Spaniards have, however, lately taken some steps towards the better settlement of Porto Rico;

and are beginning to open the American trade to some other towns in Spain besides Cadiz. They have made a difference in point of duty between their own manufactures and those of foreigners; and are opening their eyes to the true interest of their country.

“Hitherto, says an ingenious author, the tide of wealth that constantly flowed from America into Spain ran through that kingdom like a hasty torrent, which, far from enriching the country, hurried away with it all the wealth it found in its passage. No country in Europe has received such vast treasures as Spain. In no country in Europe is seen so little money: for from the time that the Indies fell into the hands of Spain, the affairs of that monarchy have been constantly going backward. In America their settlements were carried on conformably to that genius, and to those maxims which prevailed in their government in Europe. No means of retaining their conquests but by extirpating the people; no schemes for the advancement of trade; no attempts at the reformation of abuses, which became venerable in proportion to the mischiefs they had suffered by them: in government, tyranny; in religion, bigotry; in trade, monopoly.

“When the Spaniards found, to their ambition, which was boundless, that they had joined a treasure which was inexhaustible, they imagined there was nothing too vast for them to compass. They embraced a thousand projects at once; many of them noble ones in theory; but to be executed with different instruments in different parts of the world, and all at a vast expence of blood and treasure. The wars, which were the result of these schemes, and the Indies, which were to support them, were a continual drain, which carried off their people, and destroyed all industry in those who remained. The treasure which flowed in every year from the New World, found them in debt to every part of the Old; for to the rest of their revenues they had forgot to add that, which is a great revenue itself, and the great support of all the others, œconomy. On the contrary, an ill order in their finances at home, and a devouring usury abroad, swallowed up all their treasure, whilst they multiplied the occasions for it. With the best scheming heads in Europe, they were every where outrivalled; with brave and well-disciplined troops, they were almost always defeated; with the greatest treasures, they were in want; and their armies were ill provided, and ill paid. Their friends exhausted them by trade; their enemies by plunder. They saw new states arise out of the fragments of their dominions; and new maritime powers start up from the wrecks of their navy. In short, they provoked, troubled, and enriched all Europe; and at last desisted through mere want of strength. They were inactive, but not quiet; and they were enervated as much by their laziness, during this reserve, as they had been weakened before by their ill-judged activity. At present the politicks of Spain, with regard to America, seem to be to preserve South America, and particularly the navigation of the South Seas as much as possible to themselves; to destroy effectually the contraband trade, and to encourage the export of their own manufactures.”

C H A P. IX.

Of the SPANISH Dominions on the Continent of AMERICA; and first of NEW MEXICO, CALIFORNIA, and MEXICO, or NEW SPAIN.

S E C T. I.

Of the Spanish Dominions on the American Continent in general : their Situation, Extent, Climates, and Produce : with some Reflections on the Conduct of the Spaniards with respect to Population, and the Manner in which Spain became impoverished by the Acquisition of Gold and Silver.

WE now come to the continent of Spanish America, which is of an amazing extent, it reaching from the thirty-fourth degree of north to the fifty-third degree of south latitude ; extending from Cape Sebastian, the most northern point of California, to the straits of Magellan, a space of between six and seven thousand miles, the whole coast of which is on one side entirely Spanish ; but on the other is Brasil, and a comparatively inconsiderable French and Dutch settlement. A great part indeed of this country is possessed by the natives, and some places lie desolate ; but Spain claims the dominion of the whole : however, it must be confessed, that only a very small part of it is really cultivated by the Spaniards.

The climate in so great an extent of country must differ according to the latitude, and other circumstances ; and thus the general opinion, that the Spanish American dominions are unhealthy, is, like many other general propositions, at the same time both true and false. Those colonies within or near the tropics are in many places exceeding hot, while others are remarkably cool ; some where the climate is exceeding hot are both healthy and pleasant, while others have an almost pestilential air. Several of the provinces in New Spain and Peru are blessed with almost every advantage, and no country affords more delightful spots than are to be found in New Mexico in the north, Buenos Ayres in the south, and several other countries on both sides the Line in the temperate zones. Where the lands have never been cleared, where the soil is marshy and swampish, where periodical deluges of rain pour down from the heavens, we may easily believe the climate must be unhealthy, and all these meet in some of the Spanish dominions in America.

The soil differs no less than the climate : some countries consist of the most beautiful lawns, pastures, fields, and meadows, watered with fine streams, shaded with groves, and variegated with hills and valleys ; while others only present to the eye dreary deserts, dreadful rocks, and mountains of a stupendous height, vast forests, and the most tremendous scenes of wild, rude, and uncultivated nature. Several of the Spanish plantations are wonderfully rich and fruitful, abounding in corn, the most beautiful pastures, trees that afford fruit, shade, and ornament, odoriferous shrubs, medicinal plants, woods, and roots, with flowers delightful to the senses ; in short, almost every thing that nature or art produces, in any quarter of the globe, may here be found growing spontaneously, or raised by labour, in its greatest perfection. In the bosom of the earth have been found immense treasures of gold and silver, and in short, this extensive territory also produces emeralds, pearls, rich drugs, dyeing woods, tobacco, ginger, coffee, cotton, and sweetmeats : and for the convenience of navigation, it is furnished with the noblest rivers in the world.

If we take a view of the country with respect to its inhabitants, we shall find the reason why these colonies have proved of little service to Spain. The impolitic expulsion of the Moors proved an irreparable blow to that monarchy ; and the colonization of America increased

the evil. Yet though Spain was almost depopulated by the constant migration of her people to the continent of America and the West India islands, still the number was very inadequate to the purpose of rendering the plantation populous and flourishing, especially as the cruelty of the first conquerors had almost extirpated the natural inhabitants. When America was first reduced, it was thought necessary to establish great numbers of ecclesiastics in the country, for the instruction of the natives in the Christian religion ; and these have since multiplied to such a degree, as to have the most pernicious effect upon population. Every province is filled with monasteries, nunneries, and persons condemned by superstition to celibacy, and doomed by the tyranny of the church to be denied the gratification of the most natural passion. The spirit of avarice and oppression which reigns among all the officers of the crown, who are generally chosen out of families of distinction of broken fortunes, sensibly affects the state by prejudicing the revenues, discouraging industry, and extinguishing public spirit. But what is of still more importance is, that the fondness the Spaniards have shewn for gold and silver, has been equally prejudicial to the colonies, and to the mother country, since it has not only prevented those commodities and manufactures which in themselves would prove more valuable than the richest mines of gold and silver, but has diffused such narrow and sordid principles through the minds of the people, as are visibly productive of the most fatal effects.

The justly celebrated baron de Montesquieu, in his admirable work, intitled, *The Spirit of Laws*, after observing that from the time in which the Spaniards discovered the gold and silver of America, Spain has been incessantly declining, adds,

“ Gold and silver are either a fictitious, or a representative wealth. The representative signs of wealth are extremely durable, and in their own nature but little subject to decay. But the more they are multiplied, the more they lose their value, because the fewer are the things they represent.

“ The Spaniards, after the conquest of Mexico and Peru, abandoned their natural riches in pursuit of a representative wealth, which daily degraded itself. Gold and silver were extremely scarce in Europe, and Spain becoming suddenly mistress of a prodigious quantity of those metals, conceived hopes to which she never before aspired. The wealth found in the conquered countries, great as it was, did not, however, equal that of their mines. The Indians concealed a part ; and besides, these people, who made no other use of gold and silver than to give magnificence to the temples of their gods, and to the palaces of their kings, sought not for it with an avarice like ours. In short, they had not the secret of drawing the metals from every mine, but only from those in which the separation might be made by fire.

“ However, it was not long before the specie of Europe was doubled ; this appeared from the price of commodities ; which was every where doubled.

“ The Spaniards raked into the mines, scooped out mountains, invented machines to draw out water, to break the ore, and separate it ; and, as they sported with the lives of the Indians, they forced them to labour without mercy. As the specie of Europe soon doubled, the profit of Spain diminished in the same proportion ; and they had every year the same quantity of metal, which was become by one half less precious.

“ In



“ In double the time the specie still doubled, and the profit diminished another half.

“ It diminished even more than one half: let us see in what manner.

“ To extract the gold from the mines, to give it the requisite preparations, and to import it into Europe, must be attended with some certain expence; I will suppose this to be as one to sixty-four. When the specie was once doubled, and consequently became one half less precious, the expence was as two to sixty-four. Thus the galleons, which brought to Spain the same quantity of gold, brought a thing which was really of less value by one half, though the expences attending it had been one half higher.

“ If we proceed doubling and doubling, we shall find in this progression, the cause of the impotency of the wealth of Spain.”

S E C T. II.

Of NEW MEXICO.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Rivers, Face of the Country, and Produce. A concise Account of its Government, and of its Indian Inhabitants.

THE province of New Mexico will not admit of our being very explicit in our account of it, since its boundaries are by no means ascertained, and the far greatest part of it is still in the hands of the natives, who have the happiness still to enjoy that invaluable blessing their liberty. It is however supposed to extend between the twenty-eighth and thirty-eighth degree of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by very high mountains, and a country utterly unknown, and never pervaded by Europeans. On the east it has the spacious country of Louisiana; on the west the Californian lake, and the river Colorado; while on the south it is bounded by the province of Mexico Proper.

As it lies in the midst of the temperate zone, it enjoys a very pleasant climate. The summers, indeed, are very warm, and the winters pretty sharp; but then the former are neither stifling nor unhealthy, nor the latter intensely cold, or deluged with floods of heavy rain, but the air is clear and salubrious. Thus each season is what is very desirable, and extremely agreeable to an European constitution.

This country is finely watered with rivers and rivulets, though few of these are large or navigable. The Rio Solado and the Rio del Norte alone deserve notice; the last flowing the whole length of the country, and then making a sweep eastward, runs through the province of New Leon, and discharges itself into the gulf of Mexico. There are also several smaller rivers that fall into the Mexican sea, and some bays, ports, and creeks, on that coast, which might easily be converted into excellent harbours, had the Spaniards any share of that diligence and commercial spirit which animates the other maritime powers of Europe.

The land is beautifully interspersed with rising grounds and fertile plains, covered with trees, some of which are fit for timber, and others produce various kinds of fruit. Here are said to be found gold and silver, turquoises, emeralds, and other precious stones. Here are all kinds of wild and tame cattle, especially cows, with a prodigious variety of fowl; and the rivers are abundantly stored with the most delicious fish. In short, it is affirmed to be one of the pleasanter, richest, and most plentiful countries in America, or in any other part of the world.

New Mexico is divided by some geographers into fifteen provinces, and by many of the Spanish writers into eighteen, of which they give us the names.

Santa Fe, the capital, is a handsome well built town, seated near the source of the Rio del Norte, in the thirty-sixth degree forty minutes north latitude, and in the one hundred and first degree fifteen minutes west longitude from London. It is regularly built, and is the see of a bishop, suffragan to that of Mexico, and the seat of the governor of the country, who enjoys his post five years. This governor is enjoined to maintain a constant force of six hundred horse, half of which number, says our author, is

feldom kept up, their pay going into the governor's pocket, which alone would make a considerable salary, no less than four hundred and fifty pieces of eight being allowed for the annual support of every soldier.

The natives are easy, generous, and pacific, yet extremely formidable on account of the dexterity with which they handle their bows and arrows. They are better provided for their defence than any other inhabitants of the new world. When the Spaniards first entered the country, they found the natives well clothed, their lands cultivated; their villages neat, and their towns built of stone, in which they shewed some knowledge in architecture not drawn from the rules of art, but the convenience dictated by nature. Their flocks of cattle were numerous, and they seemed to live in a very comfortable manner. We are told, that they were so skilful in shooting, that at a considerable distance, they would discharge an arrow so true, as to shake the grain out of a ripe ear of Indian corn without breaking it. They were great lovers of mules flesh, and upon that account frequently seized the mules of the Spanish travellers, leaving their chests of silver upon the road, because they set no value upon that metal. They worshipped the sun and moon, but discovered a greater readiness to embrace the doctrines of Christianity than any other of the American nations, expressing no other dislike to it, but a fear that it would oblige them to part with their freedom, to which they are extremely attached. Their princes were little more than the leaders of their armies, elected at the pleasure of the people, for their wisdom or valour.

The Spanish writers say, that New Mexico is inhabited by a great variety of different nations, intirely unconnected with each other; but the principal are the Apaches, the several tribes of whom are distinguished by their towns and settlements. They are a brave, warlike, resolute people, fond of liberty, and the inveterate enemies of tyranny and oppression, of which the Spaniards had fatal experience towards the close of the last century, when they took arms and ravaged the country planted by the Spaniards. At length they were rather appeased than subdued, and ever since have remained the allies, but not the subjects of Spain. This is all the account we are able to give of the present state of New Mexico, from authors that deserve any credit. The Spaniards have been very sparing in their accounts of this country, which is probably owing either to their indolence or caution. However, they have probably but few towns here, and an inconsiderable part of the country is cultivated, compared with its extent.

S E C T. III.

Of CALIFORNIA.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Face of the Country, Vegetables, and Animals. With an Account of the Manners and Customs of the Natives.

CALIFORNIA, the most northern part of the Spanish dominions on the continent of America, towards the Pacific ocean, received the name of New Albion, from Sir Francis Drake, who took possession of it in the name of queen Elizabeth. It is also called by some writers, Islas Carabiras. This province was for a long time considered as an island, but is now found to be a peninsula in the Pacific ocean, issuing from the north coast of America, and extending from Cape Sebastian, in the forty-third degree thirty minutes north latitude, to the south east, where it is terminated by St. Lucar, in the twenty-second degree thirty-two minutes north latitude, the whole peninsula being eight hundred miles in length.

It is divided from Mexico by a gulf, in which are many islands. The peninsula is very unequal in breadth; towards the north it is near two hundred miles wide, but at the southern extremity it tapers away, and is scarcely fifty miles over.

Though it lies for the most part in the temperate zone, the coast is very hot in summer, but the inland part is more temperate. In winter it is very cold, but healthy.

However, in so extensive a country there must be great variations, both of soil and climate; and Califor-

nia has not only some of the most beautiful lawns, but has many of the most inhospitable deserts in the universe. The lands to the westward of the river Colorado are level and fruitful, interspersed with delightful woods, cool refreshing springs and rivulets, and the most enchanting pastures and meadows. Upon the whole, though California, on a general view, appears rather rough, craggy, and unpromising, yet we are assured, that with due culture it furnishes every necessary of life.

California produces large quantities of timber fit for ship building; and among the shrubs is one called pitahaya, which is said to be peculiar to California; its branches are finely fluted, and rise vertically from the stem, so as to form a very beautiful top. The shrub bears no leaves, the fruit growing on the boughs, without shade or cover. It resembles a horse chestnut, but contains a pulp, which has some resemblance to that of a fig. In some it is white, in others yellow, and sometimes red, but always exquisitely delicious; it being a rich sweet, tempered with a grateful acid. This peninsula has also most of the fruits to be found in other parts of America; and what is pretty extraordinary, there is here a species of manna, supposed to fall with the dew, and to become inspissated on the leaves of the trees. Father Pinolo says, that without the whiteness of refined sugar, it has all the sweetness. Botanists are now agreed, that this manna is a juice exuding from the tree, though the natives firmly believe that it drops down from heaven.

California has likewise all sorts of domestic animals that are commonly used in Spain and Mexico, as horses, mules, asses, oxen, sheep, hogs, goats; and all other quadrupeds imported, thrive and increase in this country. Among the native animals is one called taye, which is of the size of a young heifer, and greatly resembles it in its shape; but the head is like that of a deer, and the horns, which are thick and curved, resemble those of a ram. The hoof of this animal is large, round, and cloven; the skin spotted, but the hair thinner, and the tail sharper than that of a deer. The flesh is greatly esteemed.

Father Torquemado describes an animal something like a buffalo, of the size of a steer, and nearly of the figure of a stag: its hoofs are cloven, like those of an ox: its neck is long; on its forehead are horns, branched like those of a stag, and its hair is a quarter of a yard long. The tail is a yard in length, and half a yard in breadth.

With respect to the feathered race, besides the birds produced in other parts of America, there are said to be many peculiar to this country; but we have no description of any of these, the natural history of California being yet in its infancy. It is only mentioned, that the coast is plentifully stocked with peacocks, bustards, geese, cranes, vultures, gulls larger than geese, cormorants, mews, quails, nightingales, larks, linnets, and most of the birds found in other parts of the world.

Insects swarm here, as in most other warm countries; but they are neither so numerous nor so troublesome, on account of the dryness of the soil and climate.

Turtles are caught in the utmost plenty on the coast, and the multitude and variety of fish with which the gulf of California and the Pacific ocean are supplied, is almost incredible. Salmon, turbot, barbel, skate, mackarel, pilchard, thornback, bonetos, soles, and all the rest of the finny kind are caught here with very little trouble, together with pearl oysters, fine eating oysters, lobsters, and a variety of other excellent shell-fish. On the coast of the Pacific ocean is a small shell-fish, which is perhaps the most beautiful in the world; its lustre surpassing that of the finest pearl, and darting its ray through a transparent varnish of an elegant vivid blue.

California is inhabited by several Indian nations, who are in general handsome, genteel, strong, vigorous, and robust; of a healthy countenance, but very swarthy; but the paint with which they daub themselves, and their making holes in their ears and nostrils, are great disadvantages to their appearance in the eyes of an European, though deemed a great beauty in their own. They say that their ancestors came from the north, which might be reasonably inferred from their situation, California being surrounded by the sea, except on the north, where

it joins the continent. They particularly mention the cause of their coming thither, alledging, that it arose from a quarrel at a banquet, at which the chiefs of all the nations were present. This was followed by a bloody battle, when the defeated party fled to the south, to establish settlements in a distant country, where they might at least avoid servitude and oppression. They are acquainted with no divisions or possessions. On the first arrival of the missionaries, they were divided into tribes, which acknowledged no chief who had a right to tribute, homage, or external ceremonies. Every father was the prince of his own family, but the authority of parents over their children ceased as soon as they were able to provide for themselves. Yet, in each tribe were two or more persons who gave orders for gathering the productions of the earth, directed the fisheries, and in case of a rupture with any neighbouring clan, headed the forces. This dignity was not acquired by blood, descent, or seniority: he who was the most brave, expert, and eloquent, was promoted to the command; but his authority was limited by those who submitted to his directions. This occasional leader conducted them to the forests and sea coasts, in quest of food; he sent and received messages to and from the neighbouring nations; he gave the earliest notice of any impending danger; he spirited up the clan to revenge injuries; he directed the execution; and he headed the people in their wars. In all other particulars, every one was master of his own liberty.

Their houses consist of wretched huts, built near the few streams, wells, or ponds, found in the country. As they are under the necessity of frequent migrations in search of food, they easily shift their residence, it requiring only the labour of a few hours to build a little habitation fitted for all their purposes; and it is usual with them, in the severity of winter, to live in subterraneous caverns.

With respect to their dress, it consists of a girdle, with a cloth round their waists, and a few ornaments about their hair, as strings of pearls, which abound on the coast, and interweaving their locks with beautiful feathers. Some wear fillets of neat net-work. Their arms are likewise frequently adorned with net-work, or strings of pearls, in the form of bracelets. The Indians of the north wear their hair short, and instead of strings of pearl, decorate the head with a splendid kind of tiara, made of mother of pearl, detached from the shell by a flint, and finely polished on both sides. Though many of the women go as naked as the men, yet they shew great regard to that decency, so necessary to the security of virtue. They generally, indeed, wear a kind of petticoat, made of palm-leaves; and all carefully conceal those parts which decency teaches them to hide. A love of ornament prevails among the women more than the men.

Their greatest ingenuity appears in their fishing-nets, which are made with admirable skill, of various colours, and such diversity of texture and workmanship, as cannot be described. Father Toraval says he can affirm, that of all the nets he ever saw in Europe and Mexico, none are comparable to these, either in the mixture of the colour, or the strength and workmanship, in which they represent a great variety of figures. The nets are woven by the men, but the women spin and prepare the materials from plants, and a coarse sort of thread made from the palm. Some of them adorn the head and neck with these nets; they are likewise used for holding fruit, and the vegetable productions of the earth, as well as for catching fish.

They have a high festival at the gathering in of the fruits of the earth, when they resign themselves to feasting, dancing, and mirth. Whole nights are then spent in jollity; they are even said to act a kind of comedies, and to be very skilful in mimicry. Their dances are particularly extolled, and are said to be of various kinds; their performers acquit themselves with agility and gracefulness, representing the different motions of war, fishing, hunting, marrying, and whatever is of most importance among them, by gesticulation and dumb shew.

The Jesuits, who have given a description of this country, have introduced so many absurd and ridiculous circumstances, that it is, perhaps, impossible to distinguish truth from fiction, in the account they give of the religion and customs of these people.

After all that has been said of this extensive country, it can hardly, with any propriety, be said to be subject to Spain. The Jesuit missionaries have indeed endeavoured to propagate the Romish religion, and a number of them have settled in the country, but at present a little Spanish town, near the Cape of St. Lucar, is the only place that can be strictly called subject to Spain, and that is made no other use of than as a place of refreshment for the Manilla ship, and its being the head residence of the missionaries.

S E C T. IV.

Of MEXICO, or NEW SPAIN.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, and Minerals, particularly Gold and Silver; its Vegetables, Beasts, Birds, Insects, and Fishes.

MEXICO, or New Spain, the first valuable acquisition of the Spaniards on the continent of America, extends from the seventh degree thirty minutes to the thirtieth degree forty minutes: it is bounded on the south-east by the isthmus of Darien, and on the north-west by New Mexico; it is washed by the gulph of Mexico and the North sea on the east, and on the south and west by the Pacific ocean, or South sea. This country stretches along the Pacific ocean above two thousand miles, and the coast towards the Atlantic ocean cannot extend less than sixteen hundred; but the breadth is very unequal, for to the north-west it is supposed to be between six and seven hundred miles over, while towards the south-east the breadth cannot much exceed sixty miles.

As the greatest part of Mexico lies within the Torrid Zone, the air is excessively hot; but the heat is qualified with refreshing showers in the hottest months, and with land and sea breezes, which blow alternately; in some parts the vapours rising from a great number of lakes and rivers cool the air, and render it mild, soft, and pleasant. The greatest heats are during the months of February, March, and April, when the sun is seldom obscured by clouds, and the waters are so dried up, that in many places it is difficult to procure any. The rainy season begins towards the close of April, and continues till the month of September, and is always preceded by tempests of thunder and lightning, which increase till the month of June, at which time the rains fall as if a second deluge was to ensue.

On the eastern coast, where the land is low, marshy, and constantly flooded in the rainy season, it is extremely unhealthy; the coast is far from being pleasant, it being for the most part encumbered with almost impenetrable woods of mango trees, of a bare and disagreeable aspect, and which extend a considerable way into the water. The inland country, indeed, assumes a more agreeable aspect, and the air is more temperate; here the tropical fruits grow in great abundance; the land is agreeably variegated, and the soil extremely fertile. On the western side the land is not so low as on the eastern, is much better in quality, and abounds with plantations.

The Spaniards probably chose to leave the eastern coast in its present state of rudeness and desolation, judging that a rugged and unwholesome frontier is a better defence against an European army than fortifications and armies, that are maintained at a vast expence; or the strength of the inhabitants, rendered by the climate effeminate and pusillanimous, and kept so by policy. Indeed it would be next to impossible to make any considerable establishment on that coast, that could effectually answer the purposes of any power in Europe, without struggling with the greatest difficulties; and as for a sudden invasion, the nature of the country itself is a good fortification. In general few countries under the same aspect of the heavens enjoy more of the benefits of nature, and the

necessaries of life; but, like all the tropical countries, it is more abundant in fruit than in corn.

In almost all the accounts of New Spain, we are told that mines of gold and silver are found in most of its provinces. It is said that there are no fewer than a thousand different mines of silver, but gold only in the province of Veragua and New Granada; though the latter is indeed in Terra Firma, but is considered as a province of Mexico, from its being under the jurisdiction of the same viceroy. Gold is found either in grains, at the bottom of running streams, or in mines. Acosta affirms, that he has seen grains of pure gold that weighed two pounds, though in general they seldom exceed a twentieth part of that weight. The gold in the mines runs in veins through a hard stone, and it requires a great deal of labour and expence to separate it, especially as it is generally incorporated with silver or copper. Both the mines of gold and silver are usually found in barren rocks, mountains, and such places as are entirely unfit for pasture and tillage; as if nature had wisely ordained that a fertile soil, fit for producing every thing necessary to the life of man, should not be rendered useless by searching for those metals, which frequently turn to its prejudice. Some of the mines are of an extraordinary depth; particularly that of Pachuca, which is above three hundred yards deep, and above a thousand negroes are continually employed in it. From the mine called the Trinidad no less than forty millions of pieces of eight were drawn into the royal treasury, free of all expences, in the space of ten years.

Whoever discovers a mine of gold or silver is at liberty to work it, paying the king, and limiting himself within sixty yards round the place upon which he has fixed. Beyond this space another person may open a mine, leaving five yards between, to serve for a partition. All the gold and silver, either dug or found in grains, ought to be entered in the royal exchequer; and it is said that, though great quantities are concealed, no less than two millions of silver marks, each weighing eight ounces, are annually entered, out of which they coin seven hundred thousand marks into pieces of eight, half pieces of eight, quarter pieces, royals, and half royals; the value of the latter being about three-pence sterling.

We cannot here forbear extracting some observations from an ingenious work we have often quoted, entitled, *An Account of the European settlements in America.* "Of the plenty of gold and silver which the mines of Mexico afford, great things have been said, and with justice; as this, with the other Spanish colonies in America, in a manner furnish the whole world with silver, and bears a great proportion in gold to the whole of what the world produces. A late very judicious collector of voyages says, that the revenues of Mexico can hardly fall short of twenty-four millions of our money. He founds this upon a return made by the bishops of their tenths, which, without doubt, were not over-rated; and that these amounted to one million and a half sterling; that these are about a fourth of the revenues of the clergy; and that the estates of the clergy are about the fourth part of the whole revenues of the king, which at this rate amount to twenty-four millions English. He takes another method of computing the wealth of this province, which is by the fifth paid to the king of the gold and silver dug out of the mines. This he observes, in the year 1730, amounted to one million of marks in silver, each mark equivalent to eight ounces; so that if we compute this silver at five shillings per ounce, then the inhabitants receive from their mines ten millions in money. For my part, I neither distrust the candor or good sense of this writer; but I can hardly avoid thinking he must be misinformed in the accounts upon which he has built his calculation. If New Spain draws from her silver and gold mines ten millions annually, Peru, even since the decline of the mines of Potosi, has scarce ever been thought less rich in silver than Mexico, and must therefore be rated at the same proportion, and allowed to yield ten millions more annually. New Mexico abounds likewise in very rich silver mines; but that we may not exceed, we will allow for this province but two millions, which, allowing

“ing for the large produce of New Spain, is certainly
 “not above the proportion. Chili has, indeed, no in-
 “considerable mines of silver, but then those of gold are
 “by far the richest in the world; and taking the com-
 “parative wealth of this province with the others, it
 “cannot be less than two millions; if we add to it what
 “is produced in Terra Firma; so that the gold and silver
 “raised in the Spanish colonies cannot be estimated at
 “less than twenty-four millions yearly.”

Mexico has also quarries of jasper, porphyry, and beautiful marble; and here also are found pearls, emeralds, and turquoises.

No country abounds more with grain, delicious fruit, roots, and vegetables of every kind, many of which are peculiar to the country, or at least to America. The woods on the tops and declivities of mountains consist either of fine forests or delightful groves of large trees of various kinds, unencumbered with brush-wood; so that a traveller may pass through them on horseback without any inconvenience. Among the most curious species of woods in this country are the cedar, bloodwood, maho, of which the natives make ropes and cables, lightwood, and other trees; of the fruit-trees and shrubs are the cabbage, cacao, or chocolate nut, the vanilla, plantains, capadillo, avogato-peaer, mammee, mammee-sapota, the prickly-pear, bibby, tamarind, and locust tree; the calabash, gourds of a prodigious size, grapes, and many others. To these may be added the grenadillo de China creeping plant, and the mayhey, which furnishes the natives with thread for linen and cordage, and also with a balsam and liquor, which when fermented is as pleasant and strong as wine.

Trees are all the year in leaf, blossom, or fruit; and every month presents the mingled appearance of spring, summer, and autumn.

Besides maize, or Indian corn, the native grain of Mexico, the Spaniards have cultivated wheat, barley, peas, beans, and other corn, which, with roots and vegetables, are now found growing in every province. Rice grows abundantly, and flourishes, on account of the long wet seasons.

Among the valuable commodities of New Spain are the following drugs: copal, anime, tacamahaca, caranna, liquid amber, oil of amber, balsam of Peru, which is found in Mexico, as well as in that country from which it takes its name, guyaiacum, the root mechoacan, China root, and sarsaparilla; all which are known in the shops of our apothecaries, and are of great use in a variety of distempers. The other commodities of New Spain are cotton, sugar, cochineal, chocolate, feathers, honey, balsams, dying woods, salt, tallow, hides, tobacco, ginger, amber, pearls, precious stones, gold, and silver.

A considerable quantity of sugar is raised in this country, so that there are more sugar-mills than in any part of Spanish America; but all the sugar is used in the country, and particularly in the monasteries, in chocolate, sweetmeats, preserves, and confectionary wares. There is also a great home-trade in goods manufactured of cotton. They have the best indigo in the world, and the trade in that and cochineal is managed entirely by the merchants of Mexico and Carthagena, who export them to Europe. In the province of Guaxaca and Guatemala they raise the best and greatest quantity of silk of any country in New Spain; but it is here only prepared for the needle. Cotton here is very good, and in great plenty: it is manufactured largely, for as it is light wear, suitable to the climate, and all other clothing being extravagantly dear, it is generally worn by the common people; the woollens and linens of Europe being rather luxuries worn only by persons of some rank.

The number of their horned cattle is in a manner infinite; many of them run wild, and a very considerable trade is carried on in their hides and tallow. Sheep are numerous in Mexico, but it does not appear that wool is an article of any consideration in their trade; and it is not probable that it is of a good kind, as it is scarce ever found useful between the tropics, where it is coarse, short, and hairy, except only in Peru, which enjoys a climate different from that of all other countries. Swine are equally numerous, and their lard is much in request all over the country, where it is used instead of butter.

Besides the beasts already mentioned, which they have in common with us, they have several kinds of red and fallow deer, hares, rabbits, squirrels, foxes, otters, wild-cats, pole-cats, porcupines, jackalls, monkies, the pecaree, the warree, the guano, the sloth, the armadillo, the racoon, and ounce.

The pecaree is a little, black, short-legged animal, that has some resemblance to a hog. These herd together in great droves; and, what is most remarkable, the navel is said to grow upon its back; and if it be not cut off as soon as the pecaree is killed, it instantly corrupts the whole carcase, which is otherwise very good food.

The warree is less than the pecaree, which it nearly resembles, only its navel is in the usual place. The skin is thick, and covered with hair, that looks like a coarse fur. Both the pecaree and warree are so wild and fierce, that they will engage either man or beast. The Indians hunt them down with their dogs, and then shoot or kill them with spears.

The guano is shaped like a lizard; the body is as big as a man's leg, but grows tapering towards the end of its tail, which is very small. They have four short feet with claws, are of various colours, as of a dark and light brown, of a dark and light green, some of them yellow, and others speckled. They live in water as well as upon the land, and both their flesh and eggs are very good food.

The sloth is about the size of a large spaniel, has a round head, small eyes, and very sharp teeth and claws: he feeds on the leaves of trees, and frequently kills them, not leaving a single leaf on the tree he visits; but he is so many days in getting down one tree, and climbing another, that though he be fat when he comes down, he grows lean before he can get to the top of the next tree. He receives his name from the slowness of his motions, for he is said to be several minutes in moving one of his legs three inches, nor will blows make him mend his pace, for he seems insensible of stripes, and can neither be frightened nor provoked.

Here is an animal called a quash, which is bigger than a cat; its head resembles that of a fox, with short ears and a long nose: the legs are short, and it runs up trees like a cat; the body is covered with a fine yellow hair, and the flesh is very good meat. The young ones may be tamed, and are as diverting as a monkey.

The monkeys of Campeachy are very ugly; they are much larger than a hare, and have tails two feet and a half long; the body and upper part of the tail are covered with a coarse, long, black hair. They keep together twenty or thirty in a company, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree, and if they meet with a single person, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them; at least they chatter and make a terrible noise; some throw things at him, while others scatter their water and dung about his ears: they hang themselves by the tail on the boughs, and seem to threaten him all the way he passes; but where two or three people are together they usually scamper away.

With respect to the feathered race, we find in Mexico tame poultry, turkies, pigeons, parrots, parakeets, macaws, quams, curasoes, cockricoes, bill-birds, humming-birds, black-birds, eagles, vultures, pelicans, cormorants, batts, and a multitude of others.

The macaw is shaped much like a parrot, but is twice as large; the feathers of the body are of several bright and lively colours, particularly red, blue, and green: it has a bushy tail, with two or three long straggling feathers, red or blue; the pinions of the wings of some of them are red, and of others blue; and their beaks yellow: they make a great noise in the morning, resembling a hoarse human voice: they will imitate not only the voices of the Indians, but their way of singing, and also mimic the noise of almost any bird or animal; and may be taught to talk. The natives tame them, and, when they are used to their houses, suffer them to fly to the woods in the day-time, among those that are wild, and they return in the evening to the house or plantation they belong to. There are great plenty of these birds in Mexico; and they are not only extremely beautiful and entertaining, but their flesh, though black and pretty tough, is well tasted.

The

The quam is a wild land-fowl of the size of a hen-turkey, which it resembles in its bill; the feathers are of a dun colour, the tail is short, and darker than the rest of the feathers. It feeds upon berries and other fruit, and the flesh is very good food.

The curasoe is larger than the quam, but much of the same shape: the cock has a crown of black or yellow feathers on his head, with red loose flesh on his neck like a turkey-cock; but the hen has neither. They have a big gross voice, which the natives think melodious. The flesh is tolerably good, but the bones so noxious that the natives bury them, and will not suffer a dog to eat them.

The cockricoes are of the colour of a partridge, but somewhat less, and their legs longer. They delight in creeks and watery places; are remarkable for their calling one another morning and evening, and are esteemed delicious food.

They have two sorts of pheasants; the one of a dark colour, with black wings and tail, which they call gritones; and the other, much larger, called royal, from a tuft which appears like a crown upon its head. The batts of this country are as large as pigeons.

In all hot countries there are abundance of poisonous and troublesome reptiles and insects, as snakes, scorpions, centipees, spiders, toads, ants, and muskettoes.

Among the various kinds of serpents is a yellow snake, as big as the small of a man's leg, and six or seven feet long. This is a lazy animal, that takes little pains to hunt for its prey, but lies concealed, and surprizes the lizards, guanoes, and other small animals passing by. There is also a green snake, about the thickness of a small cane, and four or five feet in length: these lie among bushes and trees, full of leaves, and prey chiefly on small birds. Here is also a dun-coloured snake about two feet long, that frequents houses, and kills mice and other vermin, and is so harmless that no body endeavours to kill it. There are many other snakes, and particularly the rattle-snake, of which we have already given a very particular account.

The locust is an insect that brings destruction wherever it comes, and is most found in hot countries, where they sometimes appear in such clouds as to hide the sun, and darken the brightest day. They are much like the grasshopper, but larger, and have wings. While Mr. Gage was in Mexico, a cloud of these insects visited that part of the country where he resided, lighting upon the trees and standing corn; and in one night devoured both the fruit and leaves of the trees, and consumed the corn in every field where they fell. The high-ways were covered with them, and neither the plantations of sugar or indigo escaped. Upon the approach of this winged army, all people were commanded out into the fields, with trumpets, brass pans, kettles, and every thing that would make a noise, to frighten them away.

On the coasts and the banks of the rivers are caught alligators, several sorts of turtle, with oysters and muscles of a prodigious size, lobsters, crabs, and shrimps. Among the other fish are the paracoad, which is about three feet and a half in length, and it is said will attack a man in the water. It is a firm well tasted fish, but some of them have been found unwholesome food.

The gar-fish resembles the former, but is less, and has a long sharp bone in its snout, like a sword-fish; only the sword-fish's bone is flat, and indented like a saw, while that of the gar-fish resembles a spear, it being round, smooth, sharp at the end, and about a foot long. These fish swim very swift, frequently leaping out of the water, and skimming, as it were, just above the surface, for twenty or thirty yards; then wetting their fins, spring forward again, darting themselves with such force, that they will strike their long spear through the sides of a canoe, or the body of a man, if they meet with him in the water. These are esteemed well tasted, wholesome food.

Mullets and snooks are very plentiful; as are also Spanish mackerel, which resemble those of Europe, but are above a yard in length, and nine or ten inches round. Here are also the old-wife, the cavally, the turpom, and several other kinds of fish. In the lakes and rivers are pike and carp, with plenty of others that are excellent food.

S E C T. V.

Of the three Audiences of Mexico, with whatever is most remarkable in each, including a Description of the Cities and Trade of Mexico, Acapulco, Los Angeles, La Vera Cruz, and Guatimala.

IN order to give a more distinct idea of this extensive country, it will be necessary to describe it under its three grand divisions, called audiences, Guadalajara, Mexico Proper, and Guatimala, all of which are under the government of the same viceroy, and are subdivided into several provinces.

Guadalajara, also called Galicia, is bounded on the north by New Mexico, on the east and south by the audience of Mexico, and on the west it is washed by the South sea and the gulph of California; containing a space of eight hundred miles in length, and above five hundred in breadth. It is divided into seven provinces, and being the most temperate division of the empire, is generally pleasant and healthy. These provinces are Guadalajara Proper, Zacatecas, New Biscay, Cinaloa, Culiacan, Chametlan, and Xalisco.

The capital, called Guadalajara, is the seat of the royal courts of judicature, a bishop's see, and is pleasantly seated on the north banks of the river Bareinja. It has several churches, besides the cathedral, with some monasteries and nunneries. This audience is celebrated for the richness of the silver mines and its fertility. In each of the provinces are several towns, and that of Cinaloa is rendered extremely picturesque, by a number of beautiful cascades falling in streams down the mountains. In this audience is the lake of Chapala, which is said to be forty leagues in compass.

The audience of Mexico is beyond comparison the most valuable of the Spanish dominions north of the equator. On the east it is bounded by the gulph of Mexico, on the south-east by the audience of Guatimala, on the south-west by the South sea, and on the north-west by the audience of Guadalajara. It extends about six hundred miles in length, and in some places near as much in breadth; yet it is only about sixty leagues in breadth from sea to sea across the province of Guaxaca.

This audience, in rich commodities, gold, silver, and precious stones, far surpasses all the rest of the empire, as it likewise does in its spacious extensive vallies, the fertility of its arable lands, pasturage, and variety of fruits. The great lakes, rivers, and sea-ports, with which it abounds, not only furnish the inhabitants with plenty of excellent fish, but give them great advantages in trade, both foreign and domestic. It is divided into nine provinces, namely, Mexico Proper, Mechoacan, Panuco, Tlascala, Guaxaca, Tabasco, Yucatan, Chiapa, and Soconusco.

The province of Mexico Proper, which greatly exceeds the rest, contains the capital, which is of the same name, and is seated in the lake of Mexico, on the east side of a valley, at the foot of a range of hills, in the twentieth degree north latitude, and the hundred and first degree ten minutes west longitude, about a hundred and seventy miles west of the gulph of Mexico, and a hundred and ninety north of Acapulco. This is the capital of the kingdom, the residence of the viceroy, the seat of the first audience or chamber of justice, and the see of an archbishop. This is thought to be the most regular-built city in the world. It is a perfect square, each side extending half a league, and consequently the whole is about two leagues, or six miles in circumference. There is a great square in the middle of it, from whence the streets run in direct lines, either north and south, or east and west, crossing each other at right angles; so that the length and breadth of the city may be discerned at the corner of every street. There are five entrances into it, but it has neither gates, walls, nor artillery. The houses are built very strong of brick and stone, but not very high, on account of its being subject to earthquakes, and great part of the town standing upon a morass, this occasions the foundations of some of them to sink; but what is still worse, it is subject to inundations from the streams which flow down from the mountains into the lake, so that it is often in danger of being overflowed,

overflowed, and indeed many of the houses and inhabitants have been actually swept away by floods, though they have been at a vast expence in making canals, dykes, and sluices to carry off the water; so that it has often been debated, whether they should not abandon the city, and build another upon better ground. All the buildings are convenient, and the public edifices magnificent. Here are twenty-nine cathedrals and churches, and twenty-two monasteries and nunneries, of the wealth of which we may form some judgment from the revenue of the grand cathedral, which amounts to near eighty thousand pounds sterling a year, out of which the archbishop has fifteen thousand pounds, besides vast sums that arise by perquisites. The cathedral is a magnificent pile, built in the form of a cross, which, with the cloisters and dwellings of the clergy adjoining to it, take up a large space of ground in the city, and was sixty years in building, at the expence of above two millions of pieces of eight. The paintings, gilding, and carving are extremely fine, and it contains abundance of beautiful altars and chapels on each side; the high altar, which stands in the middle of the choir, cost fifty thousand pieces of eight. The image of the Virgin Mary is of massy silver, adorned with rubies and pearls to the value of thirty thousand pieces of eight, and is once a year carried in procession, when a number of maids draw lots for three hundred pieces of eight for their marriage portions. The chalice for the ordinary service is worth eleven thousand, being of gold, chased, and set with rubies. The host is here carried to the sick persons not on foot, as in other countries, but in a coach drawn by four of the finest mules that can be had from Europe.

The great square, or market, in the middle of the city is extremely magnificent, and has piazzas on one side, under which are some of the richest shops in the world; and on another stands the magnificent palace of the viceroy, the principal front of which faces the square, and is not inferior to the palace at Naples.

The palace of the marquis de Valle, as it is called, is one of the noblest pieces of architecture any where to be met with. It is built on the very spot where formerly stood the palace of Motezuma, and takes up nearly the same space.

Besides the churches and monasteries there are several hospitals richly endowed; among the rest is one for young maids who are left orphans; these are handsomely maintained while they live single, and are allowed five hundred pieces of eight when they marry. There is another hospital erected for those who have venereal complaints, which has a revenue of thirty-six thousand pieces of eight per annum; and a third for sick priests.

The several trades have their respective streets: a very spacious one that runs from the square belongs to the goldsmiths, and has the shops furnished with such a variety of utensils and ornaments of gold, silver, and jewels, as is not to be paralleled in any city in the world, particularly with gilt plate in services and sets, and with vast quantities of rubies, emeralds, and pearls. The street of St. Austin, where the mercers expose their rich silks to sale, has a very grand and beautiful appearance. The street called Tacuba, where the tradesmen who deal in brass, steel, and iron reside, is very long and spacious. But Eagle-street, which is inhabited by the nobility, gentry, and great lawyers, is said to excel all the rest in magnificence.

The city is supplied with fresh water from a hill at three miles distance, to which an aqueduct supported on arches extends from the city.

There is a pleasant park well planted and adorned with fountains, and other water-works, whither the quality of both sexes and the gay part of the town resort every evening, some in coaches, and others on horseback; and here the young cavaliers endeavour to recommend themselves to the ladies by feats of activity and horsemanship. Several hundreds of coaches are frequently seen here, with numerous retinues of black slaves. It is said that the negro girls who run by the coaches of the ladies wear bracelets of gold, pearl necklaces, and jewels in their ears; while the black foot-boys are covered with lace and embroidery.

Though this city is no sea-port, nor has a communication with the sea by any navigable river, it has a prodigious commerce, and is itself the center of all the trade carried on between America and Spain on the one hand, and between America and the East Indies on the other; for here the principal merchants reside; here the greatest part of the business is negociated, and the goods that pass from Acapulco to La Vera Cruz, or from La Vera Cruz to Acapulco, for the use of the Philippines, and in a great measure for the use of Peru and Lima, all pass through this city, and employ an incredible number of horses and mules in the carriage. Hither all the gold and silver comes to be coined; here the king's fifth is deposited, and here is wrought all that immense quantity of utensils and ornaments in plate which is every year sent into Europe.

One of the principal diversions of the citizens is fishing in boats upon the lake, whither they carry wine and cold provisions to regale themselves with upon the water. This lake, on the west side of which Mexico is situated, is about fifteen miles in length from north to south, but the breadth is very unequal; however, in the broadest part it is something more than twelve miles, and the north end of it is scarce so broad. To the north of this lake are three others that have a communication with it by canals, and on the south are two other lakes, divided from it only by a causeway.

The neighbourhood of Mexico is rendered extremely pleasant by the numerous palaces, country seats, monasteries, and villages either on the islands in the lakes, or on the banks of the several lakes within view of the city, to which the citizens resort in boats, when they are disposed to retire from the hurry of the town.

It cannot be exactly ascertained what number of people are in the city; it is certainly very considerable, and is by many computed at seventy or eighty thousand. The bulk of the people are blacks and mulattoes, there having been abundance of black slaves brought hither, who have obtained their freedom and married with the natives, and their descendants are very numerous. There is also a strange mixture of Spanish and Indian blood. The pure Spaniards, and those descended from Spanish ancestors on both sides are a very small number, both here and in the other towns of Mexico.

The port nearest to this city is Acapulco, which is also in the province of Mexico Proper, and is a celebrated port on the South sea, in the seventeenth degree north latitude, and the hundred and second degree of west longitude, upwards of two hundred miles distant from the capital. It has one of the deepest, securest, and most commodious harbours in the South sea, and indeed almost the only good one upon the western coast of New Spain. The entrance of the harbour is defended by a castle of tolerable strength; but the town itself is ill built, and makes but a miserable figure except at the time of the fair, when it entirely changes its appearance, and becomes one of the most considerable marts in the world. About the month of December the great galleon, which makes the whole communication between America and the Philippines, after a voyage of five months, arrives here, loaded with all the rich commodities of the East; nutmegs, mace, cloves, pepper, cinnamon, china, Japan wares, calicoes plain and painted, chints, silks, muslins of all sorts, precious stones, and rich drugs. At the same time the annual ship from Lima arrives, and is computed to bring not less than two millions of pieces of eight in silver, besides quicksilver, cacao, drugs, and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchase of East India goods. Several other ships from different parts of Chili and Peru meet upon the same occasion; and, besides the traffic for the Philippine commodities, this causes a very large dealing for every thing those countries have to exchange with one another, as well as for the purchase of all sorts of European goods. The fair sometimes lasts for thirty days. The goods are no sooner disposed of than the galleon prepares to set out on her voyage to the Philippines, with her returns chiefly in silver, but with some European goods and American commodities.

When this fair is over the town is comparatively deserted; however, it remains during the whole year the most

considerable port in Mexico, from whence what exceeds their own consumption is sent by land-carriage to La Vera Cruz to pass over to Terra Firma, to the islands, and a small quantity even to Spain.

In the province of Tlascala, or Los Angeles, which is said to be the best peopled by Indians of any in Mexico, is the city of Puebla de los Angeles, or the city of Angeles, which is seated in a fine valley on the banks of the river Zacatula, in the nineteenth degree of north latitude, twenty-five leagues to the eastward of Mexico. The buildings are principally of stone, and, like the other Spanish towns, has a beautiful square in the middle, from whence run the principal streets in a direct line, which are crossed by others at right angles. On one side of the square is the cathedral, which has a magnificent front, while the other three sides have handsome uniform piazzas, under which are the shops of the principal tradesmen. There are here many beautiful and magnificent parochial and conventual churches; with several rich monasteries and nunneries. The city is the see of a bishop suffragan to the archbishop of Mexico, and some judgment may perhaps be formed of the wealth of the inhabitants from the revenue of the bishop and chapter; the former has eighty thousand pieces of eight per annum, and there are two hundred thousand more annually paid to the canons and officers of the church. The people of this city in general are exceeding wealthy, though the laity in this part of the world cannot pretend to vie with the clergy either in estates or influence.

In the province of Tlascala is also the city of La Vera Cruz, which is seated in the gulph of Mexico, in the nineteenth degree ten minutes north latitude, about two hundred miles south-east of Mexico. It is situated in a barren sandy plain, but is considerable on account of its excellent harbour, which is naturally defended by rocks: but on one side the town is exposed to clouds of dry sand, and on the other to the putrid exhalations of bogs and marshes, which impregnate the air with the most pernicious vapours. The town extends from east to west, but is not more than half a league in circumference. The walls are of little use, the sands being in many places level with the tops of them; but the castle and forts are so situated, as to be a defence to the ships in the harbour. The town is very poor, most of the houses being no better than thatched cottages, inhabited by fishermen; but the Spanish garrison consists of a troop of sixty horse and two companies of foot. From this port the wealth of Mexico is poured out upon the Old World, and from this port they receive the numberless luxuries and necessities that the Old World yields them in return. The annual fleet from Cadiz, called the flota, arrives about the latter end of November, and then vast multitudes resort to La Vera Cruz from all parts, living in little huts or tents while the fleet remains there; their valuable merchandize being deposited in ware-houses built for that purpose. The fleet stays there during the winter, and upon its departure all the people of substance retire on account of their health.

This fleet, which sails only from Cadiz, consists of about fourteen or fifteen large merchant ships from four hundred to a thousand tons burthen, under the convoy of three or four men of war. They are loaded with almost every sort of goods which Europe produces for exportation; all sorts of linens, woollens, silks, velvets, laces, cutlery, glass, watches, clocks, quicksilver, wrought iron, horse-furniture, shoes, stockings, books, pictures, military stores, wine, and fruit; so that all the trading parts of Europe are highly interested in the cargo of the fleet. Spain sends out little more than the wine and fruit, and this with the freight and commissions to the merchants, and the duty to the king, are almost all the advantages that kingdom derives from her commerce with the Indies. The ware-houses of La Vera Cruz are constantly full of European goods and commodities, and its trade may be reputed nearly equal to all the commerce of Spanish America, though it is chiefly confined to the time the flota stays there.

The province of Tabasco, which is washed on the north by the bay of Campeachy, is the place where logwood principally grows; the land near the coast is generally so flat and low, that it rains nine months every year, and,

according to Dampier, remains under water six or seven months, during which the logwood-cutters usually work up to the knees in mud and water in felling the trees, and can scarce find a dry spot to build their huts on. On the coast are almost impenetrable thickets of mangroves and bamboos; but farther up the country are fine savannahs and gentle rising hills, adorned with variety of fruit-trees, and the banks of the river Tabasco are shaded with large trees, particularly cabbage trees a hundred feet high.

The province of Yucatan is a peninsula seated in the gulph of Mexico, between the bays of Campeachy and Honduras, and is generally flat low land, with scarce any hills, unless on the western part. It is thinly inhabited, for the air is excessive hot, and the lands near the coast frequently under water. Its chief produce is logwood, cotton, and salt. The only Spanish town in this extensive coast is Campeachy, seated on the west side of the peninsula facing the sea, and has a fine appearance, it being built of stone, and encompassed with a good wall; with a strong citadel mounted with several pieces of heavy cannon placed at one end for its defence.

The audience of Guatemala forms a very fine country, capable of great improvements. It is bounded on the north-west by that of Mexico; on the north-east by the North sea; on the south-east by the province of Darien, or Terra Firma; and on the south-west by the South sea; thus enjoying every advantage of situation with respect to commerce. It is about a thousand miles in length from the north-west to the south-east, but scarce half so broad in any part, and in some not a hundred miles in breadth: it is subdivided into the six following provinces: Guatemala Proper, Vera Paz, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and Veragua; the two last provinces are, however, placed by the learned Don Antonio de Ulloa within Terra Firma.

This province is mountainous, filled with volcanoes that have dreadful fiery eruptions, and subject to earthquakes. It has, however, rich and fertile vallies that abound with corn, and pastures that feed an incredible number of cattle; with rich drugs for dying, some silver mines, and sugar plantations. Great quantities of bees-wax are also exported out of this province.

St. Jago de Guatemala, formerly the capital of the audience, and one of the finest cities in New Spain, was destroyed in 1541 by a dreadful earthquake and a neighbouring volcano. Never appeared a more terrible and awful scene: the day preceding it a prodigious noise was heard from a volcano seated in the mountain above the city, which was succeeded in the night by a furious explosion, as if the mountain, says our author, had discharged all her bowels. This mountain has two tops, from one of which issued fire, and from the other a torrent of water, which swept all before it, and carried off the houses and inhabitants. The horror of this scene was heightened by one of the most dreadful earthquakes ever felt in any part of the globe; and a hundred and twenty thousand Spaniards and natives lost their lives.

New Guatemala, the present capital of the audience and province, the residence of the president and royal courts, the see of a bishop, the seat of an university, and the center of the trade of these parts, is situated in a beautiful plain at a good distance from the fatal volcano; yet all their precautions cannot secure it against the dreadful earthquakes so frequent in this country. It is nevertheless well built and inhabited; the cathedral and parish-churches are exceeding rich, and here are two very fine monasteries, a nursery, and an hospital. The citizens trade largely, not only with all the provinces of Mexico, but even with Peru.

S E C T. VI.

Of the different Ranks of People among the present Mexicans; with the Manners, Customs, and Government of the Spaniards and Creoles.

MEXICO is at present inhabited by a mixed people, consisting of the native Indians, the Spaniards, and the negroes; and the descendants of these are divided and distinguished

distinguished by various names; as the unmixed descendants of the Spaniards, who are called Creoli, or Creoles; the Mestizes, or issue of the Spaniards by the native Indians; the Mestiches, or the issue of such issue; the Terceroons dez Indies, or the children of the last married to Spaniards; and the Quarteroons dez Indies, who are their descendants, and are allowed the same privileges as true Spaniards. The issue of an European and negro is called a mulatto; besides which there is a mixed breed of negroes and Indians, which is generally deemed the lowest rank of the people.

The whites are either born in Spain, or Creoles: the native Spaniards are mostly in offices and in trade, and have the same characters and manners with the Spaniards of Europe; the same gravity of behaviour, the same natural sagacity, the same indolence, and a still greater share of pride and stateliness; for they here consider their being natives of Old Spain as a very honourable distinction, and are, in return, looked upon by the Creoles with no small share of hatred and envy. The latter have little of that firmness and patience which distinguishes the native Spaniard. They are destitute of courage, weak, and effeminate. Living in an enervating heat, surfeited with wealth, and spending their whole time in loitering and inactive pleasures, they have nothing bold and manly, to fit them for making a figure in active life, and very few have any taste for the satisfactions of a learned retirement. They are luxurious without either variety or elegance, fond of show and parade, temperate at their tables and in their cups, and merely from constitution and idleness make their whole business amour and intrigue, which they carry on in the old Spanish taste, by doing and saying extravagant things, by bad music, worse poetry, and excessive expences. The ladies are little celebrated for their chastity or domestic virtues; but exert all their genius and abilities in combating the restraints which are laid upon them.

It is allowed by the most judicious authors that the priests, monks, and nuns of all orders are upwards of one fifth of all the white people; but the clergy being here generally too ignorant to instruct by preaching, and too debauched in their manners to reform by their example, the people are little better for their numbers, wealth, or influence. Many of them are said to be only adventurers from Old Spain, who without the least regard to their character or their vows, direct all their studies to raise a sudden fortune, by abusing the ignorance and extreme credulity of the people. Much attention is paid to mere mechanical methods of devotion. Moral duties are seldom mentioned. An extreme veneration for saints is strongly inculcated, and forms the general subject of their sermons, which are rather designed to raise a stupid admiration of their miracles, than an imitation of the sanctity of their lives. However, it must be acknowledged, that there are some of the clergy who practise the duties of their station, and are distinguished by their learning and the purity of their manners; but these are very few.

As to the laity, it is said there is not a more bigotted, or a lewder people upon earth: a present to the church wipes off the odium and the punishment of the greatest crimes. The principal way in which they are instructed in religion, is by theatrical entertainments in their churches. There is scarce any part of the Gospel, but is the subject of a play, which the lowest of the people are here taught to act: one personates our Saviour, another Pilate, a third Herod, and so on: as their churches are exquisitely fine, so is their music, both vocal and instrumental. The clergy collect the most harmonious voices, and have them taught to sing not only anthems, but merry songs; and in their cloisters are masques, dances, and all the entertainments in which the laity indulge themselves; and yet the people have their seasons for penance and mortification, particularly in Lent, when they not only keep a rigorous fast, but in their processions lash themselves unmercifully. This is the exercise of the holy week before Easter, and in case of an earthquake, famine, or other general calamity, they endeavour by these austerities, to appease the wrath of heaven.

The civil government, administered by tribunals called audiences, consists of a certain number of judges divided into different chambers, which have a greater resem-

blance to the parliaments in France, than to our courts of justice. The viceroy himself presides at the head of the chief of these chambers, when he sees fit. His employment is one of the greatest the king of Spain has in his gift, and his is perhaps the richest government entrusted to any subject in the world. All employments here are held by none but native Spaniards, and by them only for a limited time, which must not exceed three years. Jealousy and avarice in this, as well as in every thing else that has a relation to the Indies, influences all public regulations; and every officer, from the highest to the lowest, has the avidity which a new and lucrative post inspires; ravenous because his time is short; he oppresses the people, and defrauds his sovereign; another succeeds him with the same dispositions; and no man takes care to establish any thing useful in his office, knowing that his successor will trample upon every regulation that is not subservient to his own interest.

There are some troops kept in Mexico, and a good revenue appropriated for their maintenance, and for the support of the fortifications; but the soldiers are few, ill-clothed, ill-paid, and worse disciplined. Thus the military keep pace with the civil and ecclesiastical administration, and the whole form one regular scene of rapaciousness, pride, arrogance, and oppression.

S E C T. VII.

Of the Persons, Dress, Manners, Customs, Houses, Food, and Festivals of the Mexicans, particularly of those who are detached from the Spaniards, and still enjoy their Liberty.

THE original Mexicans, like the other Americans, are in general tall, clean, well proportioned, and handsome, active, nimble, and remarkably swift of foot. They are of a deep olive complexion; their eyes large, lively, and sparkling; the face round, and the features usually agreeable. They wear their hair, either flowing loose, cut short, or twisted and plaited on the head. Some nations within the limits of this vast country, differ widely from the general appearance and manners of the rest; a few deem flat noses the greatest ornament, and early flatten those of their infants, to produce that beauty on their faces; while others mould their thin tender skulls into a conical or pyramidical form, by means of compression. Many of the Mexicans disfigure themselves with paint, or rather daubing, and represent on the body the figures of various birds and beasts; or, in time of war, paint their faces red, to give them a warlike and bloody appearance: they also anoint their bodies with oil or fat, to prevent their being bit by muskettoes, to preserve the skin against the intense heat of the sun, and to render their joints supple and pliant.

The people are however in general clothed, though in a very different manner from the Spaniards; but in the province of Veragua, it is said there is a nation where the men cloath nothing besides the penis, which the vulgar are contented with wrapping in a leaf, while the great inclose it in a case of gold or silver, of a conical form, adorned with jewels, letting the scrotum fall under it, in full view. This circumstance, improbable as it appears, is mentioned by several authors; but with what degree of truth, we will not pretend to determine; yet it is said that even these people, on festivals and other solemn occasions, have a white or black cotton garment like a ploughman's frock, that reaches down to their heels; and if an European gives them a shirt or any other cloathing, they immediately put it on, and reckon themselves very fine.

In general the Indians are fond of pendants, bracelets, and necklaces. The men wear a thin plate of gold or silver hanging over their upper lip, of an oval figure, in the form of a crescent, the points of which gently pinch the bridle of the nose, and fasten it on; the middle is about the thickness of a guinea, and it grows gradually thinner towards the edges. The women, instead of a plate, wear a ring, which goes through the bridle of the nose, and by its weight sometimes draws down it to the mouth. These strange kinds of ornaments they have of various sizes; the larger sort they lay aside at their entertainments, and the smaller do not hinder their eating. Their great men likewise wear two gold plates of the

shape of a heart, a span long at each ear, fastened to it by a gold ring, which stretches the ear to an immoderate size. They also wear a kind of coronet or bandage of gold or silver about the head eight or ten inches broad, and indented on the upper side; others have only a bandage of cane painted red stuck round with beautiful feathers, standing upright, and most of the Indians of both sexes wear strings of beads, teeth, shells, and other toys, hanging from the neck down to the breast.

Those Indians who live in the Spanish towns wear a short waistcoat and wide breeches, with a short cloak of various colours, resembling the Spanish dress; but their legs are bare, and only a few cover their feet with sandals. The women wear a short jacket of cotton or linen, over which flows a loose robe, or a straight petticoat, and sometimes both. There are, however, such varieties in dress, depending upon custom and fancy, that it would be endless to enter upon particulars.

With respect to the genius, temper, and manners of the Mexicans, they seem to be greatly degenerated since their being conquered by the Spaniards. They were once ingenious, hospitable, civilized, and generous; except in the article of human sacrifices; but now those who live among the Spaniards are said to be cowardly, treacherous, and stupid. The buildings, images, paintings, carvings, cotton cloths, manufactured feathers formed into beautiful pictures, and many other pieces of art, evince the genius of the ancient Mexicans; and the loss of these is a demonstration of the decline of that genius. Indeed the cause is not difficult to be assigned; their temples and images, on which they had lavished all the powers of art, being destroyed, themselves reduced to a state of servitude, and constrained to labour in the mines, to gratify the avarice of their new masters; it is no wonder they were effectually discouraged from cultivating talents, that could only turn to their destruction, and gain them stripes instead of rewards. Besides, the introduction of European arts, manufactures, and the implements of mechanics, made the Indians despise the inferiority of their own, all knowledge of which they soon forgot, without being able to acquire any degree of skill in the other, to the drudgery and lower branches of which they were confined. To what purposes then should an Indian labour to improve talents that can only serve to render his bondage more irksome? or why should he strive to accumulate that wealth, of which he knows he shall be stripped by his arbitrary master?

Those Indians who have preserved their freedom in the mountains and some other parts of the country are still a brave, generous, and humane people, entirely untainted with the sordid vices and corrupt manners of the inhabitants of the Spanish cities and towns. They spend their time in hunting, fishing, and field exercises; cultivate but little soil, sow and plant what is just sufficient to answer the purposes of nature, and allow nothing for the gratification of appetites founded on luxury.

The business of planting is performed by the women, after the men have cleared the ground. The females likewise execute all the domestic offices, spin, weave, and dress cotton and linen cloths for their own or their husbands apparel. They are obedient and respectful to their husbands, who return a mutual affection. This is at least the picture given us by English and French travellers, though the Spaniards, perhaps to palliate their own conduct, speak less favourably of them.

These Indians live in thatched cottages, and observe little regularity in their towns; their houses neither standing contiguous, nor in any order, but are dispersed here and there, only they have one common guard-house, or fort, seated on an eminence, to which they resort on the approach of an enemy, or when they assemble in council. They never lay any deep foundations, but set up small posts seven or eight feet high, two or three feet asunder, and closing up the intervals cover them with clay. They make the roof like that of an ordinary barn, and usually cover it with palmetto leaves. The building is about twenty-four feet long, and twelve broad; the hearth is in the middle, and they have a hole over it, to let out the smoke: they have only the ground-floor, and use no partitions, so that the whole house forms but one room. Instead of beds they use hammocks, which are hung from

the principal beam, and blocks of wood are their only seats and tables. Their furniture consists of earthen vessels, with calabashes of an uncommon size to hold their liquor; and their arms, bows, arrows, lances, darts, and quivers, with their tools, are hung as ornaments round the cottage.

Their guard-house is about a hundred and thirty feet long, and twenty-five broad; the walls nine or ten feet high, and the ridge of the roof about twenty feet in height, and thatched with palmetto leaves: they have narrow loop holes on the sides, from whence they can repulse an enemy with their arrows; they are seated, as hath been observed, on an eminence; and the ground is cleared of wood and shrubs for a good space round, that an enemy may find no shelter from their arrows, or any place to lie concealed. They have strong doors to defend the entrance; but the Spaniards easily burn them down by shooting flaming arrows into the palmetto leaves, which answer the purpose of thatch.

We shall now treat of the diet, exercises, festivals, and diversions of those Indians who still enjoy their liberties. Their principal food is either Indian corn parched and ground into flour, and made into thin cakes, or fruit, roots, wild hogs, deer, &c. and sometimes fish. They frequently go a-hunting in companies a week or a fortnight together, every man carrying with him his bow and arrows, a spear, a hatchet, and a long knife. Each man also takes a dog or two with him to beat for game. Some women also go with them to carry their provisions of roasted plantains, yams, potatoes, baskets of parched Indian corn, and a few utensils. The beasts they hunt are chiefly the pecaree and warree, a sort of wild hogs, of which we have given a description. They also meet with a variety of fowls. They lodge at night wherever they happen to be at sun-set, contriving to be near some river. They hang up their hammocks between the trees, and have scarce any other covering but a plantane leaf. They begin their hunting again at sun-rising the next morning. Their game, just mentioned, are not swift of foot, and usually go together in droves of two or three hundred; but they sometimes hunt a whole day without meeting any. When the beast is tired with the pursuit, or wounded, he will stand at bay with the dogs, till the master comes up and shoots him; he then strikes his spear into the creature to let out the blood, embowels him, and cutting him in two pieces carries them on a stick laid across his shoulder to a place where the women are appointed to wait: here they cut off the head of the animal, quarter and flea it; what they intend to preserve they barbecue by laying it upon a wooden grate, under which is a fire of wood coals, which is kept up till the meat is as dry as a chip; and these pieces will keep a great while. When they have much game, the men assist the women in carrying it home; and when their stock of provisions is almost spent, they go out again to look for more.

Whether their flesh be dried, or fresh killed, they cut it into small pieces, which they put into a kind of pipkin, adding some roots, green plantanes, or other fruit, with a great deal of pepper, stewing them together in water seven or eight hours, and not suffering them to boil, which reduces all the ingredients into a kind of pulp; they then pour it into an earthen dish, or calabash, and setting it upon a wooden block that serves them for a table, sit round it on lesser blocks, all having a calabash of water standing by their side on the ground, into which they frequently dip their fingers while they are eating. They have seldom more than one set meal in a day, but they eat plantanes and other fruit raw or roasted almost all the day.

There is scarce any flesh, fish, or fowl, but what the natives of Mexico eat either stewed or broiled on the coals: it does not appear that they use either knives, forks, or spoons, but fill their mouths with their hands, and tear the broiled flesh off the bones with their teeth; but those who are among the Spaniards conform to their customs, and every thing they eat is high seasoned with pepper. Chocolate serves both for meat and drink in almost every province of Mexico, both among the free and those called the civilized Indians, if they can obtain it; but it is so much used by the Spaniards, and such quantities are

exported to Europe, that it is pretty scarce among the free Indians.

They have a great variety of liquors; the most ordinary drink is water, with the flour of Indian corn infused in it, and drank off presently. This serves to keep them alive on a march, when they can get no other provisions. They have a liquor named mislaw, of which they have two sorts; one made of plantanes fresh gathered, and the other of plantanes dried; the first they roast, and, peeling off the rind, mash them in a bowl of water till they are dissolved, and then drink the mixture; the other is made of cakes of plantanes dried over a slow fire: this they carry with them on journies, and drink it dissolved in water. As their pine-apples are one of their most delicious fruits, an infusion of these they are very fond of; and indeed they make an infusion of almost all manner of fruits, adding honey to them at their entertainments: but the country affords no wine, for grapes will not ripen kindly in the rainy season, and the heats at other times render the liquor sour; for this reason scarce any country between the tropics affords good wine.

The Indians scarce undertake any business of consequence without an entertainment. If they propose entering into a war, either with the Spaniards or any Indian nation, their chiefs are summoned to a consultation, and eat and drink plentifully before they enter on their debates. A hunting-match, which usually lasts some weeks, is also preceded by hard drinking. At weddings and other joyful occasions they have their feasts, where they continue drinking two or three days, till all the liquor is spent; and as they are very quarrelsome in their liquor, the master of the house always secures their arms before they begin to be merry; for they never go without them, if it be but to the next door. They usually get so drunk as to be unable to stand, and having slept till they have become sober, return home.

The men drink to one another at meals, but never to the women, who always stand by and wait upon their husbands, while they are eating and drinking, serving them with liquor; even when at home the wife does not eat till the husband has done; but the females feast among themselves, when they are as merry as the men, and as little afraid of drinking to excess; they, however, take care to keep sober till their husbands are recovered, and indeed no sooner perceive them in liquor, than they take

them up and put them into hammocks. Both sexes are also fond of smoking tobacco.

Their principal exercises, or rather employments, as hath been intimated, are hunting, shooting, and fishing; which they perform in order to provide for their families. Every man breeds up his son to these exercises, at which they are so dexterous when children, that it is said a boy of eight years of age will split a cane set up at twenty yards distance, with an arrow discharged from his bow, and kill a bird flying. But the most expert of all the Indians of Mexico are the Mosquito Indians, who dwell in the province of Honduras. They are tall, well made, strong and nimble, long visaged, have a stern look, are hard favoured, and have lank black hair. These people, who inhabit the sea-shore and the banks of rivers, are bred to throw the lance, harpoon, and dart; draw the bow from their infancy, and they will turn aside any missile weapons thrown at them with a small cane no bigger than a gun-stick. Their principal employment is striking fish, particularly the manatee and turtle. The English privateers, when they cruize on the Mexican coast, have usually one or two of these Mosquito men to strike the fish, and they will take enough to maintain a ship's crew of a hundred men. When they serve the English they learn the use of the gun, and become exceeding good marksmen; they are also extremely daring in fight, and never give back while supported by the party that entertains them.

But to return to the Indians in general, who have their dances and music, if it may be called by that name, such as wooden drums, and a kind of pipe made of a cane or reed, but very disagreeable to an European ear; for they love every thing that makes a noise, how disagreeable soever be the sound: they will also hum over something like a tune when they dance, but it does not appear that they have any thing like songs or ballads. They dance thirty or forty in a circle, stretching out their hands, and laying them on each others shoulders; stamp, jump, and use the most antic gestures for several hours together, till they are heartily weary. Sometimes one or two of the company step out of the ring, to divert the rest by shewing tricks and feats of activity, throwing up their lances, catching them again, bending backwards, and springing forwards with great agility.

CHAP. X.

OF TERRA FIRMA, or NEW CASTILE.

SECT. I.

The Situation, Extent, and Divisions of Terra Firma; with a particular Description of the Situation, Extent, Rivers, Face of the Country, and Climate of Terra Firma Proper; and of the Towns of Porto Bello and Panama: likewise an Account of the Pearl Fishery near the last City; and of a Scots Settlement on the Coast of Darien.

THE province of Terra Firma, or New Castile, is a very extensive country, it being bounded on the north and east by the North sea; on the south by part of Guiana and the country of the Amazons; and on the west by the South sea, where the isthmus of Darien also divides it from Mexico. Its greatest length from the South sea to the mouth of the river Oroonoko is upwards of thirteen hundred miles, and its greatest breadth is about seven hundred and fifty; but in other places it is much pent in by the river Oroonoko, so that it is not above half that breadth, and towards the mouth of that river not above a hundred and eighty miles. It extends almost from the equator to the twelfth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and from the sixty-second to the eighty-third degree of west longitude.

Terra Firma is divided into the following districts, or governments: the isthmus of Darien, or Terra Firma Proper, Carthagena, Santa Martha, Rio de la Hacha, Venezuela, New Granada, New Andalusia, and the province of Popayan.

The most northern of these is the country lying between the gulph of Darien and Mexico, along the coast of the South and North sea, particularly distinguished by the name of the isthmus of Darien, and by some writers called the isthmus of Panama. It divides North and South America, extending between the eighth and tenth degree north latitude, and between the seventy-eighth and eighty-seventh degree west longitude, in the form of a crescent, round the bay of Panama for about three hundred miles in length, and sixty in breadth, from the North sea to the Pacific ocean. It is bounded on the east by the river and gulph of Darien, which separates it from Carthagena; on the south by Popayan and the Pacific ocean, or South sea; and on the west by the same ocean and Veragua.

The land has almost every where an equal surface, and is distinguished by hills and valleys of great variety for height, depth, and extent. The valleys are generally watered with rivers, brooks, and perennial springs, some

some of which fall into the North and others into the South sea: most of them rise from a chain of higher hills than the rest that extend the length of the isthmus, in a manner parallel to the shore, and is in most parts nearest the North sea, from which it is seldom above ten or fifteen miles distant. On the north side of this main ridge, which is a continuation of the Andes, there are either no hills at all, or only gentle declivities. This side of the country is every where so covered with woods, that it is all one continued forest: nor is the main ridge itself carried on every where with a continued top; but is rather a range of distinct hills, and accordingly has frequent large valleys disjoining the several eminences that compose its length; and some of them are even so deep as to admit a passage for rivers.

Some of the rivers that water the country are pretty large, though few of them are navigable. On the north coast they are for the most part small; for as they generally rise from the main ridge, which lies near that shore, they have but a short course. The Darien, from which the isthmus is supposed to take its name, is indeed a very large river, but its depth at the entrance is not answerable to the wideness of its mouth. The river Chagre is pretty considerable; for though it rises from the same ridge, it has a long bending course from the south and east part of the isthmus. The river Conception is also considerable: these three fall into the North sea. Into the South sea fall the Santa Maria, the Congo, and the Cheapo.

In the river Chagre are bred a great number of alligators; and all the forests and woods near it are full of wild beasts, especially different kinds of monkeys, of various colours, as black, brown, and reddish; there is also the same diversity in their size, some being a yard long, others half a yard, and others scarce a foot. The flesh of all these different kinds is highly valued by the negroes, especially that of the red; but however delicate the meat may be, says the learned Don Antonio Ulloa, the sight of them is enough to make the appetite abhor them; for when dead they are scalded, in order to take off the hair, whence the skin is contracted by the heat; and when thoroughly cleaned looks perfectly white, and greatly resembles a child of about two or three years of age when crying: yet the scarcity of food in many parts of America renders their flesh valuable; and not only the negroes, but the Creoles, and the Europeans themselves, make no scruple of eating it.

But to return, nothing can excel the prospects which the rivers of this country exhibit. The most fertile imagination of a painter can never equal the magnificence of the rural landscapes drawn by the pencil of nature. The groves, which shade the plains, and extend their branches to the rivers; the various dimensions of the trees that cover the eminences; the texture of their leaves; the figure of their fruits, and the various colours they exhibit, form a most delightful scene, that is greatly heightened by the infinite variety of creatures with which it is diversified. The different species of monkeys skipping in troops from tree to tree, hanging from the branches; and in other places, six, eight, or more of them, linked together, in order to pass a river, with the dams carrying their young on their shoulders, throwing themselves into odd gestures, and making a thousand grimaces, will perhaps appear fictitious to those who have not actually seen it; but if the birds are considered, our reason for admiration will be greatly augmented. These, from their great abundance, seem to have had their origin on the banks of the rivers, while the beauty and variety of their various plumage conspire to charm the eye. Here are all the various kinds of parrots, parroquets, cotores, the tulcan, the gallinazo, the wild and royal peacock, the turtle dove, the heron, and many others.

The weather is much the same here as in other places of the torrid zone, inclining rather to the wet extreme. The rains begin in April or May, and are very violent during the months of June, July, and August: it is then very hot, whenever the sun breaks out of a cloud, there being no breezes to fan and cool the air, it is all a glowing heat. About September the rains begin to abate, but it is November or December, and perhaps the beginning of January, before they are quite gone; so that

the rainy weather lasts two-thirds of the year. They first come, like our sudden April showers, one in a day; at length a shower falls almost every hour, frequently accompanied with violent thunder and lightning; during which the air has often a faint sulphureous smell, where pent up among the woods. After this variable weather there will be, for about a month or six weeks, a settled continued rain of several days and nights, without thunder and lightning, but extremely vehement, considering the length: yet at certain intervals, even in the wettest part of the season, are intermixed several fair days, with only tornadoes or thunder showers, and that sometimes for a week together. These thunder showers usually cause a sensible wind by the clouds pressing the atmosphere, which is very refreshing from its moderating the heat; but as it shakes the trees of the forest, their dropping is as troublesome as the rain itself. When the shower is over, you hear a great way together the croaking of frogs and toads, and the humming of muskettoes, which chiefly infest the low swampy grounds near the rivers. The floods caused by the heavy rains often beat down the trees; so that they frequently bar up the rivers till they are cleared by another flood.

The soil of the inland part of the country is generally very good, and for the most part consists of black fruitful mould. The hills are every where fertile to the top, though more fruitful nearer the bottom; but even the tops of the main ridge are covered with very flourishing trees. Indeed the soil seems capable of producing all the vegetables proper to the climate; yet the trees on the tops and sides of the hills in the inland country are very different from those in the sea. The woods on the hills forming a large forest of timber trees, or a delightful grove of trees of several kinds, are very tall, with little or no underwood, and placed at such a distance from each other, that a horse may gallop among them a great way, and easily avoid them: their tops are generally very large and spreading, and it is probably their shade and dropping which hinder any thing else growing in the rich ground among them; for in the open savannas, or where the ground is cleared by industry, there is great plenty of smaller vegetables. On the sea-coast, where the soil is frequently swampy drowned land, especially near the mouths of rivers, the trees are not tall, but shrubby; consisting of mangroves, brambles, bamboos, &c. not growing in the manner of groves, but in a continued thicket.

The trees on the isthmus are many of them the same as those in Mexico, and they have also many of the same animals.

The principal towns in this province are Porto-Bello and Panama.

The town of St. Philip de Porto-Bello is situated in the ninth degree thirty-four minutes thirty-five seconds, north latitude, and in the eighty-second degree five minutes, west longitude, from London; and stands on the declivity of a mountain that surrounds the whole harbour. Most of the houses are built of wood; but in some the first story is of stone, and the rest of timber; but they amount only to about one hundred and thirty: most of them are however large and spacious. It consists of one principal street, extending along the strand, with others smaller crossing it, and running from the declivity of the mountain to the shore. There are also some lanes in the same direction with the principal street, where the ground admits of it. Here are two large squares, one opposite to the custom-house, which is of stone, adjoining to the quay; the other faces the great church, which is also of stone, large, and decently ornamented. Here are also two other churches, one called Nuestra Señora de la Merced, with a convent of the same order; but both the church and convent are mean and ruinous; the other is St. Juan de Dios, which is a small building, in no better condition than the former.

At the east end of the town is a quarter called Guinea, where the negroes of both sexes, whether slaves or free, have their habitations. This quarter is much crowded when the galleons are here. The mulattoes and other poor families also remove either to Guinea, or to cottages erected near it, or built upon the occasion. Great numbers of artificers from Panama, who flock to Porto-Bello

to work at their respective businesses, likewise lodge in this quarter for cheapness. Towards the sea is a large tract between the town and Gloria-castle, where barracks are erected, and are principally filled with ships crews, who keep stalls of sweet-meats and other eatables brought from Spain: but at the conclusion of the fair the ships put to sea, and all these buildings are taken down; after which the town returns to its former tranquillity.

The name of this port signifying Fine Port, or Harbour, indicates its being commodious for all ships; and though its entrance is very wide, it is well defended by Fort St. Philip. On the south-side of the harbour, opposite to the anchoring place, is a large castle, called Saint Jago de la Gloria, to the east of which, at the distance of two hundred yards, begins the town, having before it a point of land projecting into the harbour, on which stood a small fort, called St. Jerom. All these were demolished by admiral Vernon, in 1739, with only six ships under his command. Among the mountains, which surround the whole harbour, is one at its utmost extremity, remarkable for its superior height. Its top is always covered with clouds, of a density and darkness seldom seen in those of this atmosphere: when these thicken, increase in blackness, and sink below their usual station, it is a sure sign of a tempest; while on the other hand, their clearness and ascent as certainly indicate the approach of fair weather. These changes, however, are very frequent and sudden.

The town is under the jurisdiction of a governor, who has the title of lieutenant general; he is always a gentleman of the army, and has under him the commanders of the forts that command the harbour. To these his jurisdiction is limited, the neighbouring country being full of mountains covered with impenetrable forests.

The inclemency of the climate of Porto-Bello is exceeding great: the heat is excessive, it being augmented by the situation of the town, which is surrounded with high mountains, without any interval to admit refreshing winds. The trees on these mountains stand so thick as to intercept the rays of the sun, and consequently prevent their drying the earth under their branches: hence arise copious exhalations, which form large clouds that fall in violent torrents of rain; but this is no sooner over, than the sun breaks forth afresh, shining with his former splendor; but has scarce dried the surface of the ground not covered by the trees, than the sun is again concealed, and fresh showers fall. These torrents of rain, which, by their suddenness and impetuosity, seem to threaten a second deluge, are accompanied with such dreadful tempests of thunder and lightning, as must daunt even the most resolute stranger; and this dreadful noise is prolonged by the echoes from the caverns of the mountains, and the howlings and shrieks of the many kinds of monkeys which dwell in their forests: but what is still worse, the air is so unhealthy, that the galleons, or other European ships, which stay here any time, seldom leave it without burying half, or, at least, one third of their men: hence it has been termed the grave of the Spaniards. It is universally asserted in that town, that the animals from other climates, on their being brought from Porto-Bello, cease to propagate their species; thus hens brought from Panama, or Carthagena, immediately on their arrival, lay no more eggs. The horned cattle sent from Panama, after being here a short time, lose their flesh so as not to be eatable, though there is plenty of pasture; and it is certain that horses and asses never breed here.

The number of inhabitants from the inclemency of the climate is very inconsiderable, and the greatest part of these are negroes and mulattoes, there being scarce thirty white families; for none stay at Porto-Bello but those whose employments oblige them to it, as the governor, the commanders of the forts, the civil officers of the crown, with the officers and soldiers of the garrisons.

Provisions are scarce, and consequently dear, particularly during the stay of the galleons and the fair, when there is a necessity for a supply from Carthagena and Panama. From the former are brought maize, rice, cassava bread, hogs, poultry, and roots; and from the latter cattle. The only thing in plenty here is fish, of which there is a great variety, and very good. The adjacent

country also abounds in sugar-canes, and they make sugar, molasses, and rum.

Snakes are extremely numerous, and the toads innumerable, swarming not only in damp and marshy places, as in other countries, but even in the streets, courts of houses, and all open places in general. Thus, when it has rained in the night, the streets and squares in the morning seem paved with them; so that you cannot step without treading on them, which is sometimes productive of troublesome bites; for besides their poison, they are so large that their teeth are severely felt. They are generally about six inches long, and nothing can be imagined more dismal than their croakings, during the night, in all parts of the town, the woods, and caverns in the mountains.

As the forests almost border on the houses, the tygers often enter the streets during the night, carrying off fowls, dogs, and other domestic animals, and sometimes even boys have fallen a prey to them. Besides the snares usually laid for them, the negroes and mulattoes who fell wood in the forests of the mountains are very dexterous in encountering them, and some even seek them in their retreats. Their arms are only a lance, two or three yards long, made of a very strong wood, with the point hardened in the fire, and a large scymetar. Thus armed, they stay till he flies at their left arm, which holds the lance, and is wrapped up in a short cloak of baize. Sometimes the tyger seems to decline the combat, but his antagonist provokes him with a slight touch of the lance, which he no sooner feels than he grasps it with one of his paws, and with the other strikes at the arm which holds it: upon this, the person nimbly aims a blow with his scymetar, which he kept concealed in the other hand, and hamstringing the creature, which immediately draws back enraged; but returning to the charge, receives another such stroke, by which he is deprived of his most dangerous weapons, and rendered incapable of moving: after which the person kills him at his leisure; and stripping off the skin, cuts off the head, with the fore and hind feet, and returns to the town with the trophies of his victory.

To return to Porto-Bello, which though so thinly inhabited, on account of its noxious air, becomes on the arrival of the galleons one of the most populous places in all South-America; for its situation on the isthmus, between the North and South Sea, the goodness of its harbour, and its small distance from Panama, have given it the preference, for the rendezvous of the joint commerce of Spain and Peru.

The inhabitants of Carthagena no sooner receive advice that the Peru fleet has unloaded at Panama, than the galleons set sail for Porto-Bello, where the concourse of people is immediately so great, as to raise the rent of a middling chamber with a closet, during the fair, to a thousand crowns, and some large houses are let for that season for four, five, or six thousand crowns.

No sooner are the ships moored in the harbour than a tent is erected in the square, with the sails of the ships, for receiving their cargo, and thither the bales are drawn on sledges by the crew of every ship. While the seamen and European traders are thus employed, the land is covered with droves of mules from Panama, each drove consisting of above a hundred, loaded with chests of gold and silver, on account of the merchants of Peru. Some unload them at the exchange, and others in the middle of the square; yet amidst the hurry and confusion of such crowds, no theft, loss, or disturbance is ever known. He who has seen this place during the solitary time when it was poor, and a perpetual silence reigned every where, while every place wore a melancholy aspect, must be filled with astonishment at the sudden change, to see the bustling multitudes, every house crowded, the square and streets encumbered with bales, and with chests of gold and silver, with the harbour full of ships and smaller vessels; and, in short, this abandoned town become the staple of the riches of the Old and New World.

After the ships are unloaded, and both the merchants of Peru and the president of Panama arrived, the fair comes under deliberation, and the deputies of the several parties repair on board the commodore of the galleons, where, in the presence of the commodore and the president of Panama, the former as patron of the Europeans, and the latter

latter of the Peruvians, the prices of the several kinds of merchandize are settled, and all preliminaries being adjusted in three or four meetings, the contracts are signed and made public, that every one may conform to them in the sale of his effects. Thus all fraud is precluded. The purchases and sales, with the exchange of money, are transacted by brokers, both from Spain and Peru. After this every one begins to dispose of his goods; the Spanish brokers embarking their chests of money, and those of Peru sending away the goods they have purchased in vessels called chatas, and bongos, up the river Chagre, and thus the fair of Porto-Bello ends.

With respect to the history of this town, few places have been more unfortunate: in 1595 it was taken and ransomed by Sir Francis Drake: in 1601 it was surprised by captain Parker: in 1699 it was taken by captain Morgan: in 1678, by captain Croxon; and in 1739, by admiral Vernon.

Panama, the most important place in the province, is built on the coast of the South Sea, in the eighth degree fifty-seven minutes forty-eight seconds, north latitude. But with regard to its longitude, there are various opinions, none of the astronomers were for a long time able, from the observations made on the spot, to ascertain it; so that it was doubtful whether it lies to the east or west of Porto-Bello; but Don Antonio de Ulloa has with great care determined the dispute, and proved that it stands thirty minutes west of Porto-Bello. The houses in general are of stone, but are only one story high; however, from the symmetry of the windows, they make a handsome appearance. Without the city walls is an open suburb, larger than the city itself, and the houses of the same materials and construction. The decorations of the private houses are elegant, but not costly, and though there are here no persons of such immense fortunes as in some other cities in America, yet it is not destitute of wealthy inhabitants, and all of them have a sufficiency.

This city had the misfortune, in the year 1670, to be sacked and burned by John Morgan, an English buccaneer, who had before taken Porto-Bello and Maracaybo, and retiring to the islands, every where published his design of going to Panama; upon which he was joined by many adventurers. He first sailed to the river Chagre, where he landed some of his men, and battered the castle with his ships; but when he began to think it adviseable to retreat, on account of the great number of his men killed and wounded by the fort, an extraordinary accident gave him success. An arrow shot from the bow of an Indian, lodged in the eye of one of Morgan's companions; who being rendered desperate with the pain, with a remarkable firmness and presence of mind, plucked the arrow from the wound, and wrapping one of its ends in cotton or tow, put it into his musket, which was ready loaded, and discharged it into the fort, where the roofs of the houses were of thatch, and the sides of wood. The arrow fell on one of the roofs, and immediately set it on fire, which was not at first observed by the besieged, who were busy in defending the place; but the smoke and flames soon informed them that the fort and magazine of powder were on the point of destruction. Such an unexpected accident filled them with terror and confusion; and every soldier, being eager to save himself, abandoned the works, in order to escape the double danger, of being either burnt or blown up. The commandant, however, resolving to do all in his power, still defended the fort, with sixteen or twenty soldiers, till he was slain; and Morgan obtained the fort, which was soon laid in ashes.

Having surmounted this difficulty, he, with great part of his men, sailed up the river in boats, leaving the ships at anchor; and having landed, marched towards Panama, and on the Sabana, a spacious plain before the city, had several skirmishes, in which Morgan always gained the advantage; so that he made himself master of the city; but found it almost forsaken; the inhabitants on seeing their men defeated, having retired into the woods. He now plundered it at his leisure; and after staying some days, agreed for a large ransom, to leave it without damaging the buildings; but after the payment of the money, the city was set on fire by accident; a misfortune that rendered it absolutely necessary to rebuild it, on which it

was removed to its present situation, which is about a league and a half from the former, and much more convenient.

In this city is a tribunal, or royal audience, in which the governor of Panama resides; and to this employment is annexed the post of captain-general of Terra Firma. The city has a court of inquisition, a cathedral, and a chapter, consisting of a bishop, and a number of prebendaries. The cathedral and convents are of stone; the latter are those of the Dominicans, Franciscans, Augustines, and fathers of Mercy; a college of Jesuits, a nunnery of the order of St. Clara, and an hospital of St. Juan de Dios.

The harbour is formed in the road by the shelter of several islands, where the ships lie very safe. At the bottom of the sea are a great number of pearls, and the oysters in which they are found are remarkably delicious. This kind of fishery is of great advantage to the inhabitants of all the islands; and of this fishery we shall give a particular description in treating of the trade of Panama.

The inhabitants are parsimonious, designing, insidious, and stop at nothing when profit is in view. The same selfishness and parsimony reigns equally among the women, who when they go abroad begin to imitate the dress of those of Peru, which consists only of a gown and petticoats nearly resembling those worn in Spain; but at home, on visits, and some particular ceremonies, their shift is the only cloathing from the waist upwards. The sleeves are very long, broad, and quite open at the wrist; and these, like the bosom, are adorned with very fine lace, the chief pride of the ladies of Panama. They wear girdles and five or six chaplets of beads about their necks, some set in gold, some of coral mixed with small pieces of gold, and others less costly; but all of different sizes; besides these, they have one, two, or more gold chains, from which hang some relics. Round their arms they wear bracelets of gold and tombac; also strings of pearls, corals, and bugles. Their petticoat reaches only from their waist to the calf of their legs, and from thence to a little above their ankle, a broad lace hangs from their under petticoat.

The land in the neighbouring country is left entirely to nature, nor does the least vestiges remain of its being formerly cultivated; whence the inhabitants are under the necessity of being supplied with every thing, either from the coast of Peru, or distant places in its own jurisdiction; and the ships of Peru are continually employed in exporting goods and provisions from that country, as the coasting barks are in bringing the produce of the several places in its jurisdiction; whence Panama is plentifully furnished with the best wheat, maize, cattle, and poultry, and the inhabitants are not so meagre and pale as those who live at Carthagena and Porto-Bello.

From what has been said of the commerce of Porto-Bello in the time of the galleons, an idea may be formed of that of Panama on the same occasion; this city being the first where the treasure from Peru is landed, and likewise the staple for the goods brought up the river Chagre. This commerce is of the greatest advantage to the inhabitants, both with regard to their letting their houses, the freight of vessels, the hire of mules and negroes. The city, during the absence of the armada, is never without a great number of strangers, it being the thoroughfare for all going to the ports of Peru in the South Sea, as also for any coming from thence to Spain; to which must be added the continual trade carried on by the Peruvian ships, which bring variety of goods; as meal of different sorts, wine, brandy, sugar, olives, oil, tallow, leather, and the like. The ships from Guayaquil bring cacao, and quinquina, or Jesuit's bark. The coasting barks, which make frequent trips from the adjacent ports, supply the city with hogs, poultry, hung-beef, hog's-lard, plantains, roots, and other food. The dearth of provisions in the city, and its district, occasioned by the great distance from whence they are brought, is amply compensated by the multitude and value of the pearls found in the oysters of its gulf, particularly those near the islands Del Rey, Tabaga, and others, amounting in the whole to forty-three in number, forming a small archipelago. At present they are found in such plenty, that there are few persons of substance near Panama who do not employ a

part of their slaves in this fishery, which is performed in the following manner:

The owners of negroes employ such as are both expert swimmers, and are capable of holding their breath a long time: these they send to the islands, where they have huts built for their lodgings, and boats that hold eight, ten, or twenty negroes, under the command of an officer. In these boats they go to such parts as are known to produce pearls, where the depth of the water does not exceed twelve or fifteen fathoms. Here they come to an anchor, and the negroes having a rope fastened round their bodies, and the other end to the side of the boat, they carry with them a small weight to accelerate their sinking. On reaching the bottom, they take up an oyster, which they put under their left arm, a second they hold in their left hand, and a third in their right; with these three oysters, and frequently another in their mouth, they rise to take breath, and put them in a bag. When they have rested themselves some time, and recovered their breath, they perform a second diving; and thus continue till they have completed their task, or their strength fails. Each of these divers is obliged to deliver daily to his master, a certain fixed number of pearls; so that when they have the proper number of oysters in their bag, they begin to open them, and deliver the pearls to the officer, till they have completed the number required; and if the pearl be but formed, it is sufficient, without any regard to its being small; and the remainder, however large or beautiful, are the negro's own property, the master not having the least claim to them, the slaves being allowed to sell them to whom they please, though they are generally purchased at a very small price by the master. The negroes cannot however every day make up their number, and therefore are obliged to supply the deficiency.

Besides the fatigue of this fishery, from the oysters strongly adhering to the rocks, they are in no small danger from several kinds of fish, which either seize on them, or crush them by their weight against the bottom. The fishery on the whole coast is obnoxious to the same dangers; but these fish are much more frequent where such riches abound. The tintoreras, and taburones, which are of an enormous size, feed on the bodies of these unfortunate fishermen; and the mantas or quilts press them to death. It wraps its fins round a man or any other animal that comes within its reach, and immediately deprives it of life by this pressure. This fish, though of a prodigious size, in shape resembles a thorn-back.

Every negro carries with him a sharp knife to defend himself against these fishes, and if one of them offers to assault him, he attempts to strike it, on which the fish instantly retires. The officers keep a watchful eye on these voracious animals, and on discovering them, shake the rope fastened to the negro's body to put him on his guard; and many upon seeing the diver in danger, have thrown themselves into the water, and dived down to his assistance: but too often all their dexterity and precaution are incapable of preventing the diver being devoured, or his losing a leg or an arm; and though several schemes have been tried to prevent these melancholy accidents, they have hitherto failed of success.

The pearls of these fisheries are generally of a good water, and some remarkable for their shape and size. A few of them are sent to Europe, but the greatest part are carried to Lima, where the demand for them is very great, they being not only universally worn there by persons of rank, but from thence they are sent into the inland parts of Peru.

Before we take leave of the Isthmus, we ought not to omit observing, that near the north-west point of the gulph of Darien, a settlement was attempted by the Scots in 1699, who built a fortress, which they named New Edinburgh, and denominated the surrounding country New Caledonia. Several English and Hamburg merchants engaged deeply in the adventure, and they were not only assisted by an act of the Scots parliament, but by letters patent from king William III. The territory of which the adventurers took possession, was governed by eight Indian chiefs, then at war with the Spaniards, who joyfully received the Scots, in hopes of being able, by their assistance, to expel their enemies.

For some time the new colony flourished extremely, but their good fortune soon raised the jealousy of the English East India company, and the complaints of the court of Madrid. The former represented this as an infringement of their charter, and the latter as a violation of the treaty subsisting between Spain and Great Britain. Unhappily the English parliament interposed, and addressed his majesty to vacate the charter granted to the Scots company. But though the Scots defended their rights with all the arguments of reason and justice, the influence of their adversaries was too powerful, and all measures were taken to ruin the infant settlement. The Hamburgers were prevailed on to withdraw their subscriptions; the merchants of London were even threatened with the ministerial displeasure; and orders were sent to the English plantations to deny the colonists provisions and assistance. In short, such was the power of faction and private interest, that the nation was robbed of the benefit of one of the most useful establishments ever projected, the advantages of which must have fully appeared whenever a rupture happened between England and Spain; for while the isthmus continued in the possession of the colony, the Spanish treasures must either have been detained in America, or have fallen into the hands of the English.

SECT. II.

Of CARTHAGENA.

The Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, Vegetables, and Animals of that Government: its Climate, and the Diseases of the Inhabitants: a particular Description of the City of Carthagena, its Trade, and Revenues; with the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants.

THE government of Carthagena has the river of Santa Martha on the east, which parts it from the province of that name; it has Popayan on the south; the river and gulph of Darien on the west; and the North sea on the north-west and north.

The country consists of hills and valleys, covered with thick forests and groves. It is impossible to view without admiration the rich and perpetual verdure of the woods and plants it naturally produces: but of these advantages the natives make little use, their innate sloth and indolence not allowing them to cultivate the gifts of nature, which here seem to be dealt out to them with a lavish hand.

Though Carthagena has not the convenience of being furnished by its soil with the different kinds of European vegetables, it is in no want of others that are far from being contemptible, and of which the inhabitants eat with pleasure: and though the Europeans at first seem to dislike their ordinary food, they soon become so well accustomed to it, as to forget that of their own country. Thus, though the constant moisture and heat of this climate will not admit of the cultivation of wheat, barley, and other European grain, it produces excellent maize and rice in such abundance, that a bushel of maize usually produces an hundred. From this grain they make the bollo, or bread used in this country; and also use it in feeding hogs and fattening poultry. The method of making it is to soak the maize, and afterwards bruise it between two stones; it is then put into large bins filled with water, where, by rubbing and shifting it from one vessel to another, they clear it from its husk, and afterwards grind it into a paste, and wrapping it up in plantain leaves boil it in water, and use it as bread; but in twenty-four hours time it becomes tough, and has a disagreeable taste. In families of distinction the bollo is kneaded with milk, which greatly improves it. They also make of the flour of maize several kinds of pastry, and a variety of foods equally palatable and wholesome. They have likewise cassava bread, which is common among the negroes.

Wheat bread is not uncommon at the city of Carthagena; but as the flour comes from Spain, it is too dear for the common people, and is only used by the Europeans settled at Carthagena and a few Creoles, and by these

these only with their chocolate and conserves. At all other meals they by custom prefer bollo to wheat bread.

In this country the interwoven branches of the trees form a shelter impenetrable both to heat and light. The trees are not only large and lofty, but of an admirable variety, and entirely different from those of Europe. The principal of these for dimensions, are the acajou, the cedar, the maria, and the balsam tree. Of the first are made the vessels used for fishing, and for the coast and river trade within the jurisdiction of this government; and the wood is compact, fragrant, and beautiful. The cedar is of two kinds, white and reddish; but the last is most esteemed. The maria and the balsam tree, besides the usefulness of their timber, distil those admirable balsams called maria oil, and balsam of Tolu, so called from a village, in the neighbourhood of which it is found in the greatest plenty, and of a peculiar excellence.

Besides these trees here are also the tamarind, the medlar, the sapote, the papah, the cassia, the palm, and the manchineel. The palm trees, rising with their tufted heads above the branches of the others, form a grand perspective on the mountains: these are of several kinds, and palm wine is extracted from them all, by boring a hole in the trunk, in which is placed a tap, with a vessel under it, to receive the liquor. Guaiacum and ebony trees are equally common, and their hardness nearly approaches to that of iron.

Here are also many cotton trees, some planted and cultivated, and these are the best; others spontaneously produced. The cotton of both is spun and made into several sorts of stuffs, which are worn by the negroes and the country Indians.

The cacao tree also grows in great plenty on the banks of the river Magdalena, and in other situations, which the tree delights in; but those in the jurisdiction of Carthagea greatly excel what are to be found in other parts, both in the size and the goodness of the fruit. The chocolate made of it is little known in Spain; for as it is more esteemed than that of other countries, the greatest part of it is consumed there, or sent to other parts of America.

There are here a vast number of delicious fruits that evidently display the exuberance of the soil, some resembling those of Spain, and others peculiar to the country. Those of the same kind with the Spanish fruits are melons, water-melons, grapes, oranges, medlars, and dates. The grapes are not equal to those of Spain; but the medlars as far exceed them. With regard to the rest there is little difference.

Among those peculiar to the country, the preference doubtless belongs to the pine-apple; hence its beauty, smell, and taste have acquired it the denomination of queen of fruits. Many of the others have been mentioned already, and here are also plantations of sugar-canes.

We shall now proceed to the animals, some of which are tame, and contribute to the use and pleasure of the inhabitants; others are wild, and of such different kinds and qualities, as display in a surprising manner the wonderful variety of the works formed by the Author of nature. The quadrupeds and reptiles frequent the dry and desert places, and are distinguished by the prodigious variety of spots upon their skins; while the vivid plumage of the feathered race glows with exquisite beauty, and the brilliant scales of one class of reptiles conceal the most active poisons. The only tame animals are horned cattle and hogs, of which there are the greatest plenty. Though the beef is not absolutely bad, it cannot be said to be palatable; for the constant heat of the climate renders the beef lean, and deprives it of that succulency it would otherwise acquire; but the pork is delicate, and exceeds any in Europe. There are here wild boars, deer, rabbits, and tygers; the last make great havock not only among the cattle, but among the human species: their skin is very beautiful, and some are as large as small horses.

Here are also leopards, foxes, armadillos, squirrels, and many others, besides innumerable kinds of monkeys, some remarkable for their size, and others for their colour. The fox's artifice in defending itself against dogs, or other animals, by whom it is pursued, by voiding its urine on its own tail, and sprinkling it on them, here effectually

answers its intention, the smell being so fetid, that the dogs are greatly disordered by it, by which means the fox escapes. Indeed the stench is so great, that it may be smelt a quarter of a league from the place, and very often for half an hour after. What is here called the fox is little bigger than a large cat, but delicately shaped, and has a very fine skin of a cinnamon colour; the tail is not very bushy, but the hair is spongy, and forms a bunch proper for this method of defence.

The birds seen in this hot climate are so very numerous, that it is impossible to give a full idea of the beauty and brilliancy of their various plumage; but the cries and croakings of some disturb the pleasure that would arise from the warblings of others. Here we see an instance of the equity observed by nature in distributing her favours, the plumage of those birds being the most beautiful whose noise is the most offensive; while on the other hand, those whose appearance has nothing remarkable, excel in the sweetness of their notes. This is particularly evident in the guacamayo, the beauty and lustre of whose colours are absolutely inimitable by painting, and yet nothing can make a more shrill and disagreeable sound.

The most extraordinary of all the birds seems to be the tulcan, or preacher. It is about the size of a common pigeon, but its legs much larger; its tail is short, and its plumage of a dark colour; but spotted with yellow, purple, blue, and other colours, that have a beautiful effect on the dark ground. Its head greatly exceeds all proportion with respect to its body; but it would not otherwise be able to support its bill, which is at least six or eight inches from the root to the point: the lower mandible closes with the upper through the whole length, and both diminish insensibly to the end, when it suddenly bends, and terminates in a strong sharp point. The tongue is formed like a feather, and, as well as the inside of its mouth, is of a deep red. The bill is variegated with all the bright colours that adorn the plumage of other birds: at the base, and also at the convexity, it is generally of a light yellow, forming a kind of ribbon, half an inch in breadth. The rest is of a fine deep purple, except two streaks near the root of a rich scarlet. The name of preacher has been given to this bird from its custom of perching on the top of a tree above his companions while they are asleep, and making a noise like ill-articulated sounds, moving its head to the right and left, in order to keep off the birds of prey from seizing on the others. They are easily rendered so tame as to run about the house, and come when called. Their usual food is fruit; but the tame eat other things, and in general whatever is given them.

Another extraordinary bird is the gallinazo, which is about the size of a pea-hen; but the head and neck somewhat larger. From the crop to the base of the bill, instead of feathers, it has a wrinkled glandulous rough skin, covered with small warts and tubercles. Its feathers are black, which is also the colour of the skin: its bill is well proportioned, strong, and a little crooked. These birds are so numerous and tame in the city of Carthagea, that it is not uncommon to see the ridges of the houses covered with them. They are also of great service on account of their cleaning the city from all kinds of filth, greedily devouring any dead animal, and any thing most offensive. They have so quick a scent, that they will smell a dead body at the distance of ten or twelve miles, and never quit it till they have entirely reduced it to a skeleton. The multiplicity of these birds found in such hot climates is of the utmost consequence, as otherwise the putrefaction caused by the excessive heat would render the air insupportable to human life. At their first rising they fly heavily, but soon after dart out of sight. Though their legs are strong and well proportioned, they hop along on the ground in a very awkward manner. They have the toes forward turning inwards, and one in the inside turned a little backwards; so that the feet interfering occasions their hopping and walking in the above manner. Each toe has long and thick claws.

There is another species of these birds, somewhat larger than the former, but only to be found in the country. In some of these the head and part of the neck are red, in some white, and in others a mixture of both these colours,

lours. At a small distance from the crop they have a ruff of white feathers; and are equally fierce and carnivorous with the former: these are called the kings of the gallinazos; probably because the number of them is but small; and it is observed, that when one of these birds has fastened on a dead beast, none of the others approach, till he has first eaten the eyes, which is generally the part he begins with first; and is gone to another place, when they all flock to the prey.

Batts are very common all over this government; but Carthagenas is infested with such an infinite number of them, that after sun-set, when they begin to fly, they may, without exaggeration, be said to cover the streets like clouds. They are the most dexterous bleeders both of men and cattle; for the inhabitants being obliged, by the excessive heats, to leave the windows of their chambers open, the batts get in, and if they find a person asleep with the foot bare, they insinuate their tooth into a vein, with all the art of a most expert surgeon, sucking the blood till they are satiated, after which it flows out of the orifice to the great danger of the person's life. The reason why the puncture is not felt, is attributed to the gentle and refreshing agitation of the air by the batt's wings, throwing the person into a deeper sleep, and thus preventing his feeling the slight puncture. This also happens to horses, mules, and asses; but beasts of a thicker skin are not so much exposed to it. This account, which is extracted from the learned Don Antonio de Ulloa, is confirmed by M. Condamine, who observes, that there are some of a monstrous size; and that they have entirely destroyed at Borja, and other places, all the black cattle which the missionaries had introduced there.

The great number of reptiles and insects is not only an inconvenience to the inhabitants, but they are even very dangerous. The most common of the snakes, and at the same time the most poisonous, are the coral-snakes, the rattle-snakes, and the willow-snakes. The first, which are generally between four and five feet in length, and an inch in diameter, make a very beautiful appearance, their skin being variegated with a vivid crimson, green, and yellow. The head is long and flat, like a viper. Each mandible is furnished with a row of pointed teeth, through which, during the bite, they insinuate the poison. The person bit swells to such a degree, that the blood gushes out through all the organs of sense, and even the coats of the veins at the extremities of the fingers burst.

The willow-snake resembles in colour and form a stick of that tree, and as they frequently hang from the boughs, really seem to be a part of it, till a too near approach unhappily discovers the mistake. Though their poison is less active than that of the others, it is mortal, unless a remedy be speedily applied.

Scolopendra not only swarm in this country, but are of a monstrous size, and are the more dangerous from their breeding in the houses: they are generally a yard in length, and some a yard and a quarter, with about five inches in breadth. The back and sides are covered with hard scales of a musk colour tinged with red; but so articulated as not in the least to impede their motion, and yet so strong as to defend them against any blow; so that you can only kill them by striking them on the head. They are very nimble, and their bite, without timely application, proves mortal.

Scorpions are not less common, and of different kinds, as black, red, musk colour, and some yellow.

The soldier-snail, of which we have already given a description, is here also dangerous, for the gripe which it gives with its two claws is attended with the same symptoms as the sting of a scorpion.

There are here an infinite number of butterflies, which, though they differ in their figure, colours, and decorations, it is difficult to determine which are the most beautiful. But whatever pleasure there be in seeing of these, it is far from equalling the pain which arises from the numberless muskettoes, of which there are large clouds of four different sorts, all of them extremely troublesome.

The climate of Carthagenas is excessive hot. From the month of May to the end of November is the season

they call winter, there being a continual succession of thunder and tempests, the clouds precipitating the rain with such impetuosity, that the streets of the capital have the appearance of rivers, and the country of an ocean. The inhabitants make use of this opportunity of filling their cisterns, this being the only sweet water they can procure. From the middle of December to the end of April the rains cease, and the weather becomes agreeable, the heat being something abated by the north-east winds. This season they call summer; besides which there is another called the little summer of St. John, as about the festival of that saint the rains are intermitted, and refreshing gales begin to blow, and continue about a month.

The almost invariable continuance of the great heats, without any sensible difference between night and day, occasions such profuse perspiration, that the wan and livid complexion of the inhabitants would make a stranger suspect their being just recovered from some terrible distemper. In all their motions there is something relax and sluggish; it even affects their speech, which is soft and slow, and their words generally broken: yet, notwithstanding these appearances of sickness and debility, they enjoy a good state of health. Strangers from Europe generally retain their strength and ruddy complexion about three or four months; but afterwards they are no longer to be distinguished by their countenances from the old inhabitants.

The singularity of the climate is probably the cause of the singularity of several diseases which here afflict mankind: some of these attack only the Europeans newly landed, and others are common to the inhabitants. The first kind carry off a multitude of people, and extremely thin the crews of European ships, but seldom lasts above three or four days. They are caused in some persons by cold, and in others by indigestion, which soon bring on the black vomit, which very few recover. Some, when the vomit attacks them, are seized with such a delirium, that, were they not tied down, they would tear themselves to pieces, and expire in the midst of the most terrible phrensy.

The inhabitants throughout the whole extent of the government of Carthagenas are very subject to the leprosy; and, in order to put a stop to the contagion of this distemper, there is without the capital an hospital called San Lazaro, in which all persons of both sexes labouring under this distemper are confined, without any distinction of age or rank; and if any refuse to go, they are forcibly carried thither. But from thence the distemper is suffered to spread; for their allowance being too small for their subsistence, those who have no other support are permitted to beg in the city, and from their intercourse with those in health, the number of lepers never decreases. The hospital resembles a little town. Every person at his entering it, where he is to continue during life, builds a cottage, in which he lives in the same manner as before in his own house, none going out unless to ask alms. The ground on which the hospital stands is encompassed by a wall, and has only one gate, which is always carefully guarded. They live a long time under this distemper, and as it greatly increases the natural desire of coition, to avoid the disorders that would result from this, which is almost impossible to be controuled, they are allowed to marry.

The itch and herpes are equally frequent among such Europeans as are not seasoned to the climate; and if neglected in the beginning, it is dangerous to attempt a cure.

A more singular and remarkable distemper, though less common, is the culebrilla, or little snake, which is perhaps a tumor caused by malignant humours settled longitudinally between the membrane of the skin, and daily increasing in length, till it surrounds the part affected, which is usually the arm, thigh, or leg. The external indications of it are a round inflamed tumor, a quarter of an inch thick, attended with pain, but not vehement, and a numbness of the part, which often ends in a mortification. The natives, who firmly believe it to be a small snake, are very skilful in removing it. They first examine where the head is, as they call it, to which they apply

apply a small suppurative plaster, and gently foment the whole tumor with oil. The next day the skin under the plaster is found divided, and through the orifice appears a kind of white fibre, about the size of coarse sewing thread, which they carefully fasten to a thread of silk, and wind the other end of it about a card, rolled up like a cylinder. After this they repeat the fomentation with oil, and the following day continue to wind about the cylindric card the part of this small fibre that appears in sight, and in this manner proceed till the whole is extracted, and the patient entirely cured. During this operation their chief care is not to break the culebrilla, because, say they, it would then cause a humour to spread through the body, and produce a great quantity of such little snakes, as they will have them to be, whence the cure would become extremely difficult.

The city of Carthagena is situated in the tenth degree twenty-five minutes forty-eight seconds north latitude, and in the seventy-seventh degree twelve minutes west longitude, three hundred and twenty miles south of Port Royal in Jamaica, on a sandy plain, which forms a narrow passage on the south-west to a part called Tierra Bomba, as far as Bocca Chica. The fortifications both of the city and suburbs are constructed in the modern manner, and lined with free-stone. The garrison, in time of peace, consists of ten companies of regulars, each containing seventy-seven men, including the officers, besides several companies of militia. The city and suburbs are well laid out, the streets being straight, broad, uniform, and well paved. The houses are built of stone, except a few of brick, but chiefly consist of only one story above the ground-floor; however, the apartments are well contrived. All the houses have balconies and lattices of wood, it being more durable in this climate than iron, which is soon corroded and destroyed by the moisture and acrimonious quality of the nitrous air, from whence, and the smoaky colour of the walls, the outside of the buildings make but an indifferent appearance. There are here a cathedral, a church dedicated to the Trinity, and a chapel of ease. The orders that have convents are those of St. Francis in the suburbs, St. Augustine, St. Dominic, La Merced, that of the Jacobines, and the Recollects, a college of Jesuits, and an hospital of San Juan de Dios. The nunneries are those of St. Clara and St. Teresa. The churches and convents are sufficiently capacious, but not much ornamented in the inside.

Carthagena, together with its suburbs, is equal to a city of the third rank in Europe. It is well peopled; but most of the inhabitants are descended from the Indians. The governor resides in the city; it has also a bishop, whose spiritual jurisdiction is of the same extent as that of the military and civil government: there is also a court of inquisition. Besides these tribunals, there is a secular magistracy, consisting of regidores, from whom every year are chosen two alcaldes, who are generally persons of great distinction; and likewise a treasury, in which all the taxes and money belonging to the king are received.

The bay is one of the best not only on the coast, but in all the known parts of the country. It extends two leagues and a half from north to south, has a sufficient depth of water, with good anchorage, and is so smooth that the ships are no more agitated than on a river. However, the many shallows at its entrance make the assistance of a good pilot necessary. The tides in this bay are very irregular, which is the case with almost the whole coast: it being often seen to flow a whole day, and afterwards ebb away in four or five hours; yet the greatest alteration observed in its depth is two feet, or two feet and a half. The bay abounds with a great variety of wholesome palatable fish, and a multitude of large turtle; but it is greatly infested with sharks, which are extremely dangerous to seamen, as they immediately seize every person they discover in the water, and sometimes even venture to attack them in their boats.

In this bay the galleons from Spain wait for the arrival of the Peru fleet at Panama, and on the first advice of this sail away to Porto Bello. It is the first place in America at which the galleons are allowed to touch, and thus it enjoys the first-fruits of commerce by the public sales made there. The sales, though not attended with

the same formalities as those of Porto Bello, are very considerable: for the traders of the inland provinces of Quito, Popayan, and Santa Fe, lay out great sums for several sorts of goods, and those species of provisions that are most wanted in their respective countries. The traders bring gold and silver in specie, ingots, and dust; as also emeralds; for besides the silver mines worked at Santa Fe, which are very numerous, there are others which yield the finest emeralds. The fair of Carthagena occasions a great quantity of shops to be opened, and filled with all kinds of merchandize. This is a time of universal profit; to some by letting lodgings and shops; to others by the increase of their respective trades; and to others by the labour of their negro slaves, whose pay during this busy time is proportionably increased; and it is not uncommon for slaves, out of their savings, after paying their masters, and providing themselves with necessities, to purchase their freedom. This commercial tumult lasts only while the galleons continue in the bay; for they are no sooner gone than silence and tranquility resume their former place; for, with regard to the trade carried on with the other governments, it is not very considerable.

The inhabitants of this city may be divided into different tribes, who derive their origin from a coalition of whites, negroes, and Indians. The Europeans are not numerous; most of them, after acquiring a competent fortune, either return to Spain, or remove into the inland provinces, in order to increase it. The Europeans and Creoles settled at Carthagena carry on the whole trade of the place, while the other inhabitants are indigent, and reduced to have recourse to hard labour for their subsistence. The dress of the whites, both men and women, differs but little from that worn in Spain; for persons in high posts have habits of the same form as in Europe, but with this difference, that they are all very light, the waistcoats and breeches being of fine linen, and the coat of some other thin stuff. Neckcloths are very uncommon, the neck of the shirt being adorned with large gold buttons, which generally hang loose. On their heads they generally wear a cap of fine linen, and others go entirely bare-headed. Fans are worn by the men: these are made of a kind of palm, in the form of a crescent, with a stick of the same wood in the middle.

The Spanish women wear a kind of petticoat made of thin silk, without any lining, and on their body a very thin white waistcoat; but even this is only worn in what they call winter, it being insupportable in summer. They, however, always conceal their breasts. When they go abroad they wear a mantelet, and on the days of precept go to the mass at three in the morning, and return before the violent heat of the day, which begins with the dawn.

Those women who are not perfectly of the white class wear over the above petticoat one of taffety, of any colour they please, except black; this is pinked all over, to shew the other they wear under it. On the head is a cap of fine white linen covered with lace, in the shape of a mitre, well starched, and terminating forwards in a point. They never appear abroad without this and a mantelet on their shoulders. The ladies and other native whites use this as their undress: instead of shoes they wear, both within and without doors, a small kind of slippers. In the house their whole exercise consists in sitting in their hammocks, and swinging themselves for air. In these they pass the greatest part of the day, and men as well as women often sleep in them, without regarding the inconvenience of being unable to lie at full length.

Both sexes possess a great deal of wit and penetration, with a genius proper to excel in all kinds of mechanic arts. This is particularly conspicuous in those who apply themselves to literature, who at a tender age shew a judgment which in other climates is attained only by a long series of years. This happy disposition continues till they are between twenty and thirty years old, after which they generally decline as fast as they rose; and frequently before they arrive at that age, when they should begin to reap the advantage of their studies, indolence checks their progress, and they forsake the sciences, leaving the surprising effects of their capacity imperfect. This is doubtless owing to the want of proper objects for exercising

exercising their talents; and the small hopes of being preferred to any post answerable to the pains they have taken. However, there are often seen here persons of extensive talents, both in the speculative and practical sciences, who retain them in all their vigour to a very advanced age.

Charity is a virtue, in which the inhabitants of Cartagena remarkably excel; and did they not exert it in the most generous manner towards the Europeans who come thither to seek their fortune, they would often perish with sickness and poverty.

The houses of persons of wealth and distinction are served with great delicacies; most of the dishes are dressed in the manner of the country, and some of them are so agreeable, that foreigners are no less pleased with them than the natives. One of their favourite dishes is the *ajiaco*, there being scarcely a genteel family without it. This is composed of pork fried, birds of several kinds, plantains, maize, paste, and several other things highly seasoned with pimento.

The inhabitants of any figure generally make two meals a day, besides a slight repast. Their breakfast is usually composed of some fried dish, pastry of maize-flour, followed by chocolate. Their dinner consists of a much greater variety; but at night they have only a slight regale of some sweetmeats and chocolate. Some families indeed affect the European custom of having regular suppers, though they are generally looked upon at Cartagena as detrimental to health.

The use of brandy is so common, that the most sober people never omit drinking a glass of it at about eleven o'clock in the morning, alleging that it strengthens the stomach, weakened by the constant perspiration, and creates an appetite. Chocolate is so common that there is not a negro slave but constantly allows himself a regale of it after breakfast, and the negro women sell it ready made about the streets at the rate of a quarter of a real, or about five farthings a dish. This, however, is mixed with maize flour; but that used by people in good circumstances is neat and worked as in Spain. This they also constantly drink an hour after dinner, but never without eating something with it. They also make great use of sweetmeats and honey, never drinking a glass of water without previously eating some sweetmeats.

The passion for smoking is no less universal: the ladies and other white women smoke only in their houses; but the women of the other casts, and the men in general, regard neither time nor place. This custom the ladies learn from their childhood, probably from their nurses, who are negro slaves; and it is so common among persons of rank, that those who come from Europe learn it, if they intend to make any considerable stay in the country.

The natives are fond of balls, which in houses of distinction are conducted in a very regular manner. They open with Spanish dances, and are succeeded by those of the country, which are not without spirit and gracefulness. These are accompanied with singing, and the parties seldom break up before day-light: but the balls of the populace are intermixed with indecent gestures, and a continual round of drinking, which frequently produces quarrels.

Their burials and mournings are also something singular, and in these they endeavour to display their grandeur. If the deceased be a person of rank, his body is placed on a pompous catafalco erected in the principal apartment of the house, amidst the blaze of tapers. The corpse lies there twenty-four hours, or longer, during which it is visited by the acquaintance of the family, and the lower class of women, who come to lament the deceased. These women, who are generally dressed in black, come in the evening, or during the night, into the apartment where the corpse lies, and throwing themselves on their knees, rise and extend their arms to embrace it; then in a doleful tone, mixed with horrid cries, they begin their lamentations, which always conclude with the name of the deceased. Afterwards they begin in the same disagreeable tone his history, rehearsing all his good and bad qualities, not even omitting his amours, till at length, quite spent, they withdraw to a corner of the apartment stored with wine and brandy, on which they never fail plentifully to regale themselves. No

sooner are these departed from the body, than others succeed, till the women have taken their turn. The same is afterwards repeated by the servants, slaves, and acquaintance of the family, which continues without intermission during the remainder of the night. The funeral is also accompanied with the like noisy lamentations, and even after the corpse is deposited in the grave the mourning is continued in the house for nine days; during which time the mourners never stir from the apartment, where they receive the compliments of condolance, and in the night are attended by their relations and intimate friends.

Before we conclude this article, it will be proper to give a concise account of the hostilities this city has suffered from foreigners, by whom it has been frequently attacked, taken, and plundered. The first invasion was made in 1544, soon after its establishment by certain French invaders, conducted by a Corsican pilot. In 1585 it was taken and almost destroyed by Sir Francis Drake, the scourge of the new Spanish settlements. M. de Pointis came before it in 1597 with a squadron of privateers, under the protection of the French king; and, after obliging the fort of Bocca Chica to surrender, whereby the entrance of the bay was laid open, he landed his men, and besieged Fort Lazaro, the taking of which was followed by the surrender of the city; but the capitulation was no security against the rage of avarice, which had consigned it to pillage. This conquest has been attributed to a private correspondence between the governor and Pointis; and what increases the suspicion is, that he embarked on board the French squadron, at his departure, taking with him all his treasures and effects, none of which had suffered by the general calamity. In 1741 it sustained a long siege from the English under admiral Vernon; but they were obliged to retire after they had made themselves masters of most of the forts and harbours, which was principally owing, besides the strength of the place, to the great mortality among the troops, and the differences that arose between the admiral and general.

SECT. III.

A concise Account of the Government of Santa Martha, Rio de la Hacha, Venezuela, New Andalusia, and New Granada; their Situation, Extent, Climates, Produce, and principal Towns.

THE government of Santa Martha is bounded on the east by Rio de la Hacha, on the south by New Granada, on the west by Cartagena, and on the north by the North sea; extending about a hundred and forty miles from east to west, and about two hundred from north to south.

The country is extremely mountainous, and some of these mountains, especially that called Santa Martha, is said to be higher than the pike of Teneriffe. From hence result considerable advantages to the inhabitants, the air being cooler and more wholesome than in some other parts of America near the equator. The air, however, is extremely sultry by the sea-coast; yet the mountains in the interior country are covered with snow, and the cold so intense, that while the people in one place are scorched with the sun-beams, others at sixty miles distance are shivering with the rigours of the season. It rains very much in the months of September and October in that part of the country which lies towards the sea-coast; but there is little rain in the other months, because the east and north winds which blow there disperse and drive away the clouds. The valleys of this country are exceeding fruitful, and produce oranges, lemons, pine-apples, grapes, and many other fruits. The country abounds in rich gold mines, and in the mountains are found sapphires, emeralds, jasper, and marble most beautifully veined. At a league and a half's distance from the city of Santa Martha are salt-ponds, where they get very good salt, which is exported into the neighbouring provinces.

The city of Santa Martha, which gives name to the province, is situated on a branch of the Rio Grande near the

the mountains of Santa Martha, in the eleventh degree thirty-four minutes north latitude. Formerly the city was flourishing and populous; but is much decayed since the Spanish fleets no longer touch there. The inhabitants amount to about three thousand souls, including all degrees: it is honoured with the residence of the governor of the province, and is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the metropolitan of New Granada. The houses are built with canes, and covered with palmeto leaves; and some with pantiles. This town has frequently suffered by hostile fleets; for in 1525 it was entirely ruined by Sir Francis Drake, and the next year was plundered by Sir Anthony Shirley; in 1630 it was taken by the Dutch, and was afterwards frequently pillaged by the Buccaneers.

On the east side of the Rio Grande, about twenty miles from the capital, is seated the town of Baranca del Malambo, a place of consequence on account of the brisk trade carried on by the inhabitants. The merchandize of New Granada is brought down hither in boats, and conveyed to the bay about forty miles below the town, or else directly to Santa Martha by a branch of the Rio Grande.

On the southern frontier of Santa Martha is seated the little province of Rio de la Hacha, in the form of a peninsula, between the gulph of Venezuela on the east and a bay of the North sea to the westward. The country is pleasant, tolerably healthy, and exceeding fertile. The rains are not so violent as in Santa Martha, though there are frequent tornadoes and thunder showers. In the middle of the province are some mines of jasper and chalcodony, and on the coast a very rich pearl-fishery, in which the Indians are chiefly employed, and, notwithstanding the vigilance of the Spaniards, reap the chief profits. The inhabitants of the open country still enjoy the blessing of liberty, and form a numerous, resolute, and brave nation.

Rio de la Hacha, the capital, which gives name to the province, and takes its own from the river, at the mouth of which it is situated, was formerly called Nuestra Señora de los Remedios, and stands in the eleventh degree six minutes north latitude, about a hundred and twenty miles from the city of Santa Martha, and contains only about a hundred houses. The town was formerly rich, but it was so often taken by the Buccaneers, that in 1682 the Spaniards abandoned it, but were afterwards induced to return, and defend it by building strong fortifications.

Venezuela, the next province, is bounded on the east by New Andalusia, on the south by New Granada, on the west by Rio de la Hacha, and on the north by the North sea, and includes the district of Caraccas; extending, according to some authors, four hundred miles along the coast of the North sea, and near three hundred into the interior country. The climate is moderately temperate, and the soil so rich and fertile as to produce two harvests every year, and to feed great herds of black cattle and flocks of sheep. The famous lake of Maracaibo, which is eighty leagues in compass, adds equally to the beauty and convenience of the province; but though the water of the lake and the rivulets which flow from it are drank, yet they are brackish and unwholesome, and the natives are in great want of fresh water. The inhabitants of this province are said to exceed a hundred thousand, including Spaniards, mulattoes, and negroes.

Venezuela, or Cora, the capital of the province, is seated on the north-east part of the peninsula, on the banks of the North sea, and lies in about the tenth degree forty minutes north latitude. It is the residence of the governor, the seat of the courts of justice, and the see of a bishop; but is neither remarkable for its commerce, its opulence, or buildings: its situation alone in the midst of the waters engages attention, and from hence it is that it has been called Venezuela, or Little Venice.

The town of Maracaibo, though inferior in dignity to the former, is more elegant, pleasant, and wealthy. It fronts the lake of the same name, and has a great number of splendid buildings, adorned with balconies that command a prospect of the lake at a great distance. The inhabitants are reckoned to exceed four thousand, eight

hundred of whom are said to be capable of bearing arms. Here is a governor dependent on the governor of the province, and it contains a large parish-church, four convents, and an hospital. Small vessels are continually trading to this place with the merchandize and manufactures of all the towns contiguous to the great lake; particularly with cacao, or chocolate, indigo, sugar, tobacco, and green hides. Maracaibo is also a celebrated port for ship-building, for which it is very convenient.

With respect to the country of Caraccas, it extends as far as Cape Blanco; but the coast is rocky and mountainous: it is, however, interspersed with small fertile valleys, which are subject, at certain seasons of the year, to dry north-west winds; but is in general blessed with a clear air, and a wholesome climate. A very extensive illicit trade is carried on with this coast by the English and Dutch, notwithstanding all the vigilance of the Spaniards, who have scouts perpetually employed, and breast-works raised in all the valleys.

Caraccas, the chief town in the district, is situated in the tenth degree ten minutes north latitude, at a considerable distance from the sea. It is said to be large, wealthy, populous, and extremely difficult of access, on account of the steep and craggy hills, over which an enemy must march to it.

Porto Cavallo is a sea-port town on this coast, which was unsuccessfully attacked in the late war by admiral Knowles.

New Andalusia is allowed to be a pretty large province, the boundaries of which are not exactly known. However, it has a part of Guiana and New Granada on the south, also part of New Granada and Venezuela on the west, the North sea on the north, and the river Oroonoko on the east; including the districts of Camana and Paria, it extends, according to the most reasonable limits, five hundred miles from north to south, and about two hundred and seventy from east to west. The interior country is woody and mountainous, variegated with fine valleys, that yield corn and pasturage. The produce of the country chiefly consists in sugar, tobacco, medicinal roots, gums, dying drugs, Brasil wood, and some valuable timber. To these may be added pearls, for which the Spaniards fish along the coast.

Cumana, or Comana, the capital of New Andalusia, to which it sometimes gives its name, stands in the ninth degree fifty-five minutes north latitude, and in the sixty-fifth degree thirty minutes west longitude from London, about nine miles from the North sea. It was built by the Spaniards in the year 1520, and is defended by a strong castle, capable of making a vigorous defence, as appeared in the year 1670, when it was assailed by the Buccaneers, who were repulsed with great slaughter.

New Granada, sometimes called Santa Fe, and Castella del Oro, is bounded on the north by Santa Martha, Rio de la Hacha, and Venezuela; on the east also by Venezuela; on the south by Peru; and on the west by Popayan. The whole country is supposed to include a space of three hundred and thirty-six miles in length, and near as much in breadth.

Though it lies between the first and ninth degree of north latitude, the climate is remarkably temperate; so that several writers affirm, that their equality of day and night is undisturbed by any variety of seasons; but, upon a strict examination, this does not appear to be strictly true, there being in reality two summers and two winters. The country is beautifully variegated with hills and valleys covered with verdure. The mountains contain gold, silver, and emeralds; and the valleys are enriched with all the necessaries of life, as corn, cattle, roots, and fruit: they produce likewise great quantities of guaiacum, gums, balms, drugs of various kinds, and other valuable articles of commerce.

The capital of the kingdom, as it is called, is the city of Santa Fe de Bogata, seated on the banks of the lake Gatavita. It is the residence of the royal audience, and of an archbishop, who has for his suffragans the bishops of Carthagena, Santa Martha, and Popayan. The city is large, populous, opulent, well built, and adorned with magnificent palaces and fine houses; but as we can meet with no particular description of it for less than a century past,

past, we may reasonably conclude that it is much changed since that time. There are, besides the capital, Tunia, Marida, Trinidada, and Truxillo.

S E C T. IV.

Of the Government of POPAYAN.

Its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Climate, Soil, and Produce; with a particular Description of the Plant called Cuca and the Mopa-mopa, the dreadful Insect named the Coya, and the Manner of obtaining Gold from the Mines. A Description of the City of Popayan, and its Government.

WE now come to the government of Popayan, which is bounded on the north by the government of Carthagena; on the east by the kingdom of New Granada; on the south by Peru; and on the west its ancient boundary was the South sea; but it has since been contracted by the new government of Choco; so that only a part of it reaches to the sea. Its extent is not precisely determined; but it is from east to west about eighty leagues, and little less from north to south. This government is divided into two jurisdictions, of which that on the north and east belong to Santa Fe, or New Granada, while all those parts which lie towards the south and west are reckoned in the province of Quito.

The climate varies according to the situation of places, some being more cold than hot, others the reverse, and some throughout the whole year enjoy a continual spring, particularly Popayan the capital. The same may be said of the soil, which produces in great abundance the corn and fruit proper to its situation, and the farmers breed great numbers of horned cattle and sheep. The jurisdiction of Popayan is, however, subject to dreadful tempests of thunder, lightning, and earthquakes.

Among the plants of the country of Popayan grows the cuca, an herb so esteemed by the Indians in some provinces of Peru, that they would part with any kind of provisions, the most valuable metals, gems, or any thing else, rather than want it. It grows on a weak stem, which for support twists itself round another stronger vegetable: its leaf is about an inch and a half or two inches in length, and extremely smooth. The Indians make use of it for chewing, mixing it with a kind of chalk or whitish earth, called mambi. They put into their mouth a few leaves of cuca, and a proper quantity of mambi, and chewing them together, at first spit out the saliva, but afterwards swallow it; thus moving it from one side of the mouth to the other, till its substance is quite drained, when it is thrown away and immediately replaced by fresh leaves. This herb is so nutritive and invigorating, that they labour whole days without any thing else, and on the want of it find a decay in their strength. It also preserves the teeth sound, and fortifies the stomach. Great quantities of this herb are cultivated by the Indians in the southern provinces of Peru, and it makes no small article of trade; a vast deal of it is in particular carried to the mine towns, that the owners of the mines may furnish the Indians with it, who otherwise could not be brought to work, or would not have strength to go through it. This plant is the same with the betel of the East Indies, and it is used there in the same manner: the Eastern nations, as the reader has already seen, are excessively fond of their betel; and the Indians of Peru and Popayan are no less so of their cuca.

In the most southern districts of Popayan are certain trees which yield a resin called mopa-mopa, of which is made a varnish, which is not only exquisitely beautiful, but will bear boiling water, and even acids. The method of applying it is to dissolve some of the resin in one's mouth, and then wet the pencil with it; afterwards it is dipped in the colour which is to be laid on, and when dried has all the lustre of the Chinese lac; but with this superior quality, that it never wears off nor becomes moist, though rubbed with spittle. The cabinets, tables, and other furniture made by the Indians of this country are carried to Quito, where they are highly valued.

In the valleys of Neyba, and others within this jurisdiction, is an insect extremely remarkable for the venom

it contains. Its common name is coya, or coyba: it is shaped like a spider; but is much less than a bug. Its colour is of a fiery red, and, like the spider, is generally found in the corners of walls and among the herbage. Its venom is so extremely malignant, that on squeezing the insect, if any of it happens to fall on the skin, either of man or beast, it immediately penetrates into the flesh, and causes large tumours that are soon succeeded by death. The only remedy hitherto known is on the first appearance of a swelling to singe the party all over the body with a flame of straw, or the long grass growing in those plains. In order to this the Indians of that country lay hold of the patient, some by the feet and others by the hands, and with great dexterity perform the operation; after which the person is thought to be out of danger. However, though this insect is so very noxious, yet squeezing it between the palms of the hands is attended with no consequence, the callous preventing the vermin reaching the blood: accordingly the Indian mulattoes squeeze them between the palms of their hands to gratify the curiosity of the passengers; but should a person of a delicate hand make that trial, the effect would doubtless be the same as on any other part of the body.

The people who travel along these valleys, where they are so much in danger from these coyas, are warned by the Indians who attend them, that if they feel any thing stinging or crawling on their neck or face, to be careful not to scratch the part, nor even so much as lift up their hand to it, the coya being of so delicate a texture, that it would immediately burst: and as there is no danger while they do not eject the humour in them, the person acquaints some of the company with what he feels, and points to the place, where if it be a coya, the other blows it away. The beasts who are incapable of such warning, are by instinct taught a precaution against the danger; for before they offer to touch the herbage with their lips, they blow on it with all their force, in order to disperse any of these pernicious vermin; and when their smell acquaints them that they are near a nest of coyas, they immediately leap, and run to some other part. Thus they secure themselves from the venom of these insects, though sometimes a mule, after all his blowing, has been known to take in some with his pasture, on which after swelling to a frightful degree, it expires on the spot.

Every part of the jurisdiction of Popayan abounds in mines of gold, great numbers of which are still worked, and new mines are daily discovered. In the gold mines in these parts the gold is not incorporated with stone or other heterogeneous bodies; but is found dispersed and mixed with the earth and gravel, as sands are found mingled with earths of different species. Thus the whole difficulty consists in separating the grains of gold from the earth, which is easily done by running conduits of water.

The manner of extracting the gold throughout the whole jurisdiction of Popayan, is to dig out the earth of the mine, and lay it in a reservoir made for that purpose; and when this is filled, water is conveyed into it through a conduit. They then stir the whole, which soon turns to mud, and the lightest parts are conveyed away through another conduit, which serves as a drain, and this is continued till only the most ponderous parts, as little stones, sand, and gold remain at the bottom. They then go into the reservoir with wooden buckets made for that purpose, in which they take up the sediment, then moving them circularly and uniformly, and changing the water, the less ponderous parts are separated, and at last the gold remains at the bottom of the bucket clear from all mixture. It is generally found in grains as small as those of sand, though sometimes what are called seeds, are found among it of different sizes; but generally they run small. The water issuing from the first reservoir is stopped in another a little beneath it, and there undergoes a like operation, in order to secure any small particles of gold, which from their extreme minuteness might be carried off by the current of the water being mixed with the earth, and other substances. And lastly, this water is passed into a third reservoir; but the savings here are generally

generally inconsiderable. The labourers are negro slaves; some of whom are employed in washing, while others bring earth; so that the washers are kept in continual employment. The fineness of this gold is generally of twenty-two carats, sometimes more, even to twenty-three, and it is seldom below twenty-one.

The city of Popayan, one of the most ancient in these parts, stands in a large plain, which on the north side affords an uninterrupted prospect of the country. It is situated in the second degree twenty-eight minutes north latitude, on the east side of a mountain of a middling height called M, from its resembling that letter, and being covered with a variety of trees, affords an agreeable prospect. The city is of a middling size, with broad, straight, and level streets, which, though not every where paved, are equally convenient. The foot-path near the houses being paved in all parts, and the middle of the streets being composed of hard small gravel, they are never dirty in rainy weather, nor dusty in dry. The houses are built with unburnt bricks; those of note have one story, and the others only a ground-floor. The church was erected into a cathedral in the year 1547, and is the only parish-church in the city. Here are likewise convents of Franciscans, Dominicans, and Augustines, with a college of Jesuits, all of which have churches; and in the latter is a grammar-school. Here are also two nunneries. From the mountain of M issues a river, which by running through the city, besides other conveniences, carries away all its soil. Two bridges are erected over it, one of wood, and the other of stone; and its waters have a particular medicinal virtue. In this mountain is also a spring of very fine water; but it not being sufficient to supply the whole city, it is conveyed to the nunneries and the houses of people of rank.

A little above a league to the north of Popayan runs the river Cauca, which is very large and deep, its current rapid, and subject to dangerous swellings in the months of June, July, and August.

The inhabitants of Popayan, where the negroes are bound, are chiefly descended from the marriages of the whites and negroes, so that the number of Indians here are in general very few. This government, however, has many large villages of them, and it is only in the capital and other Spanish towns that they are so greatly outnumbered by the negroes. The inhabitants of Popayan are computed at between twenty and twenty-five thousand, and among these are many Spanish families. While other towns see their inhabitants daily decreasing, Popayan constantly increases; for the many gold mines worked all over its jurisdiction afford employment to the indigent, and consequently occasion a great resort of people to these parts. The city of Popayan is the constant residence of the governor, whose office being merely civil, it is not necessary, as in many other places, that he should be acquainted with military affairs: however, within the jurisdiction of his government all civil, political, and military affairs are under his direction. He is also the chief magistrate of the city, besides whom are two alcaldes annually chosen, and a proper number of regidores. Here is a chamber of finances, into which are paid the several branches of the royal revenue, as the tribute of the Indians, the duty on goods, the fifth of the metals, and the like. The ecclesiastical chapter is composed of the bishop, whose annual revenue amounts to six hundred thousand dollars; the dean, who has five hundred; the archdeacon, chanter, rector, and treasurer, who have each four hundred. This see is a suffragan of the archbishop of Santa Fe de Bogota. As Popayan lies within the jurisdiction of the inquisition of Carthagená, it has a commissary from thence. Here is also another of the croisade; but the authority of these judges does not extend beyond the diocese, which is far less than the extent of the government, a considerable part of it being under the jurisdiction of the archbishop of Quito.

CH A P. XI.

Of PERU, including QUITO, LIMA, and LOS CHARCOS.

S E C T. I.

Of QUITO.

The Situation and Extent of Peru in general, and of Quito in particular. Of the Climate, Diseases, Soil, and Produce of the latter; with a Description of some of the most remarkable Fruits; as also of the City of Quito, the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants, and their Trade.

THE great empire of Peru is bounded on the north by Popayan, last described, on the east by the Andes, on the south by Chili, and on the west by the Pacific ocean; extending between the equator and the twenty-fifth degree ten minutes south latitude, and between the sixtieth and eighty-first degree of west longitude, that is about eighteen hundred miles in length, and its greatest breadth does not much exceed three hundred and ninety.

This country is divided into three grand divisions, Quito, Lima, or Los Reyes, and Los Charcos. As to its climate, mines, soil, and produce, they differ greatly in different parts of the country; we shall therefore treat of these in describing its several districts.

The extensive province of Quito is bounded on the north by Popayan, and includes a part of that government, and also by Santa Fe de Bogota; on the south by the governments of Piura and Chachapoyas; on the east it extends over the whole government of Maynas and the river of the Amazons to the meridian of demarkation, which divides the Spanish from the Portuguese

dominions; and on the west it is bounded by the South sea; extending, according to Antonio de Ulloa, six hundred leagues in length, and about two hundred in its greatest breadth; but this greatly exceeds the computation of all other of the great geographers. He, however, observes, that it must be owned a great part of those vast dominions are either inhabited by nations of savage Indians, or have not hitherto been sufficiently peopled by the Spaniards, if indeed they have been thoroughly known; and that all the parts that can properly be said to be peopled, and actually subject to the Spanish government, are those intercepted by the two Cordilleras of the Andes, which in comparison to the extent of the country may be termed a street, or lane, fifteen leagues, or sometimes more, from east to west, which is the distance intercepted between the two Cordilleras: but to this must be added several detached governments, separated by very extensive tracts, inhabited by free Indians.

In order to form a right judgment of the happy temperature of the air of Quito, it is necessary to correct our ideas of the heat in latitudes close to the equator; for experience here shews, that in this respect the climate of Quito differs from all others, since in the center of the torrid zone, or rather under the equinoctial, the heat is not only very tolerable, but even in some places the cold is painful; while others enjoy all the advantages of a perpetual spring, the fields being constantly covered with verdure, and enamelled with flowers of the most lively colours. The mildness of the climate, free from the extremes of heat and cold, and the constant equality of

the day and night, render this country, which from its situation might be thought to be parched by the constant heat of the sun, and scarcely inhabited, both pleasant and fertile; for nature has here scattered her blessings with so liberal a hand, that this country in several respects surpasses those of the temperate zones, where the vicissitudes of winter and summer, and the change from heat to cold, cause the extremes of both to be more sensibly felt. However, in different parts of the country the air is very different; in one part are mountains of a stupendous height and magnitude, with their summits covered with snow. The plains are temperate, the valleys hot, and, according to the high or low situation of the country, are found all the variety of gradations of temperature possible to be conceived between the extremes of heat and cold.

Quito, the capital, is so happily situated, that neither the heat nor cold is troublesome, though both may be felt in its neighbourhood; and what renders this equality more delightful is, that it is constant throughout the whole year, the difference between the seasons being scarce perceptible. Indeed the mornings are cool, the remainder of the day warm, and the nights of an agreeable temperature. These being almost the only variations, the inhabitants make no difference in their dress during the whole year; for though some wear silks or light stuffs, at the same time that others are dressed in substantial cloth, the former are as little incommoded by the cold, as the latter are by heat.

The winds, which are healthy, blow continually, for the most part from north to south; but never with any violence, though they sometimes shift their quarters, but without any regard to the season of the year; and were it not for some inconveniences to which this country is subject, it might be considered as the most happy spot on the earth: but when on the other hand these disagreeable circumstances are considered, all its beauties are buried in obscurity; for here are dreadful and amazing tempests of thunder and lightning, and the inhabitants, in the midst of their security, are often surprized by destructive earthquakes. The weather, during the whole morning till one or two in the afternoon, is generally extremely delightful; a bright sun and a clear and serene sky are commonly seen; but then the vapours begin to rise, the whole atmosphere is covered with black clouds, which bring on such dreadful tempests of thunder and lightning, that all the neighbouring mountains tremble, and the city frequently feels their dreadful effects. Soon the clouds discharge themselves in such impetuous torrents of rain, that the streets appear like rivers, and the squares, though situated on a slope, like lakes. This generally continues till sun-set, when the weather clears up, and nature again puts on the beautiful appearance of the morning. Sometimes indeed the rains continue all night, and they have been known to last three or four days or more successively. On the other hand, this general course of the weather has its exceptions, three, four, six, or even eight fine days succeeding each other.

The distinction of winter and summer consists in a very minute difference: the interval between the month of September and those of April, May, or June is here called the winter season, and the other months compose the summer. In the former season the rain chiefly prevails, and in the latter the inhabitants frequently enjoy whole days of fine weather; but whenever the rains are discontinued for above a fortnight, the inhabitants are in the utmost consternation, and public prayers are offered up for their return. On the other hand, when they continue a short time without intermission, the like fears prevail, and the churches are again crowded with supplicants for obtaining fine weather; for a long drought produces dangerous diseases, and a continual rain, without intervals of sun-shine, destroys the fruits of the earth.

It is probably owing to some unknown quality of the air that the city of Quito is entirely free from muskettoes and other insects of that kind, which in hot countries render life almost a burthen. They are not even known to the inhabitants, and even a flea is seldom seen here, nor are the people molested with venomous reptiles. The only troublesome insect here is the nigua, or pique, a very small insect shaped like a flea, but hardly visible to

the sight. They live among the dust, and insinuate themselves into the legs, the soles of the feet, or toes, and pierce the skin with such subtlety that there is no being aware of them, till they have made their way into the skin, and taken up their lodging between that and the membrane of the flesh, where sucking the blood they form a nidus covered with a white and fine tegument, resembling a flat pearl, where it deposits its eggs, and as the number of these increases the nidus enlarges. There is an absolute necessity of extracting it, for otherwise it would burst of itself, and thus scatter an infinite number of small nits, which becoming niguas would in a manner undermine the whole foot. These cause extreme pain, especially during the operation of extracting them; for sometimes they penetrate even to the bone. These insects are very common at Carthagena, and many other places, as well as here.

Though the plague is unknown here, and in every other part of America; they have other diseases that have many symptoms of it, as malignant spotted fevers and pleurifies, which, when they prevail, sweep away prodigious numbers. Another disease here is called vicho, or mal del valle, which is a kind of gangrene in the rectum, and to which persons afflicted with the flux are most liable. The venereal disease is so common, that few persons are free from it, and its commonness effaces the disgrace with which it is attended in other countries. During the continuance of the north and north-east winds, which are the coldest, the inhabitants are afflicted with painful catarrhs. Canine madness is entirely unknown in America; but there is here a disease that in some respects resembles it, and in others the small-pox; this disease few or none escape, but having once had it, are never more afflicted with it. The symptoms are convulsions in every part of the body, a continual endeavour to bite, a delirium, and vomiting blood. Those whose constitutions are unable to support the conflicts of this distemper, perish; but this is equally common throughout all South America.

The fertility of the soil is incredible, for the fruits and beauties of the several seasons are seen here at the same time, and the curious European observes with a pleasing admiration, that while some herbs of the field are fading, others of the same kind are springing up; while some flowers lose their beauty, others blow to continue the enamelled prospect: thus, when the fruits of the trees have attained their maturity, and the leaves begin to change their colours, fresh leaves blossom, and fruit are seen in their proper gradations in size and ripeness on the same tree. The same incessant fertility is conspicuous in the corn, both reaping and sowing being carried on at the same time. That corn which had been lately sown is coming up, that which has been longer sown is in ear, and the more advanced is perfectly ripe; so that the declivities of the neighbouring hills exhibit all the beauties of the four seasons in one single view. Though all this is generally seen, yet there is a settled time for the grand harvest: but sometimes the most favourable season for sowing in one place is a month or two after that of another, though their distance does not exceed three or four leagues. Thus in different spots, and sometimes in one and the same, sowing and reaping are performed throughout the whole year, the forwardness or retardment naturally arising from the different situations, as mountains, rising grounds, plains, and valleys; and the temperature being different in each; the best times for performing the several operations of husbandry must also differ.

The only article of food of which there is here any scarcity is pulse; but this deficiency is supplied by roots. The principal of these are the camates, arucachas, yucas, ocas, and papas. The three former are the natives of hot countries, and cultivated in the plantations of sugar-canes, and in the spots called valleys and yungas, the former signifying here plains in a bottom, and the latter on the sides of the Cordilleras; but both in a hot exposure. In these are produced plantanes, guincos, Guinea pepper, granadillas, and others natural to warm climates. The cold parts produce pears, peaches, apricots, nectarines, melons, water-melons, quaitambos, and aurimelos. The parts which can neither be denominated hot nor cold produce frutillas, or Peruvian strawberries. The succulent

succulent fruits which require a warm climate are likewise here in great plenty throughout the whole year, as China and Seville oranges, lemons, citrons, limes, cidras, and toronjas. These trees are full of blossoms and fruit all the year round, equally with those that are natives of the climate, and abundantly supply the tables of the inhabitants.

We shall now give a particular account of some of the most remarkable of these fruits.

The chirimoya is universally allowed to be one of the most delicious fruits in the world. Its dimensions are various, it being from one to five inches in diameter. Its figure is imperfectly round, flattened towards the stalk, where it forms a kind of navel; but all the other parts are nearly circular. It is covered with a thin soft shell, which adheres so closely to the pulp, as not to be separated from it without a knife. The outward coat is green, variegated with prominent veins, forming all over it a kind of network. The pulp is white, and contains a large quantity of juice resembling honey, of a sweet taste, mixed with a gentle acid of a most exquisite flavour. The seeds are formed in several parts of the pulp, and are somewhat flat. The tree is high and tufted, the stem large and round, but with some inequalities full of elliptic leaves, terminating in a point. The blossom differs little from the colour of the leaves, which is a darkish green; and though far from being beautiful, is remarkable for its incomparable fragrance, and are therefore so much admired by the ladies, that they purchase them at any price.

The granadilla in its shape resembles a hen's egg, but is larger. The outside of the shell is smooth, glossy, and of a faint carnation colour, and the inside white and soft. The shell contains a viscous liquid substance full of very small and delicate grains, less hard than those of the pomegranate. This medullary substance is separated from the shell by a fine and transparent membrane. This fruit has a delightful sweetness blended with acidity, very cordial and refreshing, and so wholesome that there is no danger of indulging one's appetite.

The last of the fruits we shall mention is the frutilla, or Peruvian strawberry, which is very different from that of Europe in size; for though they are here generally not above an inch in length, they are much larger in other parts of Peru; but their taste, though juicy, and not unpalatable, is not equal to those in Europe.

The city of Quito is seated in thirteen minutes thirty-three seconds south latitude, on the eastern skirts of the west Cordillera of the Andes, thirty-five leagues west of the coast of the South sea. The city is built on the acclivity of the mountain of Pichincha, which rises far above the clouds, and surrounded by others of a middling height, among a number of breaches or clefts, some of which are of a considerable depth, and run quite through the city, so that great part of the buildings stand upon arches: this renders the streets irregular and extremely uneven. Near the city are two spacious plains, one on the south three leagues in length, and the other on the north about two leagues in extent; and both being interspersed with seats and cultivated land, greatly add to the prospect of the city, they being continually covered with a lively verdure enamelled with flowers. This scene is beautifully diversified with a multitude of cattle feeding on the eminences. These two plains contract as they approach the city, and at their junction form a neck of land covered with those eminences on which part of Quito stands. It may perhaps appear strange, that, notwithstanding two such beautiful and extensive plains are so near, the city should be placed in so inconvenient a situation; but the first founders were fond of building it on the spot where stood the ancient capital of the Indians. It was formerly in much greater repute than it is at present, for the inhabitants now daily decrease, and whole streets of Indian huts are entirely forsaken.

The principal square is spacious, well built, and furnished with some very magnificent buildings. On one side of the square stands the cathedral, and opposite to it is the episcopal palace; the third side is taken up by the town-house; the fourth by the palace of the audience; and in the center is an elegant fountain: but the square is rather disfigured than adorned by the palace of the au-

dience, the greatest part of it being suffered to run to ruin, and only a few halls and offices taken care of. Four streets terminating at the angles of the square are straight, broad, and handsome; but at the distance of three or four hundred yards from the square begin the troublesome declivities, which deprive the inhabitants of the use of coaches or any other wheel-carriages.

Except the four streets above-mentioned, all the rest are crooked, and destitute both of order and symmetry. Some of them are crossed by breaches, and the houses stand on the sides of their winding, coarse, and irregular projections. Some parts are situated at the bottom of these breaches, and others on their summits. The principal streets are paved; but those which are not are almost impassable after rain.

Besides the chief square there are two others, both very spacious, with several others that are smaller. In these the greatest part of the convents are situated, and thence make a very handsome appearance, their fronts being adorned with all the embellishments of architecture, particularly the Franciscan convent, which is built of freestone, and from the disposition of the parts, and the elegant taste of the whole, is said to be equal to the most admired buildings in Europe. The principal houses are very large, and some of them have spacious and well contrived apartments, though none are above one story in height, which is seldom without a balcony towards the street; but their doors and windows are very low and narrow. They are built with unburnt brick, cemented by a mortar of uncommon hardness, that was in use among the ancient Indians.

The city is divided into seven parishes, including the cathedral, which, besides the richness of its furniture, is splendidly adorned with tapestry and other costly decorations; but others of the parish-churches are mean; tho' the chapel del Sagrario is very large, built wholly of stone, and its architecture executed in an elegant taste.

The convents of monks are those of the Augustines, Dominicans, and the fathers of Mercy, who are the heads of provinces: besides these there is another of Franciscan Recollects, another of Dominicans, and another of the fathers of Mercy; a college of Jesuits, and two colleges for seculars, in one of which is an university under the patronage of St. Gregory. Here are also several nunneries, as that of the Conception, the orders of St. Clare, St. Catharine, and two of bare-footed Theresians. The college of Jesuits, as well as all the convents of monks, are very large, well built, and splendid; and the churches belonging to them magnificently decorated, especially on solemn festivals, when the vast quantities of wrought plate, rich hangings, and costly ornaments exposed to public view, are really amazing; and the nunneries, though they do not exhibit such riches, exceed them in the elegance and delicacy with which they are adorned. Here is also an hospital under the care of the order of Our Lady of Bethlehem.

The cathedral chapter consists of the bishop, whose annual revenue amounts to twenty-four thousand dollars; a dean, who has two thousand five hundred; an archdeacon, chanter, treasurer, and a doctoral, who have two thousand a year each; three canons, who have fifteen hundred each; four prebends, who have six hundred each; and two demi-prebends, each of whom has four hundred and twenty. In this cathedral the festivals of Corpus Christi and the Conception of Our Lady are celebrated with amazing magnificence; but the singular pomp in the procession of the host in the former ought not to be omitted. All the houses of the streets through which it passes are adorned with rich hangings, and superb triumphal arches are erected, with altars at stated distances that rise higher than the houses, on which, as on the triumphal arches, are piled up such immense quantities of wrought plate and jewels, disposed in such an elegant manner, as render the whole even more pleasing than the astonishing quantity of riches. All the persons in public offices march in magnificent dresses, and a number of Indians in rich habits, with bells on their legs and playing on the tabor and pipe, attend the ceremony with their dances.

With respect to the courts held at Quito, the principal is that of the royal audience, which consists of the president,

dent, who is governor of the province, with regard to law affairs; four auditors, who are at the same time civil and criminal judges; a royal fiscal, who, besides the causes brought before the audience, takes cognizance of every thing relating to the revenue; and an officer stiled the protector of the Indians, who solicits for them, and when they are injured pleads in their defence.

The next is the treasury, the chief officers of which are an accomptant, a treasurer, and a royal fiscal.

The tribunal of the Croisade, which has a commissary, who is generally some dignitary of the church, and a treasurer.

Here is also a treasury for the effects of persons deceased; an institution established all over the Indies, for receiving the goods of those whose lawful heirs were in Spain, in order to secure them from those accidents to which they might be liable in private hands.

Here is likewise a commissary of the inquisition, with an alguazil-major and familiars, appointed by the inquisition at Lima.

The corporation consists of a corregidor, two ordinary alcaldes, chosen annually, and regidores. These superintend the election of the alcaldes, which is attended with no small disturbance, the people being divided into two parties, the Creoles and Europeans.

This city is very populous, and has among its inhabitants some families of high rank and distinction, descended either from the original conquerors, or persons who at different times came from Spain invested with some lucrative post. The number of great families is however but small.

The commonalty may be divided into four classes, the Spaniards, Mestizos, Indians, and Negroes, with their progeny; but the last are not near so numerous in proportion to the rest, as in other parts.

The Creoles are well made, of a proper stature, and of a lively and agreeable countenance. The Mestizos are also in general well made, often taller than the ordinary size, very robust, and have an agreeable air. The Indians, both men and women, are commonly low, though strong and well proportioned; but more natural defects are to be found among them than in any of the rest. Some are remarkably short, some idiots, dumb, or blind. Their hair is generally thick and long, which they wear loose on their shoulders; but the Indian women plait theirs behind with a ribbon, and cut that before a little above the eye-brows, from one ear to the other. The greatest disgrace that can be offered to an Indian of either sex is to cut off their hair; for whatever corporal punishment their masters think proper to inflict on them, they bear with patience; but this affront they never forgive; and accordingly the government has interposed and limited this punishment to the most enormous crimes. Its colour is generally a deep black: but it is lank, harsh, and as coarse as that of a horse. On the contrary, the Mestizos, in order to distinguish themselves from the Indians, cut off their hair; but the women do not imitate them.

The country is observed to abound more in women than in men, which is the more remarkable as those causes which induce men to leave their country, as travelling, commerce, and war, naturally bring over more men from Europe than women. But there are many families in which there are a number of daughters, without one son among them. The women enjoy a more vigorous state of health, which may be owing in some measure to the climate, and more particularly to the early intemperance and voluptuousness of the other sex.

The whites may be considered as one sixth part of the inhabitants, and the Mestizos, who are the descendants of the Spaniards and Indians, may be reckoned a third. The next class is the Indians, who form about another third, and the others who are descended from these are about one sixth. These, according to the most authentic accounts, amount to between fifty and sixty thousand persons of all ages, sexes, and ranks. The Spaniards it is natural to think are the most eminent for riches, rank, and power; yet it must be owned that many of them are, in proportion, the most poor, miserable, and distressed; for whatever be their circumstances, they disdain to apply themselves to any mechanic business, considering it as a disgrace to that quality they so highly value themselves

upon, which consists in their not being black, brown, or of a copper colour. The Mestizos readily apply themselves to arts and trades; but chuse those of the greatest repute, as painting, sculpture, and the like, in which they particularly excel. Some of them have acquired great reputation; and some of the works of one of these Mestizos have been carried even to Rome, where they were honoured with the unanimous applause of the virtuosi: and what renders their exquisite performances still more admirable, is their wanting the tools that might be thought necessary to perform them with any tolerable degree of accuracy: but they are excessively indolent and slothful. The Indians, who are generally shoemakers, bricklayers, weavers, and the like, are not more industrious. Of these the most active and tractable are the barbers and phlebotomists, who equal the most expert hands in Europe. The shoemakers, on the other hand, are so slothful, that you have frequently no other way left to procure the shoes you have bespoke, than to purchase the materials, and lock up the Indian till they are finished. This is chiefly owing to the custom of paying for the work before it is done; for when the Indian has got the money, he spends it all in chicha, a kind of ale made of maize, and is never sober while it lasts, and he is afterwards unwilling to work for what he has spent.

With respect to the dress of the inhabitants, the Spaniards, who wear a black cloak, have under it a long coat with a close sleeve open at the side; and along the seams of the body, as well as those of the sleeves, are button holes, and two rows of buttons for ornament. In every other particular, people of fortune affect great magnificence, wearing the finest cloths or silk stuffs, and very often gold and silver tissues.

The ladies of the first rank wear on the upper parts of the body a shift, on which is a loose jacket laced; and over all a piece of baize. Every part of their dress is as it were covered with lace; and on days of ceremony, they wear the richest stuffs, with a profusion of ornaments. Their hair is generally made up in tresses, which they form into a kind of cross on the nape of the neck, tying a rich ribbon twice round their heads, and forming the ends into a rose at their temples. Those roses are intermixed with diamonds and flowers, and have a very pleasing effect. When they go to church they sometimes wear a full petticoat; but the most usual dress on these occasions is the veil.

The Mestizos in general wear a blue cloth, manufactured in this country; but though the lowest class of Spaniards are very ambitious of distinguishing themselves from them, either by the colour or fashion of the cloaths, there appears but little difference between them.

The Mestizo women affect to dress in the same manner as the Spanish, though they cannot equal the ladies in the richness of their stuffs. The meaner sort wear no shoes; but, like the men of the same rank, go barefooted.

The dress of the Indians consists of white cotton drawers, which hang down to the calf of the leg, where they are loose, and edged with a lace suitable to the stuff. The use of a shirt is supplied by a black cotton frock, made in the form of a sack, with three openings at the bottom, one in the middle for the head, and others at the corners for the arms; and thus covers their naked bodies down to the knees. Over this is a serge cloak, with a hole in the middle for putting the head through, and a hat made by the natives. This is their general dress, which they never lay aside, even while they sleep; and they have no additional cloathing for their legs or feet. The Indians who have acquired some fortune, particularly the barbers and phlebotomists, distinguish themselves from their countrymen by the fineness of their drawers; and by wearing a shirt, which, though without sleeves, has a lace four or five fingers in breadth, fastened round like a kind of ruff or band. They are fond of silver or gold buckles to their shoes, though they wear no stockings; and instead of a mean serge cloak, wear one of fine cloth, which is often adorned with gold or silver lace.

There are two kinds of dresses worn by the Indian women, made in the same plain manner with those worn by the men in general, the whole consisting of a short petticoat and a veil of American baize. But the dress of the lowest

lowest class of Indian women is only a bag of the same make and stuff as that of the men, which they fasten on their shoulders with two large pins: it reaches down to the calf of the leg, and is fastened round the waist with a kind of girdle. Instead of a veil, they wear about the neck a piece of the same coarse stuff, dyed black; but their arms and legs are naked. The caciqueesses, or Indian women, who are married to the alcaldes-majors, governors, and others, distinguish themselves by wearing a petticoat of baize adorned with ribbons, over which they have a sort of black mantle, open on one side, plaited from top to bottom, and generally fastened round the waist with a girdle. Instead of the veil worn by the common Indian women, they have one much fuller plaited and hanging down from the back part of the head almost to the bottom of the petticoat. This they fasten before with a large silver bodkin. Their head-dress is a piece of fine linen, curiously plaited, with the end hanging down behind, and they never appear abroad without their shoes.

The youth of family are here instructed in philosophy and divinity; and some study the civil law, which they generally follow with reluctance. In these sciences they shew a great deal of judgment and vivacity, but are very deficient in historical and political knowledge, as well as in other sciences. The only employment of persons of rank, who are not ecclesiastics, is visiting their estates, where they reside during the time of harvest; but few of them apply themselves to commerce, permitting that lucrative branch to be possessed entirely by the Europeans. However, a few Creoles and Mestizos keep shops in the city.

The women of rank have a graceful carriage, and an amiable temper; qualities which are indeed common to the whole sex in this part of America. Their children are always educated under their own eyes, though little to their advantage, their extreme fondness preventing their seeing those vices which so often bring youth to ruin and infamy; they frequently endeavour to hide the vices of the son from the father; and when he discovers them, interpose passionately in defence of their favourite, in order to prevent his being corrected.

The want of proper employments, and the great neglect of education in the common people, occasion their balls and entertainments, of which they are extremely fond, to be conducted in the most licentious manner; but persons of rank and character are never seen at these meetings.

The people have dishes unknown in Europe; but are particularly fond of cheese; and have also excellent butter in the neighbourhood of Quito. Sweetmeats are more admired here than in any other country, which necessarily occasions a great consumption of honey and sugar. One method of indulging this appetite is to squeeze the juice out of the sugar-canes, let it settle, and curdle it; out of this curd they make small cakes, called raspaduras, which are so highly valued by the lower class, that with a slice of it, and another of bread and cheese, they make as hearty a meal as the rich with all their variety of dishes.

Rum is commonly drank here by persons of all ranks; but their favourite liquor is brandy. The disorders arising from the excessive use of spirituous liquors are chiefly seen among the Mestizos; and the lower class of women, both among the Creoles and Mestizos, are also extremely addicted to the same species of debauchery.

Another liquor much used in this country is mate, which is made of an herb, known in all these parts of America by the name of paraguay, as being the produce of that country. Some of it is put into a calabash tipped with silver, called here mate, with sugar and some cold water. After it has continued thus some time, the calabash is filled with boiling water, and they drink the liquor through a pipe fixed in the calabash. In this manner the vessel is filled several times with water, and fresh supplies of sugar, till more of the herb is wanting. It is also usual to squeeze into the liquor a small quantity of the juice of lemons or Seville oranges, mixed with some perfumes from odoriferous flowers. This is their usual drink in the morning fasting, and many use it also at their evening regale. The manner of drinking it appears very indelicate, the whole company drinking suc-

cessively through the same pipe, it being carried several times round the company till all are satisfied. This among the Creoles is the highest enjoyment; so that when they travel they never fail to carry with them a sufficient quantity of it, and till they have taken their dose of mate they never eat.

The vice of gaming is here carried to an extravagant height, persons of rank and opulence have led the way, and their inferiors have almost universally followed their example, to the ruin of many families, some losing their stocks in trade, others the very cloaths from their backs, and afterwards those belonging to their wives, which they hazard with the hopes of by that means recovering their own.

The common people, the Indians, and even the domestics, are greatly addicted to stealing. The Mestizos, though arrant cowards, do not want audacity in this way; for though they will not venture to attack any one in the street, it is a common practice to snatch off a person's hat, and immediately seek their safety in flight. Trifling as this acquisition may seem, it is sometimes of considerable value; the hats worn by persons of rank, and even by the wealthy citizens when dressed, being of white beaver, worth fifteen or twenty dollars, besides the hatband of gold or silver lace fastened with a gold buckle, set with diamonds or emeralds. However, robberies on the high-way are seldom heard of.

In Quito, and in all the towns and villages of its province, different dialects are spoken, Spanish being no less common than the Inga, the language of the country. The Creoles use the latter as much as the former, but both are considerably adulterated by borrowed words and expressions. The first language generally spoken by children is the Inga; for the nurses being Indians, many of them do not understand a word of Spanish, and thus they afterwards learn a jargon composed of both languages.

The sumptuous manner of performing the last offices of the dead demonstrates how far the power of habit is capable of prevailing over reason and prudence; for their ostentation is so great in this particular, that many families of credit are ruined by preposterously endeavouring to excel others; and the people here may be said to toil and scheme to lay up wealth to enable their successors to lavish honours upon a body insensible of all pageantry.

With respect to the commerce of the province of Quito, the persons who are the chief conductors of it are the Europeans settled here, and others coming occasionally. The latter purchase the country goods, and sell those of Europe. The manufactures of this province are only cottons, some white and striped baize and cloths, which meet with a good market at Lima, for supplying the inward provinces of Peru. The returns are made partly in silver, and partly in fringes made of gold and silver thread, with wine, brandy, oil, copper, tin, lead, and quicksilver. On the arrival of the galleons at Cartagena these traders resort thither to purchase European goods, which, at their return, they consign to their correspondents all over the province. The coasts of New Spain supply this province with indigo, of which there is a very large consumption at the manufactories, blue being universally the colour which this people affect in their apparel. They also import, by way of Guayaquil, iron and steel both from Europe and the coast of Guatemala.

S E C T. II.

Of the several Jurisdictions in the Province of Quito; a Description of the Town of San Miguel de Ibarra, with the Manner of catching wild Asses; and a particular Account of the Cochineal Insect.

THE province of Quito is divided into nine jurisdictions, which, beginning at the north, are San Miguel de Ibarra, Otabalo, the city of Quito, Latacunga, Rio Bamba, Chimbo, or Guaranda, Guayaquil, Cuenca, and Loja, of which we shall only describe what appears most worthy of notice.

The town of San Miguel de Ibarra is seated at the extremity of an extensive plain, at a small distance from a chain of mountains, and between two rivers, which give the plain a perpetual verdure. It is of a middling size, with straight broad streets, and most of the houses of stone or unburnt brick, and all tiled. It is surrounded with suburbs inhabited by the Indians, whose cottages make a mean appearance; but the houses in the town are neat and uniform, though they have only a ground-floor, except those in the square, which have one story. The parish-church is a large and elegant structure well ornamented. The town has convents of Franciscans, Dominicans, and the fathers of Mercy, with a college of Jesuits, and a nunnery of the order of the Conception. The inhabitants are computed at ten or twelve thousand souls.

In this jurisdiction sugar-canes ripen pretty early, and yet may at any time be committed to the mill, there being no necessity for cutting them at any precise time, they retaining all their goodness even when suffered to stand two or three months after they are ripe; so that they are cut every quarter, and the mills kept at work during the whole year.

Within the district of the village of Mira in this jurisdiction are a great number of wild asses, which increase very fast, and are not easily caught. The owners of the grounds where they breed allow all persons, on paying a small acknowledgment, to take as many as they can, in proportion to the number of days they employ in the sport. The manner in which they are caught is as follows: several persons go on horseback, attended by Indians on foot, and on their arrival at a proper place form a circle in order to drive them into some valley, where, riding at full speed, they throw a halter, the end of which is formed into a noose, over their heads; for these creatures, on finding themselves enclosed, make furious efforts to escape, and if only one forces his way through, they all follow with irresistible impetuosity: but the hunters having caught them in the noose, throw them down, secure their legs, and leave them till the hunting is over, when, in order to bring them away, they pair them with tame beasts; but this is not easily performed, they being so fierce as often to hurt the persons who undertake to manage them. They have all the swiftness of horses, and neither steep ascents nor declivities retard them in their career; and when attacked they defend themselves with their mouth and heels with such activity, that without slackening their pace they often maim their pursuers: yet after carrying the first load their celerity leaves them, their dangerous ferocity is lost, and they soon contract the stupid look and dullness peculiar to the rest of their species. It is also observable, that they will not permit any horse to live among them; and if one happens to stray into the places where they feed, they all fall upon him and, without giving him the liberty of flying from them, bite and kick him till they leave him dead on the spot. They are very troublesome neighbours, for whenever one or two of them begins to bray, they are answered in the same vociferous manner by all within the reach of the sound, which is greatly increased and prolonged by the repercussions of the valleys and cliffs of the mountains.

In the jurisdiction of Loja is produced that famous specific for intermitting fevers known by the name of quinquina, or the Jesuits bark. The tree which produces it is about seven yards high, and the body and branches of a proportionable thickness. The Indians, in order to take off the cortex, cut down the tree, bark it, and dry the quinquina. Though there are here large forests of this tree, there is a sensible diminution of them, occasioned by the Indians not sowing the seed, those growing spontaneously being by no means equal in number to those cut down.

The jurisdiction of Loja has also a very great advantage from breeding the cochineal insect, which is reckoned of equal goodness with that of Oaxaca in New Spain: but the inhabitants are so far from applying themselves to this business so effectually as to supply the demands of trade, that they breed no more than they imagine will be sufficient for the dyers in that and the neighbouring jurisdiction of Cuenca. To this elegant and lasting

colour it is probably owing, that the carpets of Loja and the baize of Cuenca are preferred to all others.

The cochineal insect is bred on a plant called by the name of nopal, or the Indian fig tree, in Latin *opuntia maxima*. The method of planting it is by making rows of holes about half a yard deep, and about two yards distant from each other. In each of these holes is placed one or two leaves of the nopal in a flat position, and then covered with earth. This leaf soon shoots up into a single stem, which, during its growth, divides into several branches, and these successively produce fresh leaves, the largest being nearest the stem, which is full of knots, as are also the branches, and from these the leaves have their origin. The plant seldom exceeds three yards in height, its blossom is small, of a bright red, and in the shape of a bud, from the center of which proceeds the fruit. When the fig is ripe the outward skin becomes white; but the pulp is so fully impregnated with a deep red, that it tinges the urine of those who eat it; yet few fruits are more pleasant and wholesome. The cochineal was formerly imagined to be a fruit or seed of some particular plant; but it is now known to be insects which breed and are nourished on these trees, where they place their eggs among the leaves. The juice of the plant, which is their sole nourishment, is converted into their substance, which is thus rendered of a beautiful crimson colour. When the insects are at their full growth they are gathered, and put into earthen pots; but great care is necessary to prevent their getting out, as in that case great numbers would be lost. When they have been confined some time in these pots, they are killed and put in bags. The Indians have three methods of killing them, one by fire, another by the rays of the sun, and a third by hot water; and to these are owing the several gradations of the colour. The method of killing them by fire is to put them on shovels into an oven moderately heated, the fine quality of the cochineal depending on its not being over dried at the time of killing the insects. However, the best method of destroying this valuable creature seems to be by the rays of the sun. It is remarkable that this insect does not in any visible manner injure the plant, but extracts its nourishment from the most succulent juice which it sucks by means of its proboscis through the fine teguments of the leaves.

S E C T. III.

Of the Governments of Quixos, Macas, and Jaen de Bracamoros; their Situation, Climate, Extent, and Produce.

BESIDES the jurisdictions we have mentioned, there are five governments in the province of Quito; one of which is included in part of the province of Popayan, already described; we shall begin with those of Quixos, Macas, and Jaen de Bracamoros.

The two former are seated on the east side of the cordillera of the Andes. Quixos, which lies on the north, joins to the jurisdiction of Popayan, to the eastward it extends to a river named Aguarico, and on the westward it reaches to a part of the cordilleras of the Andes. The towns are here very small, and unworthy of a particular description: the principal are the cities of Archidona and Avila, whose inhabitants are obliged to be constantly on their guard against the free Indians, by whom they are surrounded, who frequently commit depredations among their houses and plantations. They compose different nations, and are so dispersed all over the country, that every village is under continual apprehensions from those that live in its neighbourhood.

The air of this country is hot and very moist, the rains are almost continual, and the country is covered with thick woods, in which are some trees of a prodigious magnitude. In the south and west part of Quixos is the cinnamon tree, a great quantity of which is cut for use in the province of Quito; but the cinnamon is inferior to that of the East Indies.

The government of Macas is bounded on the east by the government of Maynas, on the southward by that of Bracamoros, and on the westward by the east cordillera

of the Andes. The nearness of Macas to those mountains causes a sensible difference in the climate; for tho' it be also a woody country, the diversity between the two most distant seasons of the year is manifest. Thus winter begins here in April, and lasts till September; the atmosphere is then clear, the sky serene, and the earth clothed with its various beauties.

The country is very fruitful in corn; but one of the chief employments of the country people is the culture of tobacco, which, being of an excellent kind, is exported in rolls all over Peru. Sugar-canes and cotton also thrive well; but the dread of the free Indians, who have often ravaged the country, discourages them from planting more than is just sufficient for present use; they being here in the same unhappy situation as the people of Quixos, the villages having in their neighbourhood bands of Indians, who, when they imagine them to be farthest off, suddenly assault them.

Among the infinite variety of trees in this country, one of the most remarkable is the storax, the gum of which is of a most exquisite fragrance; but is scarce, the trees growing in places at some distance from the villages, and it is dangerous going to them, on account of the hatred of the free Indians to all the Spaniards, and who lie in wait for them. The same may be said with respect to some mines of ultra marine, from which very little is brought, on account of the danger, though a finer colour cannot be imagined. This territory also produces cinnamon trees, which some, who are allowed to be extremely well versed in natural history, maintain to be of a superior quality to that of the isle of Ceylon. It visibly differs from that of Quixos; but is supposed to owe its superior excellence to the trees being more fully exposed to the rays of the sun, they not being here intercepted by the foliage of any other trees. Great quantities of copal are brought from Macas, and also wild wax; but the latter is of little value.

The government, which on the south limits the jurisdiction of the audience of Quito, and follows next to Macas, is that of Jaen de Bracamoros, whose inhabitants amount to about three or four thousand, who are for the most part Mestizos, with some Indians, and but very few Spaniards.

The climate is like that of Quixos, only the rains are neither so lasting nor so violent. The soil is very fruitful in all the grain and products agreeable to the climate, and the country full of wild trees, particularly the cacao, which is produced in the greatest abundance; but though it is equal to that cultivated in plantations, it is of little use, for want of consumption; and the carriage to any distant parts would be attended with such expence as would prejudice the sale. Thus the fruit rots on the trees, or is eaten by monkeys or other animals. There are here produced vast quantities of tobacco, the inhabitants being chiefly employed in its cultivation. It is prepared by steeping it in hot mead, or decoctions of fragrant herbs, in order to improve its flavour; and being made into rolls, is sent all over Peru, and the kingdom of Chili. The country also produces a great deal of cotton, and a prodigious number of mules. In the three governments just mentioned are a great many wild beasts, which have been already described in treating of countries of a like climate; but besides these are bastard lions, bears, and the danta, an animal of the size of a bullock, and very swift; its colour is generally white, and its skin very much valued for making buff leather. It is remarkable, that in the middle of its head is a horn bending inward. These three kinds of wild beasts are unknown in the other countries of the torrid zone, and their being known here, is owing to the proximity of this government to the cordilleras of the Andes; for in those mountains they breed in a cold climate adapted to their nature, and from thence sometimes come down into this country.

Among the reptiles is the maca, a snake that has a shining spotted skin, like that of the tiger; but entirely covered with scales. It makes a most frightful appearance, its head being greatly larger than might be expected from the thickness of its body, and has two rows of teeth and fangs, like those of a large dog. The free Indians, to express their intrepidity, and to give them a more ter-

rible appearance, paint on their targets the figure of this snake; the bite of which is incurable, and wherever it has seized, it never lets go its hold.

S E C T. IV.

Of GUAYAQUIL.

Its Situation, Extent, and Climate; the prodigious Number of Muskettoes, and Rats, and the Diseases it occasions. Among its Produce are particularly described its Canes, the Vijahua, and Bejuco; and among the Animals is a large Account of the Alligator. The City of Guayaquil described, with the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants.

WE shall now describe the territory of Guayaquil, the last we have to mention in the government of Quito. It begins at Cape Passado, in the twenty-first degree south latitude, about thirty miles to the north of the bay of Manta. From this Cape it extends along the coast, including the isle of Puna, to the town of Machala, on the coast of Tumbez, where it is terminated by the jurisdiction of Piura; from whence it runs eastward, and is bounded by that of Cuenca; then turning northward, along the western skirts of the Andes, it terminates on the jurisdiction of Bamba and Chimbo; extending about sixty leagues from north to south, and forty or forty-five from east to west. The whole country is one continued plain, and in winter is entirely overflowed. It is divided into seven lieutenancies, for each of which the corregidor appoints a lieutenant, who must be confirmed by the audience of Quito.

The rainy season sets in during the month of December, sometimes at the beginning, sometimes in the middle, and in others not till the end of that month, and lasts till April or May. During this season the elements, the insects and vermin, seem joined in a league to incommode the human race. The heat is extreme, and the rains continue day and night, accompanied with frequent and dreadful tempests of thunder and lightning; the river of Guayaquil, and all those that fall into it, overflow their banks, and people are pestered with innumerable swarms of insects and vermin.

The snakes, vipers, scorpions, and scolopendra in this season, find methods of getting into the houses, to the destruction of many of the inhabitants; though they are not free from them the rest of the year, yet at this time they are far more numerous and active; so that it is necessary to examine carefully the beds, for fear they should conceal themselves in them. To avoid being tortured by the muskettoes, all persons, even the Indians and negro slaves, are obliged to have curtains to their beds: those used by the lower class of people are made of cotton, and others use white linen. Indeed the inhabitants are no where so greatly incommoded with volatile insects, as at the town of Guayaquil, where it is impossible to keep a candle burning, except in a lantern, above three or four minutes, numberless insects flying into the flame, and extinguishing it; and any person who is obliged to be near any light, is soon driven away by the infinite numbers that fill his eyes, ears, and nostrils. "These insects," says Don Antonio Ulloa, were almost insupportable to us during the short clear intervals of some nights, which we spent in making observations on the heavenly bodies. Their stings were attended with great tortures, and more than once obliged us to abandon our observations, being unable either to see or to breathe for their multitudes."

Another very great inconvenience attending the houses here, is the number of rats, every building being so infested with them, that in the evening they quit their holes, and make such a noise in running along the ceiling, and in clambering up and down the sides of the rooms and testers of the beds, as to disturb those who are not accustomed to them, and they are so little afraid of the human species, that if a candle be set down, without being in a lantern, they instantly carry it off; but as this might be attended with dreadful consequences, they are seldom put to the trial, though they take advantage of the least neglect. All these inconveniences, which seem

insupportable to strangers, and sufficient to render the country uninhabited, has little effect on the natives, who have been used to them from their infancy, and are more affected with cold on the mountains, which is scarce felt by the Europeans, than all these disagreeable circumstances.

The dry season is the least troublesome, as then both the number and activity of these vermin are diminished; the heat is then abated by the south-west and west south-west breezes, which constantly begin at noon, and continue to refresh the earth till five or six in the morning of the following day. The sky is then always serene and bright, and the gentlest showers are rarely known; but the capital advantage is the remarkable salubrity of the air in that season. The natives of the neighbouring mountains, who are inured to a cooler climate, cannot endure the air of Guayaquil, it having a natural tendency to debilitate them, and by an intemperate use of its delicious fruits, they throw themselves into intermitting fevers: these are common at Guayaquil during the winter season, and are here particularly painful and dangerous. The black vomit is also dangerous in this country. The natives are likewise very subject to cataracts and other diseases of the eye, which often cause a total blindness.

Among the vegetable productions, we shall mention the canes, the vijahua, and the bejuco.

The canes are remarkable both for their length, their thickness, and the water contained in their tubes. Their usual length is between twelve and sixteen yards, and though there is some difference in their size, the largest do not exceed six inches in diameter. The wood or side of the tube is about six lines in thickness, so that when the cane is opened, it is made to form a board near a foot and a half in breadth, and hence it is not strange that houses should be built of them. From the time of their first appearance, till they attain their full perfection, many of the tubes contain a quantity of water, and what is very remarkable, at full moon, they are either quite or very nearly full, and with the decrease of the moon the water ebbs. During the decrease it appears turbid, and at the full is as clear as crystal. The water is not found in all the joints, one having water, and others not, alternately. This water is said to be an excellent preservative against the ill consequence of bruises, and is therefore drank by those who come from the mountains, where such accidents are in a manner unavoidable.

The canes being cut, are left to dry, whence they acquire such a degree of strength, as to serve either for rafters, beams, flooring, or even masts for vessels, called balzas. Ships which load with cacao are also ceiled with them, to preserve the timbers from the great heat of that fruit. They also serve as poles for litters, and for an infinite number of other uses.

The vijahua is a leaf generally five feet in length, and two and a half in breadth; growing wild, without any stem. The principal rib in the middle is near half an inch broad; but all the other parts are perfectly soft and smooth. The under-side is green, and the upper white, covered with a fine white viscid down. It is commonly used for covering houses; and serves for packing up salt, fish, and other goods, sent to the mountains, to secure them from the rain.

The bejuco is a kind of woody cordage, of which there are two sorts; one of which grows from the earth, and twines round the trees; the other strikes its root into certain trees, and from thence derives its nourishment. Both kinds, after growing to a great height, incline again to the earth, on which they creep, till they meet with another tree, to the top of which they climb as before, and then again renew their inclination towards the earth, and thus form a labyrinth of ligatures. Some are even seen extended, like a cord, from the top of one tree to another. They are so extraordinary flexible, that no bending or twisting can break them. The slenderest of them are between a quarter and half an inch in diameter; but the most common size is a little above half an inch: indeed there are others much thicker; but those are of little or no use, on account of the hardness, contracted in their long growth. They are chiefly used for lashing, tying, or fastening different things together; and by twist-

ing several of them in the manner of ropes, they make cables and hawsers for balzas, and small vessels; and are found by experience to last a long time in the water.

Here are thick forests of various kinds of large trees differing in foliage, the disposition of their branches, and the size of their trunks. In the level part of this woody extent are a great number of quadrupeds and birds, and among the latter are wild peacocks, bustards, pheasants, and some others, which are here so numerous, that did they not always rest on the tops of the trees, where, from their enormous height, or their being covered with leaves, they are secured from danger, a traveller with a good fowling-piece might at any time procure himself an elegant repast. These forests are, however, terribly infested with snakes. Among the monkeys is one species so very large, that when standing on their hind legs, they are little less than six feet high. They are black and in every respect very ugly, but are easily tamed.

The river Guayaquil abounds in fish of various kinds; but their increase is greatly hindered by the prodigious number of alligators, amphibious animals that live both in the rivers and adjacent plains, though they are seldom known to go far from the banks of the river. When tired with fishing, they leave the water to bask themselves in the sun, and then appear rather like rotten wood thrown ashore by the current, than living creatures; but upon perceiving any vessel near them, they immediately throw themselves into the water. They are the largest animals of the lizard kind; some of them here are of so monstrous a size, as to exceed fifteen feet in length. The head is long, turning up at the nose like the snout of a hog, and furnished with two rows of strong pointed teeth. During the time they lie basking on the shore, they keep their huge mouths wide open, till filled with muskettos, flies, and other insects, when, suddenly shutting their jaws, they swallow their prey. They generally avoid a man, and on the approach of any one, plunge into the water. The whole body of the alligator is covered with scales, impenetrable to a musket ball, unless it happens to hit him in the belly, which is the only part vulnerable. This is an oviparous animal.

The female makes a large hole in the sand near the brink of a river, and in it deposits her eggs, which are almost as large as those of an ostrich, and as white as those of a hen; but much more solid. She generally lays about a hundred, continuing in the same place till they are all deposited, which is about a day or two. She not only covers them with sand, but, the better to conceal them, rolls herself over them, even to a considerable distance, and then returns to the water, till natural instinct informs her, that it is time to deliver her young from their confinement. When she comes to the spot, she is followed by the male; she then tears up the sand, and begins breaking the eggs, with such care, that scarce a single one is injured, and a whole swarm of little alligators are seen crawling about. She then takes them on her neck and back, to remove them into the water; but the watchful gallinazos seize this opportunity to deprive her of some; and even the male alligator, which indeed comes for no other purpose, devours what he can, till the female has reached the water with the few remaining; and then all that fall from her back, and do not swim, she herself eats, whence of this formidable brood happily no more than four or five escape.

The gallinazos, which we have described in treating of Carthagena, contribute greatly to prevent the increase of the alligators, they being extremely fond of their eggs, in finding which they make use of extraordinary address. These birds often make it their sole business to watch the females during the dry season, when they lay their eggs, the sides of the river not being then covered with water. The gallinazo conceals itself among the branches of some tree, where it silently watches the female alligator, till she has laid her eggs and retires; but she is no sooner under the water, than the gallinazo darts down on the repository, and with its beak, claws, and wings, tears up the sand, and devours the eggs, leaving only the shells. This banquet would richly reward its long patience, did not a multitude of gallinazos from all parts join the fortunate discoverer, and share in the spoil. These eggs, when

when fresh, are also eat by the mulattoes. Thus Providence diminishes the number of those destructive animals, which would soon increase so fast, that neither the river nor the neighbouring fields would be sufficient to contain them; for as it is, their numbers can hardly be imagined.

The alligators are not wanting in address in catching the fish, which is their principal food: eight or ten, as it were by agreement, draw up at the mouth of a river or creek, while others go a considerable distance up the river, and chase the fish downwards, by which none of any bigness escape them. The alligators being unable to eat under water, on seizing a fish, raise their head above the surface, and thus devour them; and, after satisfying their appetite, retire to rest on the banks. When they cannot find fish, they betake themselves to the meadows on the banks of the river, and devour colts and calves. This is done in the night, that they may surprise them in their sleep; and it is observed, that those alligators that have once tasted flesh, become so fond of it, as never to feed upon fish, but in cases of necessity. There are indeed many melancholy instances of their devouring the human species, especially children who are out of doors in the dark; and these voracious animals having once seized them in their mouths, make sure of their prey, against that assistance which the cries of the victim constantly bring, by hastening into the water, where they immediately drown it, and then rising to the surface devour it at leisure. The boatmen, by inconsiderately sleeping with one of their arms or legs over the side of a boat, have been seized by these animals, and the whole body drawn into the water. Those alligators who have once feasted on human flesh, are known to be the most dangerous, and entertain an insatiable desire of repeating the same delicious repast.

The inhabitants of the places where they abound, are very industrious in destroying them. Their usual method is by a piece of hard wood, sharpened at both ends, and baited with the lungs of some animal; this they fasten to a thong, the end of which is secured on the shore. The alligator, on seeing the lungs floating on the water, snaps at the bait, and both points of the wood entering his jaws, he is dragged on shore with his mouth wide open: he then endeavours violently to rescue himself, while the Indians bait him, knowing the greatest damage he could do them is to throw down such as, for want of care or agility, do not keep out of his reach.

We shall now describe the city of Guayaquil, which is seated on the west bank of the river of the same name, in the second degree eleven minutes twenty-one seconds of south latitude. The old city is built on the side of a mountain, and the new at the distance of several hundred yards; and, for preserving a communication between them, a bridge of timber has been erected of about six hundred yards in length. The city is of considerable extent, it stretching along the bank of the river from the lower part of the old town to the upper part of the new, near a mile and a half; but it is not of a proportionable breadth, every person being fond of having a house near the river; both on account of the refreshing winds, which in the rainy season are more eagerly coveted, as they are then very rare, and for the amusements the river affords. The houses of both towns are built of wood, and many of them covered with tiles, though the greatest part of those in the old town are only thatched. They are, however, large and handsome, and have one story above the ground-floor. In the front are shops of all kinds, and before them are generally spacious porticos, which, during the rainy seasons, are the only places where you can walk, the streets being utterly impassable. As a precaution against fire the kitchens stand twelve or fifteen paces from the houses, to which they are joined by a long open gallery resembling a bridge; but so slightly built, that it is instantly demolished on the least appearance of fire in the kitchen, by which means the house is preserved. Persons of rank and fortune live in the upper apartments, and the ground-floor is let to strangers who come to trade, or pass through the city with their goods.

The ground on which the new city is built, and the savannahs in its neighbourhood, are not to be travelled over, either on foot or on horseback, during the rainy

season; for it is not only of a spongy chalk, but is every where so level, that there is no declivity for carrying off the water, whence on the first rain it becomes one general slough. In that season the streets of the city are crossed by very large planks, but these soon becoming slippery, occasion frequent falls into the water, which at the return of the dry season is soon exhaled, and all the country rendered sufficiently dry for travelling.

The city is defended by three forts, two on the river, and one behind it, all built after the modern method of fortification. These forts are built of large pieces of a very hard wood, which retains its solidity either under the water or in the mud. All the churches and convents are likewise of wood, except that of St. Domingo in the old town, which is of stone; the great solidity of the ground in that part being sufficient to support heavy buildings. Here is a parish-church, and also a convent belonging to the Augustines, and another to the Franciscans, with a college of Jesuits; but the monks are not very numerous on account of the smallness of their revenues. Here is also an hospital.

The city and its jurisdiction are under a corregidor, who is nominated by the king, and holds his office during five years. Though he is subordinate to the president and audience of Quito, he appoints the deputies in the several departments under his jurisdiction; and the police and civil government are under ordinary alcaldes and regidores. The revenue is under the management of a treasurer and an accomptant, who receive the tributes of the Indians, the duties on imports and exports, and the taxes on the commodities either consumed in the city or carried through it. The ecclesiastical government is lodged in the bishop of Quito's vicar, who is generally priest of the town.

Guayaquil contains as many inhabitants in proportion to its extent as any Spanish city in America; the continual resort of strangers greatly increase the number, which is computed at twenty thousand. The inhabitants capable of bearing arms are divided into companies of militia according to their rank and complexion, and are commanded by officers chosen by themselves, the corregidor being commander in chief.

Though the heat is here equal to that of Panama or Carthagena, all the natives, except those born from a mixture of blood, are fresh-coloured, and are esteemed the handsomest people not only in the province of Quito, but in all Peru. It is remarkable that the natives, notwithstanding the heat of the climate, are not tawny, and that though the Spaniards have not naturally so fair a complexion as the northern nations, their children born here of Spanish women are very fair; a phenomenon which has yet never been fully accounted for. To these advantages it must be added, that the inhabitants are greatly distinguished by their elegance and politeness.

In this city necessity has introduced several kinds of bread, to supply the want of wheat; and the most usual is unripe plantanes cut into slices, roasted, and served up as bread, to which this is even preferred by the Europeans themselves, the wheat-bread being here badly made, and this is far from being unpalatable.

In the dry season good water is very scarce at Guayaquil, there being none at a less distance than four or five leagues up the river. In dressing their food they commonly use beef-suet instead of butter, but it has the smell and taste of tallow, which renders their dishes extremely nauseous to strangers; and, what is little better, they are all seasoned with Guinea pepper, which they think the finest ingredient in the world for giving a relish to their food, and use it in such quantities as to make the mouth in a flame.

The inhabitants of Guayaquil affect great splendor in their entertainments. The first course consists of different kinds of sweetmeats, the second of high-seasoned ragouts, and thus they continue to serve up alternately a succession of sweet and high seasoned dishes. The common drink on these occasions is brandy, cordials, and wine, of all which they drink freely during the entertainment; but the Europeans generally prefer wine. The custom of drinking punch obtains greatly among persons of distinction, who generally drink a glass of it at eleven, and another in the evening; it not only allaying the thirst,

thirst, but correcting the water, which, besides the disagreeable taste communicated to it by the heat, produces excessive perspiration; and this custom so prevails, that even the ladies punctually observe it.

With respect to the commerce of Guayaquil, it may be divided into two parts, one consisting of the products and manufactures of its jurisdiction, and the other transitory; its port being the place where the goods from the provinces of Peru and Terra Firma consigned to the mountains are landed; and, on the other hand, those from the mountains designed for these provinces are brought hither, and shipped for their respective ports.

Cacao, one of its principal products, is chiefly exported to Panama, New Spain, and Peru. Timber, which is esteemed the second article, is chiefly sent to Callao. These branches of trade are of great advantage to Guayaquil, from the prodigious quantities exported; and the trade of salt is not inferior to either, though the principal markets to which it is sent are only the inland towns in the province of Quito. To these may be added cotton, rice, and fish, both salted and dried, horned cattle, mules and colts, tobacco, wax, Guinea pepper, and Ceibo wool, which is the produce of a very high tufted tree.

The goods imported hither from Peru in return for the above-mentioned commodities, are wine, brandy, oil, and dried fruits. From Quito it receives baize, flour, bacon, hams, cheese, and other goods; from Panama European goods purchased at the fairs; from Mexico iron found in that country, but much inferior to that of Europe, naptha, tar, and cordage.

SECT. V.

Of the Customs and Manners of the Indians throughout the Audience of Quito.

THE disposition of the Indians in the province of Quito is extremely remarkable, and they appear to have no resemblance to the people found there by those who first discovered the country. They at present possess a tranquillity not to be disturbed either by fortunate or unfortunate events. In their mean apparel they are as contented as a prince clothed in the most splendid robes. They shew the same disregard to riches, and even the authority and grandeur within their reach is so little the object of their ambition, that to all appearance it seems to be the same to an Indian, whether he be created an alcalde, or obliged to perform the office of a common executioner. Among them a reciprocal esteem is neither increased nor diminished by such circumstances: the same moderation appears in their food, and they enjoy their simple diet with the same complacency as others do their well furnished tables. Nothing can move them to alter their minds, it being common for them to decline a little act of service, though offered a very considerable reward. Fear cannot stimulate, respect induce, or punishment compel them. They are indeed proof against every attempt to rouse them from their natural indolence, in which they seem to look down with contempt on the wisest of mortals.

They are in general remarkably slow. Thus in weaving carpets, curtains, quilts, and other stuffs, being unacquainted with any better method, in forming the woof they have the patience every time to count the threads one by one; so that two or three years are requisite to finish a single piece. Their sloth is so great, that scarcely any thing can induce them to work. Whatever therefore is necessary to be done is left to the Indian women, who are much more active; they spin and make the half shirts and drawers which form the only apparel of their husbands; they cook the provisions, grind barley, and brew the beer called chicha; while the husband sits squatting on his hams, the usual posture of the Indians, looking at his busy wife. The only domestic service they do, is to plough their little spot of land, which is sowed by the wife. When they are once settled in the above posture, no reward can induce them to stir; so that if a traveller has lost his way, and happens to come to one of their

cottages, they charge their wives to say that they are not at home. Should the passenger alight and enter the cottage, the Indian would still be safe; for having no light but what comes through a hole in the door, he could not be discovered; and should the stranger even see the Indian, neither entreaties nor rewards would prevail on him to stir a step with him.

In order that they may perform the works appointed by their masters, and for which they are paid, it is to little purpose to shew them their task; the master must have his eye continually upon them, for he no sooner turns his back than they leave off working. They are lively only in parties of pleasure, rejoicings, entertainments, and especially dancing; but in all these the liquor must circulate briskly, and they continue drinking till they are entirely deprived both of sense and motion. Their propensity to intemperance is so great, that the cacique and the alcalde never fail to be of the company at all entertainments, and drink like the rest till quite overcome by the chicha.

It is remarkable that the Indian women, whether maids or married, and Indian young men before they are of an age to contract matrimony, are never guilty of this vice; it being a maxim among them, that drunkenness is the privilege of none but masters of families, who, when they are unable to take care of themselves, have others to take care of them.

When they celebrate any solemnity, the person who gives the entertainment invites all his acquaintance, providing for each a jug of chicha, containing two gallons. In the court of the house, if it be a large town, or before the cottage, if in a village, a table is placed, and covered with a carpet only used on such festivals; and upon it is placed a slight repast. The women present the chicha to their husbands in calabashes, till their spirits are raised; then one plays on a pipe and tabor, while others dance. Some of the best voices among the Indian women sing songs in their own languages, and those who do not dance squat down in the usual posture till it comes to their turn. When tired with intemperance they all lie down together, without minding whether they be near the wife of another, or their own sister or daughter. These festivities sometimes continue three or four days, till the priest coming among them, throws away all the chicha, and disperses the Indians, lest they should procure more.

Their funerals are likewise solemnized with excessive drinking. The house is filled with jugs of chicha, for the solace of the mourners and other visitors; the latter even go out into the streets, and invite all of their nation who happen to pass by, to come in and drink to the honour of the deceased. This ceremony lasts four or five days, and sometimes more, strong liquor being their supreme enjoyment.

Though they are so addicted to intemperance, they cannot be charged with gaming. They seem to have no inclination for play, nor have above one kind, and that is of great antiquity. This game they call pafa, or a hundred, as he who first gets that number wins. They play with two instruments, one a spread eagle of wood, with ten holes on each side, and pegs to set up the game: the other is a die of bone cut with seven faces, one of which has a particular mark, and is called guayro. Five of the others tell according to their number, and the last is a blank. In playing they toss up the die, and the marks on the upper surface are so many gained; but the guayro goes for ten, and the like number is lost if the blank side appears. This game is peculiar to the Indians; but is little used, except at their revels.

The habitations of these Indians, like those of others we have described, consist only of a little cottage, in the middle of which is their fire-place. Here both they and the animals they breed live promiscuously. They have a particular fondness for dogs, and are never without three or four, a hog or two, and a few poultry. These, with some earthen-ware, as pots and jugs, with the cotton which their wives spin, constitute the whole inventory of their effects, except two or three sheep skins which serve them for beds. Though the Indian women breed fowl and other domestic animals in their cottages, they

never

never eat them, and even conceive such a fondness for them, that they will neither kill them with their own hands nor sell them : so that if a stranger, who is obliged to pass the night in one of their cottages, offers ever so much money for a fowl, they refuse to part with it ; and he finds himself under the necessity of killing the fowl himself, at which his landlady shrieks, dissolves in tears, and wrings her hands ; till at last, seeing there is no remedy for what is passed, she wipes her eyes, and quietly takes what the traveller offers her.

Many in their journeys take their whole family with them. The cottages are in the mean time shut up, and there being no valuable furniture to lose, a string or thong of leather serves for a lock. If their journey is to last for several days, they take their animals to the cottage of some neighbour or acquaintance : if otherwise their dogs are left guardians of the whole, and discharge their trust with such care, that they will fly at any one, except their masters, who offers to come to the cottage. It is observable that dogs bred by the Spaniards and Mestizos have such a hatred to the Indians, that if one of them approaches a house where he is not very well known, they fall upon him, and, if not called off, tear him to pieces ; for they know them at a distance by their scent : on the other hand, the dogs of Indian breed are animated with the same rage against the Spaniards and Mestizos, whom they likewise smell at a distance.

The Indians in the audience of Quito act contrary to all other nations in their marriages ; for they never make choice of a woman who has not been first known by others, which they consider as a certain sign of her having something pleasing in her. After a young man has asked the object of his affections of her father, and obtained his consent, they immediately begin to live together as man and wife, and assist the father-in-law in cultivating the land. At the end of three or four months, and frequently of a year, he leaves his bride without any ceremony ; and perhaps expostulates with his father-in-law for endeavouring to deceive him, by imposing upon him his daughter, whom no body else had thought worthy of making his bedfellow. But if nothing of this happens, after passing three or four months in this commerce, which they call *amanarse*, or to habituate oneself, they then marry. This custom is still very common, though the whole body of the clergy have used all their endeavours to put a stop to it. Accordingly they always absolve them of that sin, before they give them the nuptial benediction.

Their intrepidity shews itself upon many occasions, particularly in the alacrity and resolution with which they halter a bull at full speed, and with the same dexterity and courage they hunt the bears ; for a single Indian, with only a horse and his noose, never fails of getting the better of all the cunning and rage of this furious animal. This noose is made of cow-hide, so thin as not to be seized by the beast's paw, and at the same time strong enough not to be broke by the struggles of the bear. On their perceiving this animal they directly make towards him, whilst he rears himself up in order to seize the horse. But the Indian, being advanced within a proper distance, throws the noose about the creature's neck, and twisting the other end two or three times round the saddle, he then with surprizing celerity claps spurs to his horse, and the bear, unable to keep pace with the horse, and struggling to get free, is choaked. This achievement is looked upon as an admirable piece of courage and dexterity ; and is commonly practised in the province of Alausi, near the eastern Cordillera, where these creatures abound.

A great part of the rusticity in the minds of the Indians must be imputed to a want of culture ; for they who in some parts have enjoyed that advantage, are found to have as good rational faculties as other men ; and if they have not all the politeness of civilized nations, they at least think properly. All the Indians brought up to handicraft trades in cities and large towns are far more acute and sensible than those who have spent their lives in little villages, and many of these distinguish themselves by their genius and abilities.

S E C T. VI.

Of the CORDILLERAS of the ANDES.

The most remarkable of them with respect to their Height and Volcanoes : their Climate : a remarkable Phenomenon : the Animals found upon the Andes ; with a particular Description of the Condor : the Bridges over the Rivers in the Andes ; and the Roads over the Mountains.

WE now come to the most remarkable mountains and deserts in the Cordilleras of the Andes, near the countries last described. It has been observed, that the dependences of the jurisdictions of Quito are seated between the two Cordilleras of the Andes, and that the air is more or less cold, and the ground barren, according to the height of the mountains. These barren tracts are called deserts ; for, though all the Cordilleras are dry, some are much more so than others ; and the continual snows and frosts render some parts of them without a single plant, and consequently uninhabitable by man or beast.

Some of these mountains, which appear as if founded on others, rise to a most astonishing height, and reaching far above the clouds, are here in the midst of the torrid zone covered with perpetual snow. From barometrical experiments made on the mountain Cotopaxi, it appears that its summit is elevated six thousand two hundred and fifty-two yards above the surface of the sea, something above three geographical miles, which greatly exceeds the height of any other mountain in the known world.

Cotopaxi became a volcano at the time of the Spaniards first arrival in this country. A new eruption happened in 1743, which had been for some days preceded by a continual rumbling in its bowels : after which an aperture was made in its summit, as also three others near the middle of its declivity, at that period buried under prodigious masses of snow. The ignited substances ejected on that occasion, mixed with a considerable quantity of snow and ice, melting amidst the flames, were carried down with such amazing rapidity, that in an instant the plain from Callo to Latacunga was overflowed ; and, besides its bearing down the houses of the poor inhabitants, great numbers of people lost their lives. The river of Latacunga was the canal of this dreadful flood, till being too small for receiving the prodigious current, it overflowed the adjacent country, carried away all the buildings within its reach, and rendered the land near the town of the same name like a vast lake. The inhabitants retired to a spot of higher ground behind their town ; those parts of which that stood within the limits of the current were entirely destroyed. During three days the volcano ejected cinders, while torrents of melted ice and snow poured down its sides. The fire lasted several days longer, and was accompanied with terrible roarings of the wind, rushing through the mouths of the volcano. At last all was quiet, and neither smoke nor fire were to be seen. However, in May 1744, the flames forced a passage through several other parts on the sides of the mountain ; so that in clear nights the flames, being reflected by the transparent ice, formed a very grand and beautiful illumination. But on the thirteenth of November following it ejected such prodigious quantities of fire and ignited substances, that an inundation equal to the former soon ensued, and the inhabitants of the town of Latacunga for some time gave themselves over for lost.

The most southern mountain of the Cordilleras is that of Mecas, or Sangay, which is of a prodigious height, and the far greatest part of it covered with snow ; yet from its summit issues a continual fire, attended with explosions which are plainly heard at forty leagues distance. The country adjacent to this volcano is entirely barren, it being covered with cinders ejected from its mouth. In this mountain rises the river Sangay, which being joined by the Upano forms the Payra, a large river which discharges itself into the Marañon.

In order to convey an idea of the climate on the top of these mountains, we shall give some account of that which prevailed

prevailed on Pichincha, when Don George Juan and Don Antonio de Ulloa were stationed there in order to make their proper observations in relation to the figure of the earth, whence a judgment may be formed of the rest; the inclemency of the weather being in proportion to the height of the mountains.

Pichincha, though famous for its great height, is twelve hundred and seventy-eight yards lower than the perpendicular height of Cotopaxi, and was formerly a volcano, but the mouth on one of its sides is now covered with sand and calcined matter; so that at present neither smoke or fire issues from it. Our learned author found the cold on the top of this mountain extremely intense, the wind violent, and they were frequently involved in so thick a fog, or, in other words, a cloud, that an object at six or eight paces distance was scarcely discernible. The air grew clear by the clouds moving nearer to the surface of the earth, and on all sides surrounded the mountain to a vast distance, representing the sea with their rock standing like an island in the center. When this happened, they heard the dreadful noise of the tempests that discharged themselves on Quito, and the neighbouring country. They saw the lightning issue from the clouds, and heard the thunder roll far beneath them. While the lower parts were involved in tempests of thunder and rain, they enjoyed a delightful serenity; the wind was abated, the sky clear, and the enlivening rays of the sun moderated the severity of the cold. But when the clouds rose their thickness rendered respiration difficult; snow and hail fell continually, and the wind returned with all its violence; so that it was impossible entirely to overcome the fear of being, together with their hut, blown down the precipice, on whose edge it was built, or of being buried in it by the daily accumulations of ice and snow. Their fears were likewise increased by the fall of enormous fragments of rocks. Though the smallest crevice visible in their hut was stopped, the wind was so piercing, that it penetrated through; and though it was small, crowded with inhabitants, and had several lamps constantly burning, the cold was so great, that every one of them was obliged to have a chafing-dish of coals, and several men were constantly employed every morning to remove the snow which fell in the night. By the asperities of such a climate their feet were swelled, and so tender, that walking was attended with extreme pain, their hands covered with chilblains, and their lips so swelled and chapt, that every motion in speaking drew blood.

"There is in all this range of mountains, as far as I have travelled, says M. Bouguer, who was engaged in the same expedition as the gentlemen last mentioned, a constant inferior boundary, beyond which the snow never melts; this boundary, in the midst of the torrid zone, I found to be two thousand four hundred and thirty-four fathoms above the level of the South sea. The snow indeed falls much lower, but then it is subject to be melted the very same day; whereas above that it preserves itself,

"The gather'd winter of a thousand years."

Before we conclude this article, it will be proper to mention a phenomenon of a very extraordinary nature, which, according to the author just mentioned, appears almost every day on the top of these mountains; and though it is doubtless as ancient as the world, it was perhaps never mentioned before. The first time our authors observed it was, when they were on the top of Pambamorea, a mountain less high than Pichincha. A cloud, in which they were involved at break of day, dissipating, they saw the rising-sun extremely splendid, and the cloud passed on the other side opposite to the sun, where it appeared very thin, and was about twenty yards distant from the place where they were standing, when they saw in it, as in a looking-glass, the image of each of them; and what appeared still more extraordinary, the head was adorned with a glory like what is seen round the heads of saints in pictures, each head being as it were the center of three concentric irises, of very lively colours, and each with the same varieties as a rainbow, the red being outward; the last or most external colours of one touched the first of the following; and from some distance from them all was

a fourth arch, entirely white. These were perpendicular to the horizon; and as the person moved, the phenomenon moved also. But what was most remarkable, though there were six or seven persons, each could see none but his own shadow, because the cloud had an uneven surface. The diameter of the arches gradually altered with the ascent of the sun above the horizon, and the phenomenon itself, after continuing a long time, insensibly vanished. Don Antonio Ulloa gives a particular description of this phenomenon, and M. Bouguer, after describing it, says, "This was a kind of apotheosis to each spectator; and I cannot forbear mentioning again, that each enjoyed the secret pleasure of seeing himself adorned with all these crowns, without perceiving those of his neighbour's. I must observe, however, that this phenomenon doth not appear unless the aqueous particles of the cloud are frozen."

In those parts of the mountains that are not so high as to expose them to an eternal frost, there grows a kind of rush, and several other plants, with a few trees of one or two species, which are too barren to admit of cultivation.

Though the severity of the air on these deserts is so great, that all animals cannot live upon them, yet they afford many deer, which feed on the straw or rushes peculiar to those parts; and some of them are to be met with on the highest mountains, where the cold is intolerable to the human species. Among the rushes are also bred a great number of rabbits, and some foxes.

The only birds known in those rigorous places are partridges, which are something different from those of Europe, and nearly resemble the quail, with condors and hummers.

The condor, which is the largest bird in these parts, resembles in its colours and appearance the gallinazo, already described, and sometimes soars from the highest mountains so as to be almost out of sight. From its being seldom seen in low places, a subtle air seems to agree best with it; though some that have been tamed when young live in the villages and plantations. They are extremely carnivorous, and are frequently known to seize and fly away with lambs that feed on the heaths upon the sides of the mountains. Our author confirms this by his own observation; for seeing on a hill, adjoining to one on which he stood, a flock of sheep in great confusion, he perceived a condor flying upwards from it, with a lamb in its claws. When at some height he dropped it; but following it took it up, and let it fall a second time; and then winged its way out of sight, for fear of the Indians, who, at the cry of the boys and barkings of the dogs, were running towards the place.

In some deserts this bird is more common, and as it preys on the flocks, the Indians are not wanting in their endeavours to catch it. One of these ways is killing an old cow, or some other beast, and rubbing the flesh with the juice of some potent herbs, which they afterwards carry away, otherwise the bird would not touch the flesh; and farther, to take off the smell, bury the flesh till it becomes putrid, and then expose it; when the condors, allured by the smell of the carcase, hasten and feed on it greedily, till the herbs operating, they become senseless and incapable of motion; when the Indians, seizing this opportunity, destroy them. They likewise catch them with springs laid near some flesh; but such is the strength of this bird, that with a stroke of its wing it sometimes knocks down the man who approaches it. Their wing also serves them as a shield, by which they ward off blows, without receiving any visible hurt.

From most of these mountains flow rivers, which when too deep to be forded, bridges are made at the most frequented places. Of these there are two kinds, besides those of stone, which are very few. The most common are of wood, and the rest of bejucos, the plant we have described as used for all the purposes of ropes. With regard to the first, they choose a place where the river is very narrow, and has on each side high rocks. These only consist of four long beams laid over the precipice, forming a path about a yard and a half in breadth, just sufficient for a man to pass over on horseback; and custom

has

has rendered these so familiar, that the people pass them without any apprehensions.

The bridges of bejucos are only used where the breadth of the river will not admit of beams being laid across. In their construction several bejucos are twisted together, in order to form a large cable of the length required. Six of these are drawn from one side of the river to the other, two of which are considerably higher than the other four, and serve for rails. Across the latter are wattled cross sticks of bejucos, and the whole resembles a fishing-net, or Indian hammock stretched from one side of the river to the other. As the meshes of this net are very large, and the foot would be in danger of slipping through, they take care to strew reeds at the bottom, which serve for a floor. The reader will easily conceive, says our author, that the mere weight of this kind of basket machine, and much more the weight of a man passing over, must cause it to make a prodigious bend; and if it be considered that the passenger, when he is in the midst of his course, especially if there be a wind, is exposed to vast swingings from side to side, a bridge of this sort, sometimes more than ninety feet long, must at first sight be extremely frightful; yet the Indians pass over it running, though loaded with the baggage and pack-saddles of the mules, and laugh to see the Europeans hesitate in venturing. Most of these bridges are only for men and women, the mules swimming over the rivers; for their loading being taken off they are driven into the water near half a league above the bridge, that they may reach the opposite shore near it, they being carried so far by the rapidity of the stream.

Some rivers, instead of a bejuco bridge, are passed by means of a tarabita, a single rope made of bejucos, or thongs cut from the hide of an ox, and consisting of several strands, about six or eight inches in thickness. This rope is extended from one side of the river to the other, and fastened on each bank to strong posts. On one side it is fastened to a wheel, that it may be straightened or slackened to the degree required. From the tarabita hangs a kind of leathern hammock, capable of holding a man, suspended by a clue at each end. A rope is also fastened and extended to the sides of the river, for drawing the hammock to the side intended, which with a push at its first setting off sends it quickly to the other side. This not only serves to carry over persons and loads, but also the beasts themselves, where the rapidity of the stream, and the prodigious stones continually carried along by it, render it impracticable for them to swim over.

For carrying over the mules two tarabitas are necessary, one for each side of the river, and the ropes are much thicker and slacker. On this rope is only one clue, which is of wood, and by this the beast is suspended, he being secured with girths round the belly and neck. When this is performed the creature is shoved off, and immediately landed on the opposite side. Those that are accustomed to be conveyed over in this manner never make the least motion, but even come of themselves to have the girths fastened round them; yet it is with great difficulty they are at first brought to suffer this to be done, and when they find themselves suspended they kick and sling during their short passage.

The roads over some of these mountains are not the least of those extraordinary particulars relating to them. In many places the road is so narrow that the mules have scarce room to set their feet, and in others is a continued series of precipices. Besides, these roads are full of holes near three quarters of a yard deep, in which the mules put their fore and hind feet, so that sometimes they draw their bellies and the rider's legs along the ground. Indeed these holes serve as steps, without which the precipices would be in a great measure impassable; but should he happen to put his foot between two of these holes, or not place it right, the rider falls, and, if on the side of the precipice, inevitably perishes.

But the manner of descending seems still more dangerous. On one side are frequently steep eminences, and on the other frightful abysses; and as they generally follow the direction of the mountain, the road, instead of being on a level, forms steep eminences and declivities. The mules are sensible of the caution requisite in these

descents, for coming to the top of an eminence they stop, and having placed their fore-feet close together, place their hinder feet a little forwards, as if going to lie down. Having in this attitude taken a survey of the road, they slide down with the swiftness of a meteor. All the rider has to do is to keep himself fast in the saddle, for the least motion is sufficient to disorder the equilibrium of the mule, in which case they both unavoidably perish. His address here is extremely wonderful; for in this rapid motion, when he seems to have lost all government of himself, he follows exactly the different windings of the road, as if he had accurately settled in his mind the road he was to follow, and taken every precaution for his safety. But the longest practice of travelling these roads cannot entirely free the mules from a kind of dread, on their arriving on the top of a steep declivity; for they not only attentively view the road, but tremble and snort at the danger. If the rider inadvertently endeavours to spur them on, they continue immovable; and it is really wonderful to consider how, after having overcome the first emotions of their fear, they stretch out their fore-legs, that by preserving a proper equilibrium they may not fall, yet make with their body that gentle inclination necessary to follow the several windings of the road, and afterwards their address in stopping themselves at the end of their impetuous career.

SECT. VII.

Of the Audience of LIMA.

Its Situation, Extent, and Climate, particularly near the Capital, where the Rain, Snow, Hail, Thunder, and Lightning are unknown; but is subject to Earthquakes, some of which are described. Of the Soil and Produce. A particular Description of the City of Lima; with the Dress, Manners, Customs, and Trade of the Inhabitants.

THE next division of Peru is the audience of Lima, which is bounded on the north by Quito, on the east by the Cordillera of the Andes, on the south by the audience of Los Charcas, and on the west by the Pacific ocean, it being about seven hundred and seventy miles in length from north to south, but of an unequal breadth.

Nothing can be imagined more various than the climate and soil of this country, which in some places is exceeding hot, in others insupportably cold, and in the city of Lima, where it never rains, is always temperate. The seasons vary within the compass of a few miles, and in certain parts of the audience all the vicissitudes of weather are experienced in twenty-four hours. What is most singular is, that no rains fall or rivers flow on the sea-coasts, though they are supplied by thick fogs and dark clouds, that never condense into showers. This phenomenon has exercised the thoughts of many naturalists.

Spring begins towards the close of the year, that is towards the end of November or the beginning of December, when the vapours which fill the atmosphere during the winter subside, and the sun to the great joy of the inhabitants again appears, and the country now begins to revive, which during the absence of his rays had continued in a state of languor. This is succeeded by summer, which though hot, from the perpendicular direction of the sun's rays, is far from being insupportable, the heat, which indeed would otherwise be excessive, being moderated by the south winds, which always blow at this season, though with no great force. Winter begins at the latter end of June or the beginning of July, and continues till November or December, when the south winds begin to blow stronger, and bring the cold with them, not indeed equal to that in countries where ice and snow are known; but so keen that the light dresses are laid by, and cloth or other warm stuffs worn. During the winter the earth is covered with so thick a fog, as totally to intercept the rays of the sun, and the winds, by blowing under the shelter of this fog, retain the particles they contracted in the frozen zone. In this season only the vapours dissolve into a very small dew, which every where equally moistens the earth, by which means all the hills, which during the other parts of the year offer

offer nothing to the sight but rocks and wastes, are clothed with verdure and enamelled with flowers of the most beautiful colours. These dews never fall in such quantities as to damage the roads, or incommode the traveller; a very thin stuff will not soon be wet through; but the continuance of the mists during the whole winter, without being exhaled by the sun, render the most barren spots of this part of the country fertile.

Lima is as free from tempests as from rain; so that those of the inhabitants who have neither visited the mountains, nor travelled into other parts, are absolute strangers to thunder and lightning, and are therefore extremely terrified when they first hear the former or see the latter. But it is very remarkable, that what is here entirely unknown should be so common thirty leagues to the east of Lima, it being no farther to the mountains, where violent rains and tempests of thunder and lightning are as frequent as at Quito.

But though the capital is freed from the terror of these tempests, it is subject to what is much more dreadful. The earthquakes happen here so frequently, that the inhabitants are under continual apprehensions of being, from their suddenness and violence, buried in the ruins of their own houses: yet these earthquakes, though so sudden, have their presages, one of the principal of which is a rumbling noise in the bowels of the earth about a minute before the shocks are felt, that seems to pervade all the adjacent subterraneous parts. This is followed by dismal howlings of the dogs, which seem to perceive the approaching danger. The beasts of burthen passing the streets stop, and by a natural instinct spread open their legs, the better to secure themselves from falling. On these portents the terrified inhabitants fly from their houses into the streets with such precipitation, that if it happens in the night, they appear quite naked; fear and the urgency of the danger at once banishing all sense of decency. Thus the streets exhibit such odd and singular figures, as might afford matter of diversion, were it possible to be diverted in so terrible a moment. This sudden concourse is accompanied with the cries of children waked out of their sleep, blended with the lamentations of the women, whose agonizing prayers to the saints increase the common fear and confusion. The men are also too much affected to refrain from giving vent to their terror; so that the whole city exhibits a dreadful scene of consternation and horror.

The earthquakes that have happened at the capital are very numerous. The first since the establishment of the Spaniards was in 1582; but the damage was much less considerable than in some of the succeeding: for six years after Lima was again visited by another earthquake so dreadful, that it is still solemnly commemorated every year. In 1609 happened another, which overturned many houses. On the twenty-seventh of November, 1630, such prodigious damage was done in the city by an earthquake, that, in acknowledgement of its not having been entirely demolished, a festival on that day is annually celebrated. Twenty-four years after, on the third of November, the most stately edifices in the city, and a great number of houses, were destroyed by an earthquake; but the inhabitants retiring, few of them perished. Another dreadful one happened in 1678; but one of the most terrible was on the twenty-eighth of October, 1687. It began at four in the morning, with the destruction of many of the finest public buildings and houses, in which a great number of the inhabitants perished; but this was little more than a presage of what followed; for two hours after the shock returned with such impetuous concussions, that all was laid in ruins, and the inhabitants began to think themselves happy in being only spectators of the general devastation, and the loss of all their property. During this second shock the sea retiring considerably, and then returning in mountainous waves, entirely overwhelmed Callao and the adjacent country, together with the miserable inhabitants. From that time six earthquakes happened at Lima before that of 1746. This last was on the twenty-eighth of October at half an hour after ten at night, when the concussions began with such violence, that in little more than three minutes the greatest part, if not all the buildings in the whole city were

destroyed, burying under their ruins those inhabitants who had not made sufficient haste into the streets and squares, the only places of safety. At length the horrible effects of this first shock ceased; but the tranquillity was of short duration, the concussions swiftly succeeding each other. The fort of Callao also sunk into ruins; but what it suffered from the earthquake in its buildings was inconsiderable when compared to the dreadful catastrophe which followed; for the sea, as is usual on such occasions, receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, and suddenly turned Callao and the neighbouring country into a sea. This, however, was not perfectly performed by the first swell of the waves; for the sea retiring farther, returned still with greater impetuosity, and covered both the walls and other buildings of the place; so that what even had escaped the first, was now totally overwhelmed by those terrible mountainous waves. Twenty-three ships and vessels, great and small, were then in the harbour, nineteen of which were sunk, and the other four, among which was a frigate named *St. Fermin*, carried by the force of the waves to a considerable distance up the country. This terrible inundation extended to other parts on the coast, and several towns underwent the same fate as the city of Lima, where the number of persons who perished in the ruin of that city within two days after the earthquake began amounted, according to the bodies found, to thirteen hundred, besides the maimed and wounded, many of which lived only a short time in torture.

Though it might naturally be expected that a country where rain is seldom or never known must be entirely barren, yet the country of Lima enjoys great fertility, it producing all kinds of grain and a prodigious variety of fruit; but here industry and art supply that moisture which the clouds withhold. The ancient yncas of Peru caused small canals to be formed, in order to conduct the waters of the rivers to every part of this country, and render large fields capable of producing grain. The Spaniards finding these useful works ready executed to their hands, took care to keep them in order, and by these are watered spacious fields of barley, large meadows, plantations, vineyards, and gardens, all yielding uncommon plenty. Lima differs from Quito, where the fruits of the earth have no determined season; for here the harvest is gathered in, and the trees drop their leaves in the proper season. The blossoms have also their respective times of blowing; so that this country resembles those of the temperate zones.

The fields in the neighbourhood of Lima are chiefly sown with clover, on which feed an inconceivable number of mules and horses. The other parts of the country are taken up with plantations, among which those of the sugar-cane yield an excellent kind of sugar. The olive plantations appear like thick forests, for besides the height, magnitude, and fullness of leaves of these trees, they are never pruned, by which means their branches become so interwoven, that the light cannot penetrate through their foliage. They produce an uncommon plenty of the finest olives, which are either committed to the press for oil, or pickled, they being particularly adapted to the latter, on account of their beauty, largeness, and flavour; and their oil is much preferable to that of Spain. All the fields and plantations are cultivated by negro slaves purchased for that purpose.

The country contiguous to the city of Lima is covered with gardens that produce all the herbs and fruits known in Spain, besides those common to America, all which flourish here in an uncommon degree. The city likewise enjoys another singular advantage, the whole year being as it were summer, with regard to the plenty and freshness of the fruit, from the seasons of the year varying alternately in the district called Valles and the mountains; for when fruit-time is over in Valles, it begins on the skirts of the mountains; and the distance from Lima not exceeding twenty-five or thirty leagues, they are brought thither, and by this means the city is constantly supplied with fruit, except a few, as grapes, melons, and water-melons, which requiring a hot climate do not come to perfection in the mountains. The grapes at Lima are of

various kinds, and among them one species called the Italian, are very large and delicious. The vines extend themselves on the surface of the earth, which is either stony or full of sand. These vines are pruned and watered at proper times, and without any other care thrive remarkably.

Besides the orchards, fields, and gardens, with which the country is delightfully variegated, there are other parts where nature spontaneously furnishes beautiful prospects for the inhabitants, and plenty of excellent food for their cattle, particularly the hills of St. Christopher and Amancaes, whose perpetual verdure, diversified in spring with elegant flowers, seems to invite the neighbouring inhabitants to a nearer enjoyment of the beauties it presents at a distance to their view. The parts in the neighbourhood of the city, to the extent of six or eight leagues, offer the like entertainment, and accordingly many families resort thither for change of air and rural amusements.

After giving this account of the climate and produce of this country, it ought not to be omitted, that though the summer here is pretty warm, yet venomous creatures are unknown, and the same may be said of the territory called Valles, though here are some ports, as Tumbes and Piura, where the heat is almost as great as that of Guayaquil. This singularity can therefore proceed from no other cause than the natural drought of the climate.

We shall now give a description of the city of Lima, also called Los Reyes, or the city of the Kings, as it appeared before the dreadful calamity in 1746. It is seated in the spacious and delightful valley of Rimac, in the twelfth degree two minutes thirty-one seconds south latitude, and in the seventy sixth degree west longitude, in one of the most advantageous situations that can be imagined; for being in the center of that spacious valley, it commands the whole without any difficulty. The river Rimac washes the walls of the city, and when not increased by the torrents from the mountains, is easily forded; but as it is at other times deep and rapid, a very elegant and spacious stone bridge was built over it, having at one end a very fine grate, which formed the entrance into the city, and led to the grand square, which was very large and finely ornamented, having in the center a fountain, in which was a statue of Fame in bronze, ejecting water through her trumpet, and through the mouths of eight lions surrounding the statue. The east side of the square contains the cathedral and archiepiscopal palace, fronted with free-stone, and adorned with columns and pilasters. On the north side was the viceroy's palace, in which were the several courts of justice, the offices of the revenue, and the state prison. On the west side of the square, facing the cathedral, were the council-house and the city prison. The south side was filled with private houses, which, like the others in the city, had only one story; but the fronts being of stone, their uniformity, porticos, and elegance, were great embellishments to the square.

The city was of a triangular form; the base, extending along the banks of the river, was about two miles in length, and its greatest breadth from north to south, from the bridge to the opposite angle, a thousand and eighty fathoms. It was surrounded with a brick wall, flanked with thirty-four bastions; but without platforms and embrasures, and had seven gates and three posterns.

On the opposite side of the river was a suburb called St. Lazaro, all the streets of which were broad, and ran parallel from north to south and from east to west, forming squares of houses a hundred and fifty yards in front. The streets were paved, and along them ran streams of water conducted from the river, a little above the city; and, being arched over, contributed to its cleanliness. The houses were commodious, and made a good appearance; but were for the most part low, that they might bear the shock of earthquakes; the principal parts were of wood mortised into the rafters of the roof, and the walls lined both within and without with wild cane or osiers. These last were plastered over with clay and white-washed; but the fronts were painted in imitation of free-stone. They had cornices and porticos also painted of a stone-colour. The roofs were flat, and covered only so far as was necessary to keep out the wind and intercept the rays of the sun, a slender covering, but suf-

ficient in a country where there was no danger of rain. Within the walls were many fruit and kitchen-gardens, and most of the principal houses had pleasure-gardens behind them.

The city had five parish-churches, and two chapels of ease, with a parish of Indians under the care of Jesuits. The convents were very numerous, there being four of Dominicans, three of Franciscans, three of the order of St. Augustine, three belonging to the order of Mercy, and the Jesuits had six colleges. There were likewise a monastery of the order of St. Benedict, a convent called Nuestra Señora de la Buena Muerte, and a convent of St. Francis de Paula; with fourteen nunneries, twelve hospitals, an orphan house, and other public buildings.

All the churches, both conventual and parochial, and also the chapels, were large; they were built partly of stone, and adorned with paintings and other decorations of great value, particularly the cathedral and the churches of the Jesuits, the fathers of Mercy, St. Dominic, St. Francis, and that of St. Augustine, were so splendid as to surpass description. The riches and pomp of the city, especially on solemn festivals, were astonishing. The altars, from the very bases to the borders of the paintings, were covered with massy silver wrought into various ornaments. The walls of the churches were hung with velvet, or tapestry of equal value, adorned with gold and silver fringes, all which in this country are remarkably dear, and on these were suspended pieces of plate in various figures. If the eye was directed from the pillars, walls, and ceiling to the lower part of the church, it was equally dazzled with glittering objects, among which were candlesticks of massy silver, six or seven feet high, placed in two rows along the nave of the church, embossed tables of the same metal, and in the intervals between them pedestals, on which stood statues of angels. Such immense riches were bestowed on the body of the church; but those immediately used in divine worship, as the sacred vessels, the chalices, ostensoriums, &c. were much more valuable, since an emulation between the several churches subsisted, each endeavouring to procure the most valuable. In these the gold was covered with diamonds, pearls, rubies, and sapphires, so as to dazzle the eyes of the spectators. The gold and silver stuffs, fringes, laces, &c. for vestments and other decorations were always the richest and most valuable of those brought over by the register ships, and every thing employed in ornamenting the churches was the richest of the kind possible to be procured.

The principal convents were very large, with convenient and many apartments. The roofs of many of the churches were arched; the frontispieces and principal gates had a majestic appearance, and the columns, friezes, statues, and cornices were of wood finely carved, and not to be distinguished from stone. The churches were decorated with small cupolas; the towers were of stone from the foundation to the height of about eight or ten feet, and from thence to the roof of brick; but the remainder of wood, painted of a free-stone colour, terminating in a statue of the saint to which the church was dedicated, and these were hung with very tunable bells.

Thus splendid was the city of Lima before the last dreadful earthquake, in which every building was levelled with the ground; and how far they have recovered from that dreadful calamity it is impossible to determine, since the authors who have best described that country wrote at the time of its destruction, and no later pen has given us any account how far they have recovered their former splendor.

The university made a stately appearance, and had a large square, encompassed by a handsome piazza. There the genius of the people is cultivated in that species of divine and human knowledge in repute in Old Spain. The Aristotelian and old school philosophy still maintain their ground; so that the inhabitants are much more indebted to the kind gifts of nature for any extraordinary exertions of genius, than to culture and education; and their little progress in useful learning appears to be owing rather to the want of proper instruction than of talents.

The viceroy of Lima usually resides in that city; his government is triennial; he enjoys all the pomp and pre-

prerogatives of royalty, and is absolute in all affairs, whether military, civil, criminal, or relating to the revenue. Under him are officers and tribunals for executing the several departments of government, and he fills up all vacant posts. For the security of his person he has a body of guards of a hundred and sixty horse, under the command of a captain and lieutenant, all in a blue uniform richly laced with silver: a body of fifty halberdiers who do duty in the rooms leading to the royal audience-chamber, who have waistcoats of crimson velvet, with a broad gold lace: besides these, there is another guard within the palace, consisting of a detachment from the garrison at Callao. All these are occasionally employed in executing the viceroy's orders, and enforcing the decrees of the tribunals, after their having received his assent. The viceroy, besides assisting at the courts of justice, and the councils relating to the finances and war, gives daily audience to all ranks of people; for which purpose the palace is furnished with three very grand and spacious rooms; in the first of which he receives deputations from the Indians and different casts: in the second he gives audience to the Spaniards; and in the third receives all those ladies who desire a private audience.

The viceroy has an annual salary of seven thousand one hundred and sixty-seven pounds sterling, besides his lawful perquisites, which amount to three times that sum. It is said that he can raise a hundred and twenty thousand horse and foot within his jurisdiction; but it is acknowledged that he cannot arm a fifth part of the number. The garrison of Lima is composed of militia, fourteen companies of which entirely consist of Spanish infantry, seven companies of the corporation of commerce, eight companies of Indians, and six companies of mulattoes, with ten troops of Spanish horse, all forming a body of forty thousand able-bodied but ill-disciplined troops.

The forms of government are conducted with the greatest regularity, and while every thing appears to be managed with the most scrupulous justice, it flows entirely from the pleasure of the court. The affairs relative to the cabinet are dispatched by a secretary of state, with an assistant; and from this office orders are received for passports, which must be obtained from every corregidor within his jurisdiction. The secretary, with the viceroy's approbation, fills all juridical employments for the term of two years.

Causes relating to equity are tried in the court called Audiencia, from the decrees of which there is no appeal to the council of the Indies, except in cases of the most notorious injustice. This tribunal, which is the supreme court at Lima, is composed of eight auditors, and a fiscal for civil affairs. It is held in the viceroy's palace, in three different saloons, the deliberations being held in one, and the causes tried either publicly or privately in the two others.

The next is a chamber of accounts, which consists of a commissioner, five chief accountants, and two doctors, with inferior officers belonging to each class. Here the corregidores entrusted with the public revenue pass their accounts, and here also the distribution and management of the royal revenue are regulated.

Within the palace is also the royal treasury, under the direction of an accountant and agent, who superintend his majesty's revenue within the jurisdiction of the audience of Lima.

The magistracy consists of regidores, or aldermen, *alfarez real*, or sheriffs, two *alcaldes*, or royal judges; all of whom are noblemen of the first distinction. These have the direction of the police, and the ordinary administration of justice. The jurisdiction of the corregidor here only extends to the Indians.

One of the most useful institutions, when justly administered, is the court for the effects of deceased persons, which takes charge of all the goods of people dying intestate, and inspects the conduct of those intrusted with the effects of other persons. It consists of a judge, a counsellor, and an accountant.

The next is the board of trade and commerce, composed of a president and two consuls, who preside over every thing relating to trade, decide all commercial dis-

putes, and are governed by the same rules as the consuls at Cadiz and Bilbao.

The tribunal of the inquisition is composed of two inquisitors and a fiscal, who, like the subordinate officers, are nominated by the inquisitor-general, and in cases of a vacancy filled by the supreme council of the inquisition. This court is only adapted to inspire horror, and gain universal detestation.

The inhabitants of Lima are composed of Spaniards, negroes, Indians, *Mestizos*, and other casts proceeding from the mixture of all three. The Spanish families are very numerous; Lima, according to the lowest computation, containing sixteen or eighteen thousand whites. Among these are reckoned a third or fourth part of the most distinguished nobility of Peru, in which number are included no less than forty-five counts and marquises. The number of knights belonging to the several military orders is also very considerable. Besides these there are twenty-four gentlemen of large estates; but without titles, one of whom traces his descent from the ancient *yncas* of Peru, and to this family the kings of Spain have been pleased to grant several distinguished honours and privileges.

Those who make the greatest figure have a multitude of slaves and other domestics, and keep coaches; while others are content with having a chaise, and these are so common that no family of any substance is without one. Indeed they are no where more necessary, for the numberless droves of mules continually passing through Lima, cover the streets with their dung, which being soon dried by the sun and wind, turns to a nauseous dust scarce supportable to those who walk on foot. These chaises which are drawn by a mule, and guided by a driver, have only two wheels, with two seats opposite to each other; so that on occasion they will hold four persons; but though they are very slight and airy, yet on account of the gildings and other decorations, sometimes cost eight hundred or a thousand crowns. The number of them is said to amount to five or six thousand.

Commerce is so far from being considered as a disgrace at Lima, that the greatest fortunes have been raised by it; and those who have not a sufficient estate, are here despised, if through indolence or neglect they have not recourse to it for improving their fortunes; for a royal proclamation has removed all the prejudices of the Spaniards against trade, by wisely declaring, that commerce in the Indies should not exclude from nobility or the military orders.

The negroes, mulattoes, and their descendants, form the principal part of the inhabitants, and of these are most of the mechanics; though here the Europeans also follow the same employments; for gain being here the universal passion, the inhabitants pursue it by means of any trade, none of which are here despised as at Quito, on account of their being followed by mulattoes.

The third and last class of inhabitants are the Indians and *Mestizos*, who are few in proportion to the largeness of the city, and the multitude of the second class. They are chiefly employed in agriculture, in making earthen ware, and bringing all kinds of provisions to market; the domestic services being chiefly performed by negroes and mulattoes.

The dress of the men in general differs but little from that worn in Spain; nor is there much distinction between the several classes; for here every one is allowed to wear whatever he can purchase: so that it is not uncommon to see a mulatto, or any other mechanic, dressed in a rich tissue. They are all fond of fine cloaths; and vanity and ostentation being under no restraint, they are extremely lavish in this article: but the dress of the men is greatly exceeded by that of the women, who in the choice of their laces carry their taste to a prodigious excess; nor is this confined to persons of quality; but has spread through all ranks, except the lowest class of negroes. These laces must be all made in Flanders, no woman of rank condescending to look on any other.

The dress of the ladies consists of a pair of shoes, stockings, a shift, a dimity-petticoat, an open petticoat, and a jacket, which in summer is of linen, and in winter of a beautiful stuff. To this some add a mantelet, that the former

former may hang loose. From the under-petticoat, which reaches no lower than the calf of the leg; hangs a border of very fine lace, through which the ends of the garters are discovered, embroidered with gold or silver, and sometimes set with pearls. The upper petticoat, which is of velvet, or some rich stuff, is fringed all round, and adorned all over with fringe, lace, or embroidery. The shift sleeves, which are a yard and a half in length, and two in width, when worn for ornament, are covered with lace in such a manner as to render the whole truly elegant. Over the shift is worn the jacket, the sleeves of which are excessively large, of a circular figure, and consist of rows of lace, or slips of cambric with lace disposed between each. The body of the jacket is tied on the shoulders with ribbons fastened to the back of the stays, and its round sleeves, being tucked up to the shoulders, form, with those of the shift, what may be termed four wings. If the jacket be not buttoned or clasped before, it is fastened on their shoulders. In summer they have a kind of veil of the finest cambric or lawn, richly laced; but in winter the veil worn in their houses is of baize, which, when they go abroad full dressed, is adorned like the sleeves. Over the petticoat is an apron of the same stuff as the sleeves of the jacket, hanging down to the bottom of it. In short, so expensive are they, that the marriage shift alone frequently costs a thousand crowns, and sometimes more.

The women value themselves extremely on the size of their feet, a small foot being esteemed one of their chief beauties; and therefore from their infancy they are accustomed to wear straight shoes, that their feet may not be suffered to grow beyond their proper size: some of them do not exceed five inches and a half, or six inches in length. Their shoes have little or no sole, one piece serving both for that and the upper leather, and are of an equal breadth and roundness at the toe and heel, so as to form a long figure of eight; but the foot not complying with this figure, brings it to a more natural shape. These shoes are always fastened with diamond buckles, or something very brilliant in proportion to the ability of the wearer; but these are worn less for use than for ornament; for they are made in such a manner, that they never loosen of themselves, nor do the buckles prevent their being taken off. They are also fond of white silk stockings, which are made extremely thin, the better to shew the shape of the leg, the greatest part of which is exposed to view.

The reader will conceive a still higher idea of their magnificence, when he is informed of the ornaments with which they are adorned in their visits, and upon public occasions. Their hair, which is naturally black, and capable of reaching below the waist, they dispose in a very graceful manner. They tie it up behind in six braided locks, through which is inserted a gold bodkin, a little bent, with a cluster of diamonds at each end, and on this the locks are suspended, so as just to touch the shoulders. On the front and upper-part of the head, they wear diamond egrets, and the hair is formed into little curls hanging from the fore-head to the middle of the ear, with a large black patch of velvet on each temple. Their earrings are of brilliants, intermixed with tufts of black silk covered with pearls; and besides their necklaces, they also wear about their neck rosaries, the beads of which are of pearls, either separate or set in clusters, to the size of a large filbert.

Besides their diamond rings, necklaces, girdles, and bracelets, all very curious, both with regard to water and size, many ladies wear a round jewel enriched with diamonds suspended from their girdle, and much more superb than their other ornaments. In short, a lady thus covered with lace, instead of linen, and glittering from head to foot with jewels, is supposed to be dressed at the expence of no less than thirty or forty thousand crowns; yet the small value they seem to set upon them, by wearing them in the most careless manner upon all occasions, is really surprising, since by this means they bring upon themselves fresh expences in repairing the old or purchasing new jewels, especially pearls, which are liable to be damaged.

The women of Lima are generally of a middling stature, handsome, genteel, and have a remarkable lustre and

dignity in their eyes. Their personal charms are said to be heightened by those of the mind; for they have clear and comprehensive intellects, an easiness of behaviour so well tempered, that while it invites love, it commands respect: the charms of their conversation are beyond expression; their ideas just, and their manners inimitably graceful. But they are so excessively fond of perfumes, that they always carry ambergrise about them; and not content with the natural fragrantcy of flowers, of which they are also extremely fond, they scatter perfumes even on their nosegays. The most beautiful flowers they place in their hair, and others which are most valuable for their odour, they stick in their sleeves. Hence the effluvia issuing from these ladies, it may be easily imagined, reach to no inconsiderable distance.

The lower class of women, even to the very negroes, endeavour, according to their abilities, to imitate their superiors, not only in the fashion of the dress, but in its richness. Their linen is always starched to a great degree, in order to display the costly patterns of their laces, and they give themselves the pain of pinching up their feet in little shoes, in order to imitate the ladies in the smallness of their feet. Their next care, which is indeed much more commendable, is cleanliness, which is seen in the uncommon neatness of their houses.

They are naturally gay, sprightly, and jocular, without levity; remarkably fond of music; so that even among the lowest you are entertained with agreeable songs; for they have in general good voices. They are very fond of balls, where they distinguish themselves by the gracefulness and agility of their motions.

The manners and dispositions of the nobility correspond with their rank and fortune; they are extremely courteous to strangers, who are charmed with their probity, their politeness, candour and magnificence. Though the natives of an inferior rank have too great a share of pride, they do not want docility; they instantly shew their reluctance to a command given with haughtiness; but when delivered with mildness and affability, are equally obsequious and submissive. They are charmed with gentleness of manners, and a few instances of kindness make a lasting impression on their minds; but the mulattoes, being less civilized, are haughty, turbulent, and quarrelsome.

The distempers most common at Lima, are malignant, intermitting, and catarrhus fevers, pleurisies, constipations, and convulsions. These last are divided into two kinds, common or partial, and malignant. They both come when nature is struggling in the crisis of some acute distemper; but those afflicted with the former often recover, tho' the greater part die on the third or fourth day; while those who have the misfortune of being attacked by the latter, sink under it in two or three days. Both are attended with insupportable pains; so that the groaning patient cannot be moved without inconceivable tortures, even from one side to the other. The throat is so contracted, that nothing can be conveyed into the stomach. The jaws are also sometimes so closely shut that it is impossible to open them. Thus the miserable patient lies without motion, and tortured in every part of his body. The malignant or arched spasm is even in the first stage so violent as to cause a contraction of the nerves of the vertebræ, from the brain downwards, which with all the muscles become more and more constricted all over the body, till it is drawn backward in the form of an arch, and all the joints dislocated.

The women of Lima are subject to a cancer in the matrix, which is extremely painful, very contagious, and almost incurable. Slow and hectic fevers also greatly prevail here, and the venereal disease is as common as in any other part of Spanish America, few being entirely free from it.

We shall now consider the commerce of Lima, which is the general emporium of trade of every kind, the center of the products and manufactures of other provinces, together with those of Europe imported by the galleons, and the staple of the whole kingdom. All the wealth of the southern provinces pours into this capital, and is discharged into the fleet, which sails with the galleons from Callao to Panama. At the head of this commerce is the tribunal del Consulado, already described, which appoints

commissaries to reside in the other cities of its dependence all over Peru. When commodities arrive at Lima, the merchants remit to their correspondents such goods as have been bespoke, reserving the rest in ware-houses, to dispose of on their own account to the traders who then resort to Lima. The produce of the sales in the interior country is sent to Lima in bars of silver, and a kind of amalgama of mercury and silver dust, which is coined in the mint of this city. The remittances sent to Lima during the interval between the flotillas, are expended in the manufactures of the country, great quantities of which come from the province of Quito, and the consumption is very large; they being worn by all the lower class of people, who cannot afford to purchase European stuffs. Lima has also its particular trade with the kingdoms both of North and South America. The most considerable commodity imported from the former is snuff, brought from the Havanna to Mexico, from thence transported to Lima, and diffused by the merchants of this city all over the province of Peru. Those who deal in this merchandize never engage in any other branch of commerce, except in the sale of perfumes, porcelain, ambergrise, and musk. From New Spain, Lima receives tar, naptha, indigo, and iron; from Terra Firma is imported leaf tobacco, which is greatly used by putting a small roll in the mouth called a *limpian*, both by the gentlemen and ladies, as well as by the vulgar; from Terra Firma are also imported pearls, and a few other articles. The timber used in building houses, ships, and boats, is brought from Guayaquil, together with cacao. The coasts of Nasca and Pisco send to Lima raisins, olives, wine, brandy, and oil; and the kingdom of Chili flour, wheat, dried fruits, wine, lard, leather, cordage, and some gold. Copper and tin are brought from Coquimbo; and from the mountains of Caxamarca and Chacapoyas, are brought a sort of canvas made of cotton for sails, &c. From the southern provinces are sent Vicuna wool for making hats, and some stuffs of a peculiar fineness; and lastly from Paraguay is sent the herb called by that name, of which there is an amazing consumption.

Thus this city is the emporium to which people resort from all quarters, and trade is in a constant circulation. The inhabitants of Lima are even said to have a natural disposition for commerce, and the city may be considered as an academy to which great numbers resort to perfect themselves in the various arts of trade. They penetrate into the designs of the seller, and artfully draw the purchaser into their own views. They have besides a remarkable talent of persuasion, at the same time that they are incapable of being persuaded. They affect to flight what they are most desirous of purchasing, and by that means frequently make very advantageous bargains, which none can obtain from them. However, notwithstanding these mean finesses in buying and selling, for which they are particularly distinguished, none are more punctual in performing their contracts.

S E C T. VIII.

Of the other principal Towns in the Audience of Lima, namely, Callao, Truxillo, Guamanga, Cusco, and Arequipa.

CALLAO is the port of Lima, from which it is five miles distance, and extends along the sea-coast on a low flat point of land. The Spaniards have no harbour equal to this in the South-sea, for beauty, security, and convenience; for the largest vessels may lie with perfect safety in the road, the water being extremely deep, and the port sheltered from the winds by the island of St. Laurence, which also breaks the surges rolling from the south-west. The town from the sea makes a tolerable figure, it having several public edifices; and besides the churches there are five monasteries, though according to some authors the inhabitants do not exceed four or five hundred. The government has expended large sums of money in giving this important harbour all the advantages of strength that it was thought art could bestow. Hence that town is considered in Spain as almost impregnable, though in fact both the garrison and fortifications are very inconsiderable. The latter consisted of an inclosure on the

land side, flanked by ten bastions, and several redans and plain bastions on the edge of the sea, with four strong batteries to command the port and road; but these being in a manner demolished in the last great earthquake, have never since been thoroughly repaired, the money appropriated by the government having been expended in other purposes, more agreeable to the viceroy of Peru. It is also reported, that his Catholic majesty is annually charged with large sums for the garrison, fortifications, and the men of war supposed to lie in the harbour; yet such is the integrity of the royal offices there, that the soldiers are hardly sufficient to mount guard; the walls are in many places in ruins, and the ships could not be fitted for sea in the space of several months.

A judgment may be formed of the importance of this harbour from what has been said of the commerce of Lima chiefly carried on by this channel. Two flotas annually sail from hence, one for Arica, the other from Panama; the former about the close of February, which having received the silver sent from Potosi, returns in March. In the beginning of May the flota sails from Panama with all the treasures of Potosi, the wealth of Chili brought by the Valparaiso fleet, and the royal revenues and merchandize brought from the most distant parts of Peru and Los Charcas. Besides these fleets there annually sail from hence two ships from Acapulco, freighted with gold and silver, and the commodities they bring back are lodged in the magazines here, and retailed to all the southern provinces of America.

This town and the city of Lima are the principal places in the archbishopric of that name. The audience of Lima is also divided into four bishoprics, Truxillo, Guamanga, Cusco, and Arequipa.

The diocese of Truxillo lies to the north of the archiepiscopal diocese of Lima, and, like all the others, is divided into several jurisdictions.

The city of Truxillo is seated in the eighth degree six minutes three seconds, south latitude, in a pleasant situation, though in a sandy soil. It is surrounded by a brick wall; and its circuit intitles it to be classed among the cities of the third order: it is situated about half a league from the sea; and six miles to the northward of it is the port of Guanchaco, the channel of its maritime commerce. The houses, which are mostly built of brick, make a handsome appearance, they being adorned with stately porticos and balconies; but are low on account of the frequent earthquakes, few having so much as one story. It is the residence of a bishop, who has a chapter, consisting of a dean, an arch-deacon, a chanter, four canons, and two prebendaries. Here is also an office of revenue with convents of several orders, a college of Jesuits, an hospital of the lady of Bethlehem, and two nunneries.

The inhabitants consist of Spaniards, Indians, and all the other casts. Among the former are several rich and distinguished families, all in general civil, friendly, and regular in their conduct. The women in their dress and customs follow nearly those of Lima. A great number of chaises are seen here; for as the sandy soil renders walking very troublesome, there are few families of any credit without one.

The valley in which Truxillo is seated is extremely fruitful, abounding with sugar-canes, maize, fruit, and plants proper for the kitchen, with vine-yards and olive-yards. The parts of the country nearest the mountains produce wheat, barley, and other grain, whence the inhabitants not only enjoy plenty of all kinds of provisions, but export considerable quantities, especially of wheat and sugar to Panama. This remarkable fertility has been improved so as to embellish the country. The city is surrounded by several groves and delightful walks of trees; the gardens are also well cultivated, and make a beautiful appearance.

The city of Guamanga, the capital of the second diocese, in the audience of Lima, is situated on the declivity of some mountains not remarkable for their height, which extending southward inclose a spacious plain to the eastward of the city, watered by a small stream. Guamanga has at least twenty noble families, who live in the center of the town in spacious houses of a considerable height, built partly of stone, and accommodated with

with extensive gardens and orchards. The cathedral is very splendid, and its chapter consists of a dean, an archdeacon, a chanter, two canons, and a penitentiary. It has a seminary for the service of the church, under the title of St. Christopher. Here are two parish-churches, one for the Spaniards, and one for the Indians, with four chapels. The city has also an university, with professors of philosophy, divinity, and law; and enjoys equal privileges with that of Lima, they being both royal foundations. Within the walls of the city are the convents of St. Dominic, St. Francis, the fathers of Mercy, St. Augustine, St. Juan de Dios, a college of Jesuits, and an hospital of St. Francis de Paula. The nunneries are of the orders of St. Clare, the Carmelites, and a religious sisterhood.

The large Indian suburbs round the city add greatly to its extent; and the houses, though low, are chiefly of stone.

In this diocese is a rich quicksilver mine, from which the inhabitants of a neighbouring town procure their whole subsistence, the coldness of the air in that place checking the growth of all kinds of grain and fruit; so that they are obliged to purchase them from their neighbours. The quicksilver mines wrought here supply all the silver mines of Peru with that necessary mineral, and, notwithstanding the prodigious quantities already extracted, no diminution is perceived.

Cusco is the most ancient city in Peru, it being of the same date with the empire of the yncas, and was founded by them as the capital of the empire. It stands in a very uneven situation on the sides of the mountains, there being no other near it more convenient. On a mountain contiguous to the north part of the city are the ruins of a famous fort built by the yncas, from whence it appears that their design was to inclose the whole mountain with a prodigious wall of such construction, as to render its ascent absolutely impracticable to an enemy, in order to prevent all approach to the city. This wall was entirely of free-stone and strongly built, some of the stones being of a prodigious magnitude.

The city of Cusco is nearly equal to that of Lima. The north and west sides are surrounded by the mountain of the Fortrefs, and on the south it borders on a plain in which are several beautiful walks. Most of the houses are of stone, covered with tiles of a lively red, that gives the houses an elegant appearance. The apartments are very spacious, and as the inhabitants are famous for their elegant taste, they are finely decorated, the mouldings of all the doors being gilt, and the other ornaments and furniture very splendid.

The cathedral nearly resembles that of Lima, though it is much smaller; it is built entirely of stone, and the architecture is even thought to exceed it. Here are also eight other parishes, with a convent of Dominicans, the principal walls of which were formerly those of the temple of the Sun, and the high altar stands in the very place where was once an image of gold of that imaginary deity. There is also a convent of Franciscans, which is the head of that order in this province. The convents of St. Augustine and the fathers of Mercy are likewise the principal of their respective orders. The Jesuits have also a college here. The convent of St. Juan de Dios, and that of the Bethlehemites, which are both very large, contain hospitals for the sick; the latter is particularly appropriated to the Indians, who are used there with great care and tenderness.

The government of the city consists of a corregidor placed at the head of the magistrates, who are the chief nobility; and out of these are annually chosen two ordinary alcaldes.

Here are three colleges: in the first, called St. Anthony, is a seminary for the service of the cathedral, in which are taught Latin, the sciences, and divinity: the second is under the direction of the Jesuits, who instruct youths of fortune: the third, called St. Francis de Borja, belongs also to the Jesuits, and is founded for the education of the sons of Indian princes. The two former confer all degrees below that of doctor, and have been erected into universities. Here is also a court of inquisition, and another of the croisade,

In this bishopric are several mines of gold and silver, that are extremely rich.

The fourth diocese of the audience of Lima is Arequipa, which contains the city of the same name, one of the largest in all Peru. It is delightfully seated in a plain; the houses are well built of stone, and are generally lofty, commodious, finely decorated on the outside, and neatly furnished within. The temperature of the air is extremely agreeable, the cold being never excessive, nor the heat troublesome; so that the fields are always clothed with verdure, and enamelled with flowers as in a perpetual spring. The inhabitants enjoy an exemption from many diseases common in this part of America, which is supposed to be in a great measure owing to their care in keeping the streets clean, by means of canals which extend to a river that runs near the city, and by which all its filth is swept away. But these advantages are allayed by its being frequently exposed to dreadful earthquakes; for by these convulsions of nature it has been four times laid in ruins. The city is, however, very populous, and among its inhabitants are many noble families. A great number of them have settled here on account of the goodness of the air, the fertility of the soil, and the convenience of commerce at the port of Arante, at twenty leagues distance. The chapter, besides the bishop, consists of a dean, an archdeacon, a chanter, a rector, and treasurer, three canons, and two prebendaries: besides the sacristy, which is served by two priests for the Spaniards, the parish of Santa Martha is appropriated to the Indian inhabitants. Here are two Franciscan convents, one of Dominicans, another of Augustines, a monastery of the fathers of Mercy, a college of Jesuits, and a convent and hospital of St. Juan de Dios, with three nunneries, and a seminary for the service of the cathedral. The civil, political, and military government of the city is executed by a corregidor, who is placed at the head of the regidores, from whom are annually chosen two ordinary alcaldes. Here is likewise an office of the revenue under the direction of a treasurer and accomptant, with commissaries of the inquisition and croisades.

In this bishopric are several gold and silver mines, and in some parts are large vineyards, from which considerable quantities of wine and brandy are made. Among the other productions is Guinea pepper, in which the jurisdiction of Arica in this diocese carries on a very advantageous trade, the annual produce of these plantations bringing in no less than sixty thousand dollars per annum. The pods of this pepper are about a quarter of a yard in length, and when gathered are dried in the sun and packed up in bags of rushes, each bag containing an aroba, or a quarter of a hundred weight, and thus they are exported to all parts. Other places of this jurisdiction are famous for vast quantities of large and excellent olives, far exceeding the finest produced in Europe, they being nearly as big as a hen's egg.

S E C T. IX.

Of the Audience of LOS CHARCAS, or LA PLATA.

Its Situation, Extent, and Climate. A particular Account of the famous Mountain of Potosi, and of the Lumps of Silver found in the Province of Carangas: with a Description of the City of Plata.

THE audience of Charcas, the last division of Peru, is equal in extent to that of Lima; but many of its parts are not so well inhabited, some being full of vast deserts and impenetrable forests, while others have extensive plains intercepted by the stupendous height of the Cordilleras; so that it is inhabited only in those parts that are free from those inconveniencies. It is bounded on the north by the diocese of Cusco, and reaches southward to Buenos Ayres; on the eastward it extends to Brasil; and on the westward reaches to the South sea, particularly at Atacama. The remainder of the province borders on the kingdom of Chili.

The climate of this country is various; on the shore it is excessive hot, and the inland parts of the country are in some places extremely cold: the soil is, however, generally

nerally fruitful in the cultivated parts, particularly in the valleys between the mountains, where it is watered by several rivers. With respect to its produce, it is chiefly famous for its gold and silver.

This audience of Charcas is divided into the archbishopric of Plata, and five bishoprics. We shall begin with the former.

The famous mountain of Potosi is known all over the commercial world for the immense quantity of silver it has produced. The discovery of this amazing treasure happened in the year 1545, by a fortuitous accident. An Indian, by some called Hualpa, and by others Gualca, pursuing some wild goats up this mountain, and coming to a very steep-part, laid hold of a shrub in order to climb it with greater celerity; but the shrub being unable to support his weight, came up by the roots, and discovered a mass of fine silver; and at the same time he found some lumps of the same metal among the clods that adhered to the roots. This Indian, who lived at Porco, hastened home with these first-fruits of his discovery, washed the silver, and made use of it, repairing when his stock was near exhausted to his perpetual fund. At length an intimate friend of his, named Guanca, observing the happy change in his circumstances, longed to know the cause, and repeated his questions with such earnestness, that Gualca revealed the secret to him. For some time they retired in concert to the mountain for fresh supplies of silver, till Gualca refusing to discover his method of purifying the metal, Guanca revealed the whole secret to his master Villarroel, a Spaniard, who also lived at Porco; and on this information went, in April 1545, to view this fortunate breach in the mountain, and the mine was instantly worked with immense advantage.

The first mine was called the Discoverer, from its discovering other sources of riches, inclosed in the bowels of this mountain; for in a few days another was found equally rich, and called the Tin Mine: since that another has been discovered, and distinguished by the name of Rica, or rich, it surpassing all the rest. It was afterwards succeeded by one named the Mendieta. These are the principal mines of Potosi; but there are several smaller crossing the mountain on all sides.

On a report of these important discoveries people from all parts repaired to Potosi, particularly from the city of Plata, which is situated about seventy-five miles from the mountain; so that at present the town of Potosi is near six miles in circuit, and inhabited by many noble families, particularly those concerned in the mines. Though the air of the mountain is so extremely cold, as to render the adjacent country remarkably barren, it producing neither corn, fruit, nor herbs; yet the town is so plentifully supplied as to enjoy an abundance of every kind, and the trade for provisions is greater here than in any other place except Lima. Some provinces send the best of their corn and fruit, others their cattle, others their manufactures, and those who trade in European goods resort to Potosi as to a market, where there is a great demand, and no want of silver to give in exchange. A Spanish author declares, from very good authority, that before the year 1638 it appeared by the public accounts, that the produce of the silver amounted to three hundred ninety-five millions six hundred and nineteen thousand dollars; which, in ninety-three years, the time it had then been discovered, amounted to forty-one millions two hundred fifty-five thousand and forty-three dollars per annum. Hence an idea may be formed of the vast trade which has for many years been carried on in this town, and is still likely to continue for a long time, its whole trade consisting in the silver extracted from this mountain; and though some diminution has been perceived in its produce, it is still very considerable.

At a small distance from Potosi are the hot medicinal baths, called Don Diego, whither some resort for health, and others for diversion.

In the province of Carangas, which is remarkably cold, is a great number of silver mines, constantly worked; among which one called Turco is very remarkable for a sort of ore termed by miners machacado, the fibres of the silver forming an admirable intertexture with the stones in which they are contained. Mines of this kind are

generally the richest. Besides these there are others in this jurisdiction; for in the barren sandy deserts extending towards the coast of the South sea are found, by digging in the sand, detached lumps of silver unmixed with any ore or stone, but what adheres to some parts of the metal. The lumps are called papas, from their being taken out of the ground in the same manner as that root. These lumps of silver are of a different composition from those found in the mines, having all the appearance of melted silver. In them the silver forms a mass, and the surface is covered over with black terrene particles, that have all the marks of calcination; but few or none of them are mixed with the silver. The size and figure of these lumps are very different, some weighing about two marks, or sixteen ounces, and some above a hundred marks. These lumps of silver are found in different parts of the same ground, though not often near one another.

We shall now give a description of the city of Plata, which received its name from the silver mines in its neighbourhood. It stands in a small plain environed by eminences, that defend it from the winds. The temperature of the air in the dry season is very mild; nor is there any considerable difference throughout the year; but in the winter, or rather the rainy season, which begins in September and continues till March, tempests of thunder and lightning are very common, and the rains of long continuance; but, during all the other parts of the year, the atmosphere is bright and serene. The houses both in the great square and those adjoining to it have one story above the ground-floor, and are covered with tiles. They are large and convenient, and have delightful gardens planted with the fruits of Europe; but water is so scarce, that they have hardly enough to supply the necessary purposes of life, the little they have being fetched from several public fountains dispersed in different parts of the city. The inhabitants, who consist of Spaniards and Indians, are said to amount to about four thousand.

The cathedral is large and divided into three isles, and is finely adorned with paintings and gildings. Its chapter consists of a dean, an archdeacon, chanter, treasurer, and rector, five canons, four prebendaries, and four minor prebendaries. The archbishop and his chancellor constitute the ecclesiastical tribunal. The parish of the cathedral is served by two priests, one for the Spaniards, and the other for the Indians. At the end of the city is St. Sebastian's church, which is appropriated solely to the Indians living within its precinct, who are thought to be about three thousand. The convents are those of the Augustines, Dominicans, Franciscans, the fathers of Mercy, and a college of Jesuits, all spacious buildings, with splendid churches. Here is also a conventual hospital of St. Juan de Dios, the expences of which are defrayed by the king; with two nunneries, one of the order of St. Clare, and the other of St. Monica. The city of La Plata has also an university dedicated to St. Francis Xavier, the chairs of which are filled indifferently either by the secular clergy, or by laymen; but the rector is always a Jesuit. Here are also two other colleges, in which lectures are read: that of St. John is under the direction of the Jesuits; while the archbishop nominates to that of St. Christopher, which is a seminary.

The chief tribunal in Plata is that of the audience, whose president has the titles of governor and captain-general of the province, exclusive of the governments of Santa Cruz de la Sierra, Tucuman, Paraguay, and Buenos Ayres, which are independent, and in military affairs absolute. It has also a fiscal, a protector-fiscal of the Indians, and two supernumerary auditors. The magistracy, or corporation, as in all the other cities of this country, consist of regidores, who are persons of the first distinction, with the corregidor at their head; and from them are annually chosen two ordinary alcaldes for maintaining order and the police. Here is also a tribunal of croisade, with a commissary, subdelegate, and other officers; a court of inquisition subordinate to that of Lima; and an office for taking care of the effects of persons dying intestate.

Two leagues from Plata runs the river Cachimayo, which has on its banks several pleasant seats of the inhabitants; and about six leagues in the road leading to

Potosi

Potosi is the river Philcomayo, which is passed over by a large stone bridge. During some months in the year this river furnishes the city of Plata with great plenty of delicious fish: among these is one called the dorado, which generally weighs between twenty and twenty-five pounds. The other provisions, as bread, flesh, and fruits, are brought from the neighbouring provinces.

S E C T. X.

Of the Diocese of La Paz in the Audience of Plata. Its Climate and Produce; with a Description of the Lama, the Guanaco, and Vicuna, of the Lake of Titicaca, and the City of La Paz.

WE now come to the five dioceses in the audience of Plata, and shall begin with that of La Paz, which is divided into six jurisdictions. Great part of the country is exposed to a cold air; so that hard frosts, snow, and hail, are not uncommon; but the city of La Paz is secured from them by its happy situation. Other parts are also so well sheltered from the piercing air of the Andes, that they produce all the vegetables of a hot climate, as sugar-canes, cacao, and the like. In the mountainous parts are large woods of valuable timber, but infested with tygers, leopards, and bears: they have also a few deer, and a great number of cattle of the European kinds, which feed on the heaths; as do also guanacos, vicunas, and lamas.

It will be proper here to describe the last of these animals, and we shall begin with the lama, which in several particulars resembles the camel, as in the shape of its head, neck, and some other parts; but has no bunch on its back, and is much smaller, cloven-footed, and of a different colour; for though most of them are brown, some are black, others white, and others of different colours. Its pace resembles that of a camel, and its height is equal to that of an ass between one and two years old. The Indians and Spaniards use them as beasts of carriage, and they answer very well for any load under a hundred weight. Anciently the Indians used to eat their flesh, as they still do when they are past their labour, and say there is no difference between it and mutton, except its being something sweeter. It is a very docile animal, easily kept; its whole defence is ejecting from its nostrils a viscous matter, which is said to give the itch to any one on whom it falls; so that the Indians, who firmly believe this, are very cautious in provoking it.

The guanaco and the vicuna are but little different from the lama. The guanaco is larger, and its wool long and harsh; the vicuna, which is smaller than the lama, has shorter and finer wool, and is brown all over the body, except the belly, which is whitish. The last are of great service in the mines, carrying metals in such rugged roads, as would be impassable for any other beasts.

In the cordillera near the city is a mountain of remarkable height, called Illimani, which doubtless contains immense riches; for a crag of it being some years ago separated from it by a flash of lightning, and falling on a neighbouring mountain, such a quantity of gold was found in the fragments, that for some time that metal was sold at Paz at eight pieces of eight per ounce. But its summit being perpetually covered with ice and snow, no mine has been opened in the mountain.

In this diocese is the lake of Titicaca, which is somewhat of an oval figure, and about eighty leagues in circumference, and the water in some parts seventy or eighty fathoms deep. Ten or twelve large rivers, besides a great number of smaller streams, empty themselves into it. The water, though neither bitter nor brackish, is turbid, and its taste so nauseous, that it cannot be drank. It contains several islands, among which is one of a considerable size, on which the yncas erected a magnificent temple to the sun, the walls of which were covered with plates of gold and silver; but this immense mass of riches the Indians, on seeing the rapaciousness of the Spaniards on their conquering the country, are thought to have thrown into the lake, to prevent its falling into their hands.

The city of La Paz is of a middling size, and from its situation among the breaches of the Cordillera, the ground on which it stands is not only unequal, but also surrounded by mountains, without any other prospect than that of those mountains and the channel of the river. When this river is increased either by the rains or the melting of the snow on the mountains, its current forces along large masses of rocks with some grains of gold, which are found after the flood has subsided. Hence some idea may be formed of the riches inclosed in the bowels of these mountains, a remarkable proof of which appeared in the year 1730, when an Indian washing his feet in the river discovered so large a lump of gold, that the marquis de Castel Fuerte gave twelve thousand pieces of eight for it, and sent it as a present to the king of Spain.

The chapter of the cathedral consists of a dean, an archdeacon, a chanter, four canons and prebendaries. Here are also four parish-churches and monasteries of Augustines, Dominicans, Franciscans, fathers of Mercy, a college of Jesuits, and a convent and hospital of St. Juan de Dios, with a nunnery of the order of Conception, and another of Santa Terefa. The city is governed by a corregidor, under whom are regidores and ordinary alcaldes, as in the other towns.

S E C T. XI.

Of the Bishoprics of Santa Cruz de la Sierra and Tucuman, in the Province of Los Charcas: their Climate, Soil, Produce, and Inhabitants.

THE bishopric of Santa Cruz de la Sierra is a government and captain-generalship, and though its jurisdiction is of large extent, not many Spaniards are found in it; and its few towns are in general missions, comprehended under the name of missions of Paraguay.

The winter here is severe; it begins in May, and ends in August, during which the south wind blows for seven weeks, and the rains overflow great part of the country; but the summer is excessive hot.

The soil abounds with several kinds of fruit. Here is a species of palm tree, from the trunk of which they get a sort of meal that is very good food. Grapes, figs, and musk-melons, also thrive well here.

The city of Santa Cruz, the capital of this government, stands eighty or ninety leagues east of Plata, but is neither large nor well built, nor has any thing answerable to the name of a city. The houses are of stone covered with palm leaves: there is one church, which is the cathedral; its chapter consists only of a bishop, dean, and archdeacon; it having neither canons, prebendaries, nor other dignitaries.

The missions belonging to the Jesuits in the parts dependent on this bishopric are called Indios Chiquitos, or Little Indians, a name they received from the Spaniards, from the extreme smallness of the doors of their houses. Their country lies between Santa Cruz de la Sierra and the lake of Xarayes, from whence the river Paraguay has its rise, and being increased by the conflux of others, forms the famous river of Plata. About the close of the last century the Jesuits began preaching in this nation, and had such success, that in 1732 they had formed seven towns, each consisting of above six hundred families, and were then building others for assembling under their laws the great number of Indians they brought over to the Romish church.

The Indios Chiquitos are active and well made, and their courage has been frequently experienced by the Portuguese, who used to make incursions into their country, in order to carry off the inhabitants for slaves: but their valour has taught them to keep within their own limits. The arms of these Indians are poisoned arrows, muskets, and sabres. Though their language is different from that of the other nations of Paraguay, they have nearly the same customs. Near these is another nation of Indians, who have always strenuously refused to listen to the missionaries, who have been able to make very few converts among them.

The bishopric or government of Tucuman lies in the center of this part of America, beginning south of the

river Plata beyond the towns of Chicas, which furnish Indians for the mines of Potosi; on the east it borders on Paraguay and Buenos Ayres, reaching westward to the kingdom of Chili, and southward to the plains of Magellan.

The territories of this government are of such extent, that they reach above two hundred leagues from north to south, and in some parts little less than a hundred from east to west; but all the towns are small, and built without either order or symmetry. The principal part of the country is not habitable, either from the want of water, or the impenetrable forests with which it is covered; and the Spaniards are prevented from extending their settlements by the ravages of the free Indians, who take all opportunities to destroy them.

Those parts of the country that are watered by rivers are so fertile, as to produce corn and fruit sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants. The woods abound in wild honey and wax, while the hot parts produce sugar and cotton; the last of which is manufactured in the country, and, with the woollen stuffs also wove by the inhabitants, form an advantageous branch of trade. But its great article consists in the mules bred in the luxuriant pastures of its valleys; inconceivable droves of these animals are sent to all parts of Peru, they being famous for exceeding all others in strength and docility.

S E C T. XII.

Of PARAGUAY.

Its Situation, Climate, and Produce; with a particular Account of the Missions of the Jesuits, and the Orders, Regulations, and Government of the Towns and Villages under their Authority.

THE fourth bishopric of the audience of Charcas is Paraguay, which lies to the east of Tucuman, and is bounded on the north by Santa Cruz de la Sierra, on the south by Buenos Ayres, and on the west by Brasil.

The air in general is moist and temperate, though in some places it is rather cold. The temperate parts abound with all kinds of provisions. Cotton is produced in great quantities; and the industrious, in the missions of the Jesuits, are very ingenious in weaving it into stuffs for exportation. It also abounds in tobacco, and in the valuable herb called Paraguay; with plenty of a variety of fruits, and rich pastures, in which are bred vast herds of cattle.

The only settlements in this government are the city of Assumption, Villa Rica, and some other towns, whose inhabitants are a mixture of Spaniards, Mestizos, and some Indians; but the greatest part are of the several casts. As the city Assumption is but small and irregular, it cannot be expected that Villa Rica and the other towns and villages should be better. The houses of the capital are indeed intermixed with gardens and plantations, but without any symmetry. It is, however, the residence of the governor of the province, who had formerly under his jurisdiction part of the towns which composed the mission of Paraguay; but a few years since they were separated from it, and annexed to the government of Buenos Ayres. In the city of Assumption is a cathedral, whose chapter, besides the bishop, consists of a dean, an arch-deacon, a treasurer, and two canons. The parishes of the city of Villa Rica, and of the other towns depending on this government, are served by the Franciscans; but in the missionary towns they are solely under the care of the Jesuits; and these composing most of the towns in this province, we shall treat particularly of them, in which we shall follow the account given by the learned and ingenious Antonio de Ulloa, and Muratori.

The missions of Paraguay, besides those in the province of that name, include a great many in Santa Cruz de la Sierra, Tucuman, and Buenos Ayres.

Soon after the city of Assumption was founded, a few Jesuits entering Paraguay, brought over to the Romish church about fifty Indian families, who soon induced many others to follow their example, on account of the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of the fathers. They had long disdained to submit to the

arms of the Spaniards and Portuguese; but became willing converts to the religious tenets proposed by the Jesuits, who, in order to cultivate their minds and gain their affections, learned their language, and conformed to their manners; thus obtaining an entire ascendant over their affections, they established the most solid and real authority, a dominion over the mind.

They began with assembling them in towns, and forming them into societies, regulated by a very extraordinary system of civil policy. They engaged to protect them against the insolence of the Spanish soldiers and the tyranny of the governors, and actually kept their word with respect to the Portuguese, against whom they obtained leave from the court of Spain to arm the natives. The Portuguese, then only intent on the improvement of their colonies, in violation of the most sacred laws, did not, even after the conversion of these people, cease from making incursions, in order to carry off the young inhabitants as slaves for their plantations; so that it became absolutely necessary, in order to preserve these converts, to remove into Paraguay about twelve thousand of all ages, and a like number were brought from other places. The Jesuits set about disciplining the Paraguayans, taught them the use of fire-arms, and soon rendered them able to cope with their enemies, and, when they appeared, to drive them out of the country. The mildness of the Christian yoke, the exemption from taxes and marks of servitude, rendered them extremely attached to the fathers; and at present above three hundred and forty thousand families are subject to the Jesuits, living in obedience and an awe bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or constraint.

The Paraguay missions are on all sides terminated by nations of idolaters, some of which, however, live in perfect harmony with them, while others make frequent incursions into the country; and among the latter the fathers chiefly employ their zeal, in order to bring them over to their religion and discipline; and having brought over a number of these to their principles, they conduct them to the Christian towns, where, after proper instructions, they are admitted to baptism.

There are about threescore parishes on the banks of the rivers Paraguay and Panama, at not above the distance of thirty miles from each other. In each of these is a Jesuit, who is supreme in all causes civil, military, and ecclesiastic; and may be regarded as a petty prince, who governs not only with the authority of a sovereign, but with the influence and reputation of an oracle. The important office of governor is, however, always filled by a person chosen by the Indians, with the approbation of the priest. The alcaldes are annually appointed by the regidores, and the governor jointly with them attends to the maintenance of good order and tranquillity among the inhabitants; but that these officers, who are seldom persons of distinguished abilities, may not abuse their authority, and either through interest or passion carry their revenge too far against the other Indians, they are not to proceed to punishment without previously acquainting the priest, that he may compare the offence with the sentence. The priest, on finding the person really guilty, delivers him up to be punished, which generally consists in imprisonment for a certain number of days, and sometimes fasting is added to it; but if the fault be very great, the delinquent is whipped, which is said to be the most severe punishment used among them. The execution of the sentence is preceded by a discourse made by the priest before the delinquent, in which he represents, with the greatest mildness, the nature and guilt of his crime, by which means he is brought to acknowledge the justice of the sentence, and to receive it rather as a paternal correction, than a rigorous punishment; and indeed they are said to have so high an opinion of the Jesuits, that they are more ready to blame themselves, than to think it possible for the priest to do wrong.

Every town has a particular armoury, in which are kept all the fire-arms, swords, and weapons used by the militia when they take the field, whether to repel the insults of the Portuguese, or any of the free Indians inhabiting their frontiers; and, that they may be dexterous in the management of them, they are exercised on the evening of every holiday in the market-places of the town.

All persons capable of bearing arms are also in every town divided into companies under their proper officers, who owe this distinction to their military qualifications. Their uniform is richly laced with gold or silver, according to their rank, and embroidered with a device of their towns. In these they always appear on holidays at the times of exercise. The governor, alcaldes, and regidores, have likewise very magnificent habits of ceremony, which they wear on solemn occasions.

Every town has a school for teaching reading, writing, dancing, and music; and whatever the natives undertake they generally make a great proficiency in; for the inclination and genius of every one is carefully consulted, before he is forwarded in any branch of science. In one of the courts of the house belonging to the priest of each town are work-houses for painters, sculptors, gilders, silver-smiths, lock-smiths, carpenters, weavers, watch-makers, and other mechanic arts and trades, where the Indians work for the benefit of the whole town, under the inspection of the priest's coadjutors; and boys are also instructed in the arts or trades to which they have the greatest inclination.

In each of the towns is a house in which women of ill fame are placed; it also serves for the retreat of married women who have no families, during the absence of their husbands. For the support of this house, and also of orphans, and those who by age or any other circumstance are disabled from earning a livelihood, two days in the week are set apart, in which the inhabitants of every village are obliged to sow and cultivate a piece of ground, called *Labor de la Comunidad*, the Labour of the Community, and the surplus of the produce is applied to procure furniture and decorations for the church, and to clothe the orphans, the aged and disabled. By this benevolent plan all distress is precluded, and the inhabitants provided with every necessary of life.

That the Indians may never want materials for work, it is one part of the priest's care to have always in readiness a stock of different kinds of tools, stuffs, and other goods; so that all who are in want repair to him, bringing, by way of exchange, wax, of which here are great quantities, and other products. The goods received in exchange are sent by the priest to the superior of the missions, and with the produce a fresh stock of goods is laid in. The priest likewise visits personally the Indian plantations, in which he is remarkably sedulous, in order to prevent the indulgence of that slothful disposition natural to the natives. He also attends at the slaughter-houses where cattle are daily killed, large herds of which are kept for the public use, and their flesh is distributed by the priests in lots proportioned to the number of persons in each family. In short, he visits the sick, to see that they are duly attended and provided with every thing necessary to their recovery.

The civil government of these towns seems admirably calculated to produce happiness; and the ecclesiastical appears no less extraordinary. The priest instructs the Indians in his district, and obliges them punctually to frequent Divine service on Sunday. The children repair every morning by break of day to the churches, where they take their places on opposite sides, according to their sex. There they recite alternately the morning prayer and Christian doctrine, till sun-rise, when mass is celebrated, at which all the inhabitants are obliged to attend, except they can give a sufficient reason for their absence. After mass all go to work, and in the evening the children assemble to be catechised, and the adults to pray. Marriages are, for the greater solemnity, celebrated on Sunday; high mass is then sung, and an exhortation to the married pair is pronounced from the pulpit; after which a list is called over to see who is absent, and penances are imposed on all trespasses committed in the parish. This regularity is said to produce an astonishing effect on the minds and morals of the Indians, who are punctual in their religious duties, faithful in their dealings, charitable to the distressed, humble, obedient, and industrious, beyond what could be reasonably expected from a people naturally indolent and slothful.

The parish-churches in Paraguay are capacious, rich, elegant, and splendidly furnished; gilding and painting attract the eye, and on every side strike the imagination;

all the utensils used in religious worship are of gold and silver, many of them curiously embossed and set with precious stones. Magnificent galleries are erected on one side the altar for the civil magistrates, and on the other for the military officers, and all the vulgar are seated with great order on seats round the area. Every church has its band of music, consisting of a great number of performers in vocal and instrumental music, and Divine service is celebrated in them with all the pomp of cathedrals. The same is observed in public processions, especially on that of Corpus Christi-day, at which the governor, alcaldes, and regidores assist in their habits of ceremony, and the militia in their uniforms; the rest of the people carry flambeaux: these processions are likewise accompanied with dancing, and the performers wear particular dresses, extremely rich, and adapted to the characters represented. In short, the whole is conducted with the utmost pomp and parade, and every thing relating to religion is contrived to strike the senses and captivate the imagination of the weak and superstitious.

The house or rather palace of the priest, who may be considered as a spiritual prince within his jurisdiction, is grand, spacious, and constructed in the form of a church, in order to strike his subjects with religious awe and reverence: it consists of different apartments, suited to the various offices of the priest, as a civil and ecclesiastical magistrate. Every morning after prayers is devoted to hearing the complaints and redressing the grievances of those who demand an audience. At noon he hears confessions and grants absolutions, in which he is extremely rigid and exact. In the afternoon he walks abroad, inspects the public and private affairs, and superintends the labour of his parishioners; while the evening is devoted to catechising and discoursing on moral and religious subjects.

The houses of the Indians are built with that symmetry and convenience, and so completely furnished, as to excel those of the Spaniards in many towns in this part of America. Most of them, however, have only mud walls; but some of them are of unburnt brick, and others of stone; yet in general are covered with tiles. All private houses are said to make gun-powder, that a sufficient quantity may not be wanting, either on any exigency, or for fire-works on holidays and anniversary rejoicings.

Such at least is the idea conveyed of the behaviour of the Jesuits here by Muratori and the learned Don Antonio Ulloa, who are undoubtedly the best writers on the subject. Indeed some have treated their characters with great severity, and they may justly be accused of ambition; but perhaps this passion was never directed to more noble and useful purposes than instructing the ignorant, promoting industry, and inspiring a love of order, with temperance, frugality, and every other virtue that can humanize the mind. It is not surprising if the excessive reverence paid here to the Jesuits fills them with pride, so natural to an elevated station. However, it is affirmed, but with what justice we will not pretend to determine, that they carry their authority to such an excess, as to cause even the magistrates to be corrected before them with stripes, and suffer persons of the highest distinction within their jurisdictions to kiss the hem of their garments as the greatest honour. It must, however, be added, that the utter abolition of all ideas of property, which is rendered useless by the general magazines and store-houses, doubtless contributes to the happiness of the people, since they are certain of never wanting, and are deprived of the very inclination of committing the numerous vices that spring from selfishness, avarice, and discontent. From this and other particulars one would imagine, that they had taken the general scheme of their government from Sir Thomas Moor's *Utopia*; yet the priests themselves possess large property, all manufactures are theirs, every natural commodity is brought to them, and the treasures annually remitted to the superior of the order plainly evince that zeal for religion is not the only motive of their forming these missions.

The missionary fathers will not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, *Mestizos*, or even Indians, to come within their missions in Paraguay. This, their friends say, is not with a view of concealing their transactions from the world, but to prevent their Indians being

being corrupted by the example of others. They are said to be at present strangers to sedition, pride, malice, envy, and other passions so fatal to society; but were strangers admitted among them, their bad examples would soon teach them what at present they are happily ignorant of. The vigilance and jealousy which the fathers express in this particular has given birth to many unfavourable reports. If a stranger, in spite of all their precaution, should find his way into the country, he is immediately secured by the superior of the parish, a house assigned him, and every satisfaction is generously allowed him, except his liberty. If the father should permit him to see the town, it is always in his own company, and after notice has been given to the inhabitants to keep close in their houses, where they barricade themselves as if they dreaded the assault of a powerful enemy. As soon as an opportunity offers for his embarking at Buenos Ayres, the stranger is sent thither under a guard of Indians, who are entire strangers to every European language; whence it is impossible for them to communicate any thing with respect to the state of the country.

It ought not to be omitted, that, besides the provincial governments, there is a supreme council, composed of an annual meeting of all the fathers, who adjust the methods necessary to be executed for promoting the common concerns of the mission, for framing new laws, correcting or abolishing old ones, and adapting every thing to the present circumstances.

It has been already intimated, that the natives are trained up to the exercise of arms, and the military of Paraguay is at present so formidable as to raise the jealousy of Spain and Portugal, and is probably able to foil all the attempts of the Portuguese and Spaniards to reduce them to obedience. Every parish has its body of horse and foot, who are duly exercised every Sunday in the manual exercise and evolutions, in the same manner as the militia of Switzerland. This force is said to be divided into regiments, composed of six companies of fifty men each. The officers hold their commissions of the fathers, and are selected out of the body of the people for their valour, activity, and obedience. The cavalry is on much the same footing as the infantry, only the regiments are less numerous. It is even said, that the Jesuits can raise seventy or eighty thousand well disciplined troops, amazingly expert in the use of the firelock and bayonet, and that with their slings they can throw stones of four or five pounds weight with astonishing force, and such dexterity, as to hit the smallest mark at any proposed distance within the compass of their strength.

With respect to the trade of Paraguay, it consists of cotton stuffs, made in the country; of tobacco, a great deal of which is planted here; and of the herb called Paraguay, which alone would be sufficient to form a flourishing commerce. These goods are carried for sale to the cities of Santa Fe and Buenos Ayres, where the fathers have factors, who dispose of what is consigned to them from Paraguay, and lay out the money in such European goods as the towns are then in want of, in ornaments for the churches, and for the priests who officiate in them; but the greatest care is taken in deducting from what each town sends the amount of the tribute of its Indian inhabitants, which is immediately remitted to the officers of the revenue belonging to the crown of Spain.

SECT. XIII.

Of BUENOS AYRES, including PATAGONIA.

Its Situation and Produce; with a particular Account of the Manner of hunting the wild Cattle for their Hides, in order to take them alive; with a Description of the City of Nuestra Senora de la Buenos Ayres.

BUENOS Ayres, which is included by Ulloa within the jurisdiction of Los Charcas, and termed the fifth bishopric of that audience, received its name from the extraordinary salubrity of the air, and is extended to all that country from the eastern and southern coast of that part of America as far as Tucuman on the westward, on the north to Paraguay, and on the south to Terra Magellanica. This country is watered by the great river

La Plata. The distinctions between summer and winter are here very visible. In summer the excessive heats are mitigated by gentle breezes, which constantly begin at eight or nine in the morning, and in winter violent tempests of wind and rain are very frequent, accompanied with such dreadful thunder and lightning as fill the inhabitants, though used to them, with terror and consternation.

There is no place either in America or Europe where meat is better or cheaper; it is always fat and very palatable, and in such plenty, that it is said the hides of the beasts, which are most valuable, are all that is properly bought, the carcase being in a manner given in the bargain. The country to the west, north, and south of the city of Buenos Ayres lately abounded so greatly in cattle and horses, that the whole cost consisted in taking of them; and even then a horse was sold for a dollar, and the usual price for a beast chosen out of a herd of two or three hundred was only four rials. At present there is no scarcity; but they keep at a greater distance, and are more difficult to be caught, from the prodigious havoc made of them by the Spaniards and Portuguese, merely for the sake of their hides, the principal branch of the commerce of Buenos Ayres.

Though the Spaniards claim the whole country as far as the straits of Magellan, yet the southernmost part, usually distinguished by the name of Patagonia, is unpossessed by the Spaniards. This country is on the east side extremely remarkable for a peculiarity not to be paralleled in any other part of the known world; for though the whole territory to the northward of the river Plata is full of wood, and stored with immense quantities of large timber trees; yet to the southward of the river no trees of any kind are to be met with, except a few peach trees, first planted by the Spaniards in the neighbourhood of Buenos Ayres; so that on the whole eastern coast of Patagonia, extending near four hundred leagues in length, and reaching as far back as any discoveries have yet been made, no other wood has been found than a few insignificant shrubs.

The country, however, abounds with pasture; for the land appears in general to consist of a light, dry, gravelly soil, and produces great quantities of long coarse grass, which grows in tufts, interspersed with large barren spots of gravel between them. This grass feeds immense herds of cattle; for the Spaniards at Buenos Ayres having, soon after their first settling there, brought over a few black cattle from Europe, they have thriven prodigiously by the plenty of herbage they met with, and are now increased to that degree, and are extended so far into different parts of Patagonia, that they are not considered as private property; but many thousands have been annually slaughtered by the hunters, only for their hides and tallow.

The manner of killing these cattle being peculiar to this part of the world, deserves a particular description. The hunters being all mounted on horseback, both the Spaniards and Indians being excellent horsemen, arm themselves with a kind of spear, which at its end has its blade fixed a-crofs; with this instrument they ride at the beast, and the hunter who comes behind him hamstring him. As the beast after this operation soon falls, without being able to rise, they leave him and pursue others, whom they serve in the same manner. Sometimes a second party attend the hunters, to skin the cattle as they fall: but it is said, that at other times the hunters choose to let them languish in torment till the next day, from the opinion that the anguish the animal endures facilitates the separation of the skin from the carcase: and though their priests have loudly condemned this most barbarous practice, yet all their efforts to put an entire stop to it have hitherto proved ineffectual.

These cattle are slaughtered, as hath been already said, only for their hides and tallow, to which sometimes are added their tongues; but the rest of their flesh is left to putrify, or to be devoured by the birds and wild beasts. The greatest part of it falls to the wild dogs, of which there are immense numbers in that country. These are supposed to have been originally produced by Spanish dogs from the city of Buenos Ayres, who, allured by the great quantity of carrion, and the facility they had by that

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means of subsisting, left their masters, and run wild among the cattle; for they are plainly of the breed of the European dogs, animals not originally found in America: but though these dogs are said to be some thousands in a company, they neither diminish nor prevent the increase of the cattle, not daring to attack the herds on account of the numbers which constantly feed together; but contenting themselves with the carrion left by the hunters.

As it is often necessary for the uses of agriculture, and for other purposes, to take the cattle alive, without wounding them, this is performed with admirable dexterity by throwing a thong of several fathoms in length, with a running noose at one end, over the horns of the beast, much in the same manner as we have already described in hunting the wild ass and other animals. Another hunter who follows the game, throws another noose about one of its hind legs, and as the other end is fastened to the saddle of the riders, this is no sooner done, than the horses, who are trained to the practice, turn different ways, by which means the beast is soon thrown down; the horses then stopping, keep their thongs upon the stretch, and the hunters alighting, secure the beast in such a manner, that they afterwards easily convey him to whatever place they please. They in like manner noose horses, and it is said even tigers.

The horses which were first brought from Spain, and are likewise prodigiously increased, run wild to a much greater distance than the black cattle; and though many of them are excellent, yet their number renders them of very little value, the best of them being often sold in the neighbouring settlements, where money is plenty, for not more than a dollar a-piece.

In all parts of this country are a good number of vicuñas or Peruvian sheep; but these, from their shyness and swiftness, are killed with difficulty. On the eastern coast are found immense quantities of seals, and a vast variety of sea-fowl, among which the most remarkable are the penguins, which in size and shape resemble a goose; but instead of wings have short stumps like fins, which are of no use to them except in the water; their bills are narrow, and they stand and walk in an erect posture.

The inhabitants of the eastern coast appear to be but few, and rarely more than two or three at a time have been seen by any ships that have touched there. However, towards Buenos Ayres they are sufficiently numerous, and frequently very troublesome to the Spaniards. These last exceed the southern Indians in activity and spirit, and seem in their manners to be nearly allied to those gallant Indians of Chili, who have long set the whole Spanish power at defiance, have often ravaged their country, and still remain independant.

The capital of this government is called Nuestra Señora de Buenos Ayres. It was founded in 1535, on the south side of the river Plata, close by a small river, in the thirty-fourth degree thirty four minutes thirty-eight seconds south latitude, and in the sixtieth degree five minutes west longitude from London. This city, which is built on a large plain, gently rising from the little river, is far from being small, it having at least three thousand houses inhabited by Spaniards and different casts. Like most towns seated on rivers, it is much longer than it is broad; but the streets are straight, and of a proper breadth. The principal square is very large, and built near the little river; the front answering to it being a castle, in which the governor constantly resides, and, with the other forts, has a garrison, with a thousand regular troops. The houses, which were formerly of mud thatched with straw, and very low, are now much improved, some being of chalk, and others of brick, with one story above the ground-floor, and most of them tiled. The cathedral is a spacious elegant structure, and is the parish-church for the greatest part of the inhabitants; the other at the farther end of the city being only for the Indians. The chapter consists of the bishop, dean, and two canons. There are also several convents, and a royal chapel in the castle, where the governor resides.

Within the government of Buenos Ayres are three other cities, named Santa Fe, Las Corrientes, and Monte Video. Santa Fe lies about ninety leagues north-west of Buenos Ayres, between the rivers Plata and Salado, which, after running through the country of Tucuman, joins the former. The city is but small and meanly built, which is in a great measure owing to the frequent insults the inhabitants have received from the free Indians in its neighbourhood, who have sometimes pillaged the city and the adjacent villages. It is, however, the channel of the commerce between Paraguay and Buenos Ayres. The city of Las Corrientes, which is seated on the eastern banks of the Plata, between it and the river Parana, is about a hundred leagues north of the city of Santa Fe; but is much inferior to it, and indeed has no marks of a city except the name. Monte Video, which was lately built, stands on the border of the bay from whence it derives its name, and, like the former, is of little consequence. Each of these cities has its particular regidor, as lieutenant of the governor, and its inhabitants, together with those of the neighbouring country, are formed into a militia, which on any appearance of an invasion from the Indians, assemble in order to repel their attacks, in which they have been frequently successful.

C H A P. XII.

Of CHILI, the Islands of TERRA DEL FUEGO, JUAN FERNANDES, &c.

S E C T. I.

Of C H I L I.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, and Produce: the Number of its Inhabitants, and the Manners and Customs of the free Indians.

THE kingdom of Chili is very extensive, but its limits are not exactly ascertained; some confine it within the Spanish jurisdiction, others extend it from the twenty-sixth to the forty-seventh degree of south latitude, and there are even some who include within its limits Terra del Fuego and the very extremity of Cape Horn. We shall, however, upon the best authority confine the name of Chili to that tract of land between the twenty-sixth and forty-fifth degree of south latitude, and between the forty-seventh and fifty-fourth degree of west longitude.

Agreeable to which limits it is bounded by Peru on the north, by the province of La Plata on the east, by Patagonia or Terra Magellanica on the south, and by the South sea or Pacific ocean on the west; containing a space of between twelve and thirteen hundred miles in length, and about half as much in breadth, if we include the vast plains of Chicuito, which lie on the opposite side of the lofty ridge of the Andes, which are here of a stupendous height. The country indeed strictly called Chili lies between this chain of mountains on the South sea, including only a space of about ninety miles in breadth.

The seasons here are almost opposite to those in the northern hemisphere; but the face of the country is beautiful, and the climate wholesome. Here is felt heat and cold in the different seasons. On the east the country is screened by the Andes; while from the west the

air is cooled by the most refreshing sea-breezes: yet in some parts the piercing winds which in winter blow from the mountains are exceeding sharp. However, this country may in general be esteemed one of the most agreeable climates in South America. In winter a light coat of snow falls upon the valleys; but the mountains are covered with such quantities, as in summer supply the country with innumerable rivulets, which produce the most extraordinary fertility; for here Indian and European corn, wine, and fruits, with all the necessaries of life, are produced in the utmost abundance and perfection.

Among the corn great quantities of excellent wheat are produced; the vines are of several kinds, and, with regard to the richness and flavour of their grapes, are esteemed beyond any produced in Peru. A sort of muscadell is made here, whose flavour far exceeds any wine of the kind made in Spain. The fruits which mostly abound in Chili are of the same kind as those known in Europe; its cherries in particular are large and of a fine taste. The strawberries, like those of Peru, are of two kinds; and in the gardens of the cities near the sea-coasts, orange trees are kept covered with blossoms and fruit all the year, and in the plains are a prodigious variety of beautiful flowers without cultivation.

Among the remarkable herbs, many of which are medicinal, and others applied to various uses, is the panque, which is of great service in tanning of leather.

Besides the rich variety of productions upon the surface of the earth, the country abounds with mines of gold and silver, copper, tin, and iron; and with quarries of lapis-lazuli and loadstone.

The chief use of the rich lands is the fattening of oxen, goats, and sheep, which is the principal employment of the greatest part of the inhabitants in the country. All other provisions are in equal plenty; turkeys, geese, and all kinds of poultry are sold at a very low price. Wild-fowl are also very common, and are of the same sorts as those found in the deserts of Quito; as are likewise wood-pigeons, partridges, woodcocks, and snipes. Among the singing birds is the goldfinch, which resembles those of Spain, except a small variation in its plumage. There are besides others proper to the country, particularly the piche, which is something larger than a sparrow, of a brown colour, spotted with black, except the breast, which is of a most beautiful red, and some feathers of the same colours in the wings intermixed with others of a bright yellow. Though some snakes are found in the fields and woods, their bite is not dangerous, neither are the country peasants under any apprehensions from ravenous beasts; whence if this country was not subject to earthquakes, nature might be said to pour her treasures on this country, without blending them with the usual inconveniences.

The number of inhabitants in this extensive country bears no proportion to its extent. All the Spaniards in Chili are said not to exceed twenty thousand, and these are dispersed in such a manner as hath given the free Indians the greatest advantages in all their wars with them. This was the great oversight of Valdivia, the first invader of Chili, who, upon his discovering gold, attempted to make so many establishments, as furnished the Indians whom he had treated very cruelly with an opportunity of recovering their liberty and expelling the Spaniards out of the mountains. The Europeans, Mestizos, mulattoes, and negroes, are reputed at a hundred and fifty thousand; but the Indians are much more numerous. The subjected Indians belong entirely to the Spaniards, live among them, and serve them in the same manner as the original natives of Peru and Mexico. For the better establishment of good order and a regular police, they are divided according to their habitations into small lordships, styled commanderies.

The Chileans are tall, robust, active, and courageous. No other Indian people have cost the Spaniards so much trouble; for they are dexterous in the use of the sword, pikes, bows, and arrows; and their discipline more regular and rational. They fight in squadrons, retire when broke, rally, fortify themselves with great address, and choose their ground either to engage, attack, or defend themselves, with admirable judgment.

The Indians in several parts of Chili are not governed by caciques like those of Peru, the only subordination among them being with regard to age; so that the oldest person of the family is respected as its governor. Those who inhabit the southern parts of the river Biobio, and those who live near the Cordillera, have hitherto eluded all attempts made for reducing them under the Spanish government; for when strongly pushed they abandon their huts, and retire into the more distant parts of the kingdom, where, being joined by other nations, they return in such numbers, that they easily take possession of their former habitations, the Spaniards being unable to oppose them. If at that time a few only call for a war against the Spaniards, the flame instantly spreads, and their measures are taken with such secrecy, that the first declaration of it is by attacking the neighbouring villages. When they are not already assembled, the first step, when a war is agreed on, is to summon the nations, which they term shooting the dart, the summons being sent from village to village with the utmost silence and rapidity, specifying the very night when the irruption is to be made; and though advice of it is sent to the Indians who reside among the Spaniards, nothing transpires; nor is there a single instance among all the Indians that have been taken up on suspicion, that one ever made a discovery. Thus their designs continue impenetrable, till their execution withdraws the veil.

The Indians of the several nations being assembled, choose a general; and when the night fixed upon for executing their designs arrives, the Indians who live near the Spaniards attack them by surprise; and having cut them off, divide into small parties, and destroy the seats, farm-houses, and villages, giving no quarter, and paying not the least regard to youth or age. These parties afterwards unite, and in a body attack the larger settlements of the Spaniards, besiege the forts, and, by the greatness of their numbers, frequently carry all before them. If at any time the Spaniards gain the superiority, the Indians retire several leagues, where concealing themselves a few days they suddenly attack a different part from that where they were encamped, and endeavour to carry the place by a sudden assault, in which they are frequently successful, unless the commandant's vigilance has provided against a sudden surprise; when, by the advantage of the Spanish discipline, they are generally repulsed with great slaughter.

These wars against the Spaniards usually continue some years, they being of little detriment to the Indians; for most of their occupations consist of cultivating a small spot of ground, and weaving a little cotton cloth for their apparel, and these are carried on by the women. Their huts are built in a day or two, and their food consists of roots, maize, and other grain.

The first advances towards a treaty of peace with these Indians are generally made by the Spaniards, and as soon as the proposals are agreed to a congress is held, at which the governor, major-general of Chili, and the principal officers, with the bishop of Concepcion, and other persons of eminence assist. On the part of the Indians, the general and captains of his army, as representatives of the communities, repair to the congress. These congresses are held with the Indians not only for concluding a peace, but on the arrival of a new president, and the same ceremonies are observed in both; so that an account of one will be sufficient to give a just idea of the other.

On holding a congress the president sends notice to the frontier Indians of the day and place, whither he repairs with the persons above-mentioned; and on the part of the Indians the heads of their several communities: both, for the greater splendor of the interview, being accompanied with an escort, consisting of a certain number previously agreed on. The president and his company lodge in tents, and the Indians encamp in their huts at a small distance. The elders, or chiefs of the Indians, pay the first visit to the president, who drinks their healths in wine, and himself gives them the glass that they may drink his; he then makes them a present of knives, scissars, and such toys as they most value. The treaty of peace is then brought on the carpet, and the manner of observing the several articles is settled: after which they return to their camp, and the president makes them a visit, carrying

carrying with him a quantity of wine sufficient for a moderate regale.

The chiefs of the communities who are not present at the first visit now go in a body to pay their respects to the president, who at the rising of the congress makes each a small present of wine, which they liberally return in horses, black cattle, calves, and fowls. After which both parties return to their respective habitations.

It ought not to be omitted, that the president, in order to gain more effectually the hearts of the Indians, invites several of them to his table, and, during the three or four days of the congress, neglects no means of ingratiating himself into the good graces of the whole body. On these occasions a kind of fair is held at both camps, great numbers of Spaniards repairing to the Indians with such goods as they know will please them, and the Indians come with cotton cloth and cattle to the Spanish camp. Both parties deal by exchange, and never fail of selling their whole stock, and of observing in their dealings the most exact candor and regularity, as a specimen of the manner in which their future commerce is to be conducted.

Amidst the utmost rage of the Indians in their hostilities against the Spaniards, they generally spare the white men, whom they carry to their huts, and use as their own; whence many Indians of those nations have the complexion of the Spaniards born in that country. In time of peace a number of them enter the Spanish territories, hiring themselves for a certain time to work at the farm-houses; and at the expiration of the term return home, after laying out their wages in the purchase of such goods as are valued in their country.

During peace the Spaniards sell the free Indians hardware, as bits, spurs, knives, and edge-tools, toys, and some wine. This is done by way of barter; for though the countries inhabited by the Indians are not destitute of gold, yet knowing the fondness of the Spaniards for that metal, and the miseries it has occasioned where it has been found, they cannot be prevailed upon to open mines; so that the returns consist in horses, horned cattle, and cotton cloth. The Spaniard begins his negociation with offering the chief of the nation a cup of wine, and then displays his wares, that the Indian may choose what he likes best, mentioning at the same time what he expects in return. If they agree, the Spaniard makes him a present of a little wine, and the chief informs the community that they are at liberty to trade with that Spaniard as his friend. Relying on his protection, the Spaniard goes from hut to hut, recommending himself by giving the head of every family a taste of his wine, after which they enter upon business, and the Indian having taken what he wants, the trader goes away without receiving any equivalent, and visits the other huts, as they lie dispersed over the country, till he has disposed of all his stock. He then returns to the cottage of the chief, calling on his customers in his way, and acquainting them that he is on his return home. Upon this not one fails of bringing to the chief's hut what had been agreed on. Here they take their leave with all the appearance of a sincere friendship, and the chief even orders some Indians to escort him to the frontiers, and assist him in driving the cattle he has received in exchange for his goods. The Spaniards acknowledge that the Indians are remarkable for the fairness of their dealings, that they are never known to recede from what has been agreed on, and are very punctual in their payments.

S E C T. II.

Of the Divisions of Chili; with a Description of the principal Cities, as St. Jago, Conception, Copiapo, Coquimbo, Valparaiso, and Baldivia; with whatever is most remarkable in each.

CHILI is divided into four governments, namely, the major-generalship of the kingdom of Chili, Valparaiso, Valdivia, and Chiloe. It is likewise subdivided into eleven jurisdictions; the limits of which are not exactly ascertained by any of the Spanish authors, and

we shall content ourselves with giving our readers a description of the principal cities, and of whatever appears to us most worthy of notice.

The city of St. Jago, or Sant Jago, the capital of Chili, was founded by captain Pedro de Valdivia in 1541 in the valley of Mapocho, in the thirty-third degree forty minutes south latitude, and in the seventy-seventh degree west longitude, about twenty leagues from the harbour of Valparaiso, the nearest port to it in the Pacific ocean. Its situation is one of the most convenient and delightful that can be imagined, it standing in a beautiful plain, sixty miles in extent, flowing in meanders through the middle of it, and called by the name of Mapocho. This river runs so near the city, that water is conveyed from it by conduits through the streets; and it also supplies the gardens, which few houses are without. The city is two thousand yards in length from east to west, and twelve hundred in breadth from north to south. On the opposite side of the river, which washes the north part of it, is a large suburb named Chimba, and on the east side is a mountain of a middling height called Santa Lucia. All the streets are of a handsome breadth, straight, and paved, running exactly east and west, while they are crossed by others at right angles, which run exactly north and south. Near the middle of the city is a grand square encompassed with piazzas, with a very beautiful fountain in the center. On the north side are the palace of the royal audience, where the presidents have their apartments, the town-house, and the public prison; on the west side is the cathedral and the bishop's palace; the south side consists of shops, each decorated with an arch; and on the east is a row of private houses.

The houses are in general built of unburnt brick, and very low, on account of the terrible devastation occasioned by the earthquakes with which this city has been often visited; particularly on the eighth of July, 1730, when the greatest part of the city was destroyed; and this catastrophe was succeeded by an epidemical distemper, which swept away even greater numbers than had before perished by the earthquake. But though the houses are low they make a handsome appearance, and are well contrived to answer the purposes of convenience and pleasure. Besides the cathedral, the chapter of which, besides the bishop, consists of a dean, archdeacon, chanter, and four canons, with other subordinate ecclesiastics; here are the parish-churches of Sagrario, St. Anne, and St. Isidoro; there are also three convents of Franciscans, two of Augustines, one of Dominicans, one of the fathers of Mercy, one of St. Juan de Dios, five colleges of Jesuits, St. Diego, a college for students, and without the city a convent of Recollects. Here are also two nunneries of St. Clare, two of Augustines, and one of Carmelites; and a religious sisterhood, under the rules of St. Augustine; all which have a great number of recluses, as is common in all the cities of this part of the world. The churches of the convents, besides being very spacious, are built either with brick or stone, and those of the Jesuits are distinguished by the beauty of their architecture. The parish-churches are in every respect greatly inferior to them, both within and without.

In this city is a royal audience, which consists of a president, four auditors, a fiscal, and a patron of the Indians. The determinations of this court are without appeal, except to the supreme council of the Indies, and this only in matters of notorious injustice or denial of redress. Though the president is in some particulars subordinate to the viceroy of Lima, he is governor and captain-general of the whole kingdom of Chili, and as such resides one half of the year at St. Jago and the other at Conception. During his absence from St. Jago the corregidor acts as his representative, and his jurisdiction on this occasion extends to all the other towns of the kingdom of Chili, except the military governments.

The office for the royal revenue is under the direction of a treasurer and accomptant. Here are paid the tributes of the Indians, and other parts of the revenue; the salaries of the officers within its department, and other assignments, are likewise paid here.

Here are also a tribunal of croisade, the members of which are a subdelegate commissary, a treasurer, and accomptant;

comptant: likewise a commission of inquisition, all the officers of which are appointed by the tribunal of inquisition at Lima.

The magistracy of this city, at the head of which is the corregidor, consists of regidores, and two ordinary alcaldes. In these are lodged the police and civil government of the city. During the time the president resides here, the jurisdiction of the corregidor is limited to the liberties of St. Jago.

The customs of the people differ but little from those already mentioned in large cities; but, instead of the ostentation of Lima, dress with great decency, without splendor; but all the families who can afford it keep a calash for driving about the city.

The men are robust, of a proper stature, well shaped, and of a good air. The women have all the charms of those of Peru, and are even more remarkable for the delicacy of their features, and the fineness of their complexions; but they disfigure their natural beauty by painting themselves in such a preposterous manner, as not only spoils the delicacy of their skins, but even their teeth; so that it is very uncommon to see a woman with a good set.

The city of Concepcion is seated in the thirty-sixth degree forty-three minutes fifteen seconds south latitude. It is built on the south-east shore of a beautiful bay, on an uneven sandy ground, and on a small declivity, having a little river running through it. The destruction it suffered in the terrible earthquake of 1730, occasioned all the houses to be built low. This dreadful event happened on the eighth of July: the first motions were felt at one in the morning, and the concussions increasing, the sea, as usual, retreated to a considerable distance; but soon returned so impetuously, and with such a swell, that it overflowed the whole city and the neighbouring countries. In this sudden calamity many of the inhabitants found an asylum on the adjacent eminencies. This inundation was soon succeeded by three or four shocks, and at about four in the morning, a little before break of day, the concussions returned with the most tremendous violence, demolishing the few buildings that remained.

The houses have either mud walls, or are built with unburnt brick, but are covered with tiles. The churches are small and mean, as are also the Franciscan, Dominican, and Augustine convents, as well as that belonging to the fathers of Mercy; but the college of Jesuits is well built.

The political government of this city consists of a corregidor nominated by the king, who is at the head of the ordinary alcaldes and regidores. During the vacancy of this post the duty is performed by the president of Chili, who is governor and captain-general of the whole kingdom, and president of the audience of St. Jago, on which Concepcion is dependent. The president is obliged to reside six months in the year at Concepcion, in order to attend to the military concerns of the frontiers, to see that the forts are in a good condition, and the troops well disciplined. Concepcion has all the courts and offices usual in the cities of South America.

As all the inhabitants of the towns, villages, and country within the jurisdiction of Concepcion form different bodies of militia, some of which are in pay, and all must be ready on any sudden alarm; there is, besides the corregidor, a camp-master, who commands in all military affairs without the city.

The inhabitants consist of Spaniards and Mestizos, which are here hardly to be distinguished by their complexion; both being very fair, and some have fresh complexions. The goodness of the climate, together with the fertility of the country, have drawn hither many Creoles and Europeans, who live together in that harmony and friendship which should be an example to the other parts of these provinces, where pride and jealousy occasion frequent feuds. The men, instead of a cloak, wear a poncho, which is made in the form of a quilt, about two yards and a half or three yards in length, and two in breadth, having an opening in the middle just sufficient to put their head through, the rest hanging down on all sides. This is their dress in all weathers, whether walking or riding; and the peasants never pull it off but when they go to rest, tucking it up in such a

manner that both their arms and whole body are at full liberty, either for labour or diversion. This is an universal garb among all ranks when they ride on horseback. Though so plain and uniform, it serves to distinguish the quality and rank of the wearer, some wearing it only as a covering, and others for show. Accordingly those of the common people cost only four or five dollars, while others are worth a hundred and fifty or two hundred. This difference arises partly from the fineness of the stuff, and partly from the laces and embroidery with which they are adorned. They are of a double woollen stuff manufactured by the Indians, and generally blue.

The people here are excellent horsemen, and the women are particularly famous for their great skill in horsemanship; they are equally skilled in throwing the noose with the people of Patagonia, just described, in catching of wild bulls and other animals; but this is used here on many other occasions, particularly on private quarrels, in which they use an amazing address in throwing the noose, and in avoiding it with a lance. It is the only method they take to satisfy their revenge, and in this case the only resource in an open country is for a man to throw himself on the ground, keeping his legs and arms as close to it as possible. A person may also save himself by standing close to a tree, and if in the street by placing himself against a wall.

Having described the two principal cities of Chili, we shall proceed with the rest in the order in which they are situated, proceeding from north to south.

Copiapo, the first port on this coast, stands in the twenty-seventh degree south latitude. The harbour is indeed properly called Caldera, but it is commonly known by the former name, on account of its contiguity. This, from its natural situation, is improperly said to be the richest town in the world, it being seated on a gold mine; which, however, is not wrought by the inhabitants, because a still richer mine of that metal has been discovered at six miles distance. The town is very irregularly built, and its inhabitants amount to about seven hundred; but there are no less than a thousand labourers employed in the mines. There are twelve mills constantly employed, which extract at the rate of a hundred and fifty ounces one day with another. There are here also other valuable articles of commerce; salt-petre lies on the ground in many places two feet deep, and under any other government than the Spanish would attract a considerable trade. To the south of the town are the rich lead mines of Copiapo, which lie neglected; yet several intelligent writers are of opinion they might be turned to more advantage than the gold, on account of the great quantities of lapis lazuli found on the surface.

Coquimbo, or La Serena, is seated in the twenty-ninth degree fifty-four minutes south latitude, about a mile from the coast of the Pacific ocean, in a most delightful situation, having an extensive prospect of the sea, of a river, and the country, which presents to the view a pleasing variety of fields of different kinds of grain, and woods of a very lively verdure. The town is pretty large, but not proportionably peopled; the number of families not amounting to above four or five hundred, consisting of Spaniards, Mestizos, and a few Indians. The streets are straight and of a convenient breadth, intersecting each other at right angles, some extending from north to south, and others from east to west, forming squares of buildings, as at St. Jago and other places of note in this part of America. Though the houses have mud walls, and are covered with leaves, none are without a large garden planted with fruit-trees, and the esculent vegetables, both of America and Spain; for the climate is happily adapted to a variety of both kinds, the heat not being excessive, nor the cold severe; so that both in the fertility of the earth, and the cheerful appearance of the country, the whole year wears an aspect of one perpetual spring. The streets, though regular and convenient, are not entirely formed by the houses, a part of the interval between the several squares of buildings being filled up with gardens; and most of them have so agreeable an appearance, as to atone for the mean aspect of the houses. On the north side of the town runs the river, after flowing in various meanders through the whole valley.

valley; and thus, by canals cut from it, furnishes the town with water, one great use of which is to preserve the beauty of their favourite gardens.

Besides the parish church here is an Augustine, a Dominican, and Franciscan convent, one belonging to the fathers of Mercy, another to the order of St. Juan de Dios, and a college of Jesuits. The churches of these religious fraternities are large and decent. The parish church takes up part of one side of the great square, and on the opposite side is the town-house, where the alcaldes and regidores meet, who, with a corregidor, form the corporation.

The whole trade of Coquimbo consists of sending three or four vessels annually to Lima, laden with wine, flour, and other provisions; in exchange for which they receive all kinds of European commodities, and these are carried from hence to all the other towns of Chili.

Valparaiso is seated in the thirty-third degree two minutes thirty-six seconds north latitude, and is at present both large and populous, it having the most considerable haven in those seas, constantly filled with ships from Callao and Panama; whence it would be still larger were it not for its inconvenient situation, it standing at the foot of a mountain, and a great part of the houses being built on its acclivity. The broadest and most convenient part is that along the coast; but this is very disagreeable in winter, it being so exposed to the north winds, that the waves beat against the walls of the houses, some of which are built with unburnt bricks, and some of chalk and pebbles. Besides its parish church, it has a convent of Augustines, and another of Franciscans; but they have few monks, and the churches belonging to them are small and mean. It is inhabited by Spaniards, Mulattoes, and Mestizoes. In its neighbourhood are several villages, and the great number of farm-houses give the country a cheerful appearance.

Here is a military governor nominated by the king, who having the command of the garrisons in the several ports, and of the militia of the town and its dependences, is to take care that they are properly disciplined.

The proximity of Valparaiso to St. Jago has drawn hither all the commerce formerly carried on at that city, and to this it owes its foundation, increase and prosperity. The cargoes brought hither by the Callao ships are indeed but small; but they take from hence wheat, dried fruits, Cordovan leather, tallow, and cordage; and with those return to Callao. A ship has been known to make three voyages in one summer, that is between November and June; during which the droves of mules and carriages from all the farms in the jurisdiction of St. Jago bring fresh supplies to the ware-houses. Thus the summer season may be termed the fair of Valparaiso; but on the approach of winter it becomes as remarkably desolate, the crowd of traders repairing to St. Jago, and none staying that are able to remove.

The fruits that grow in the neighbourhood of this town are admirable for their size and beauty, particularly a sort of apples called quillota, which greatly exceed the largest in Spain; and, besides their exquisite flavour, are so juicy that they melt in the mouth. Among the several kinds of game, there are here such numbers of partridges in their season, which begins in March, and lasts several of the following months, that the muleteers knock them down with their sticks, without going out of the road, and bring great numbers of them to Valparaiso: but few of these, or any other birds, are seen very near the town. It is the same with regard to fish, very little being to be caught either in the harbour or along the coast.

Baldivia, or Valdivia, a celebrated port, is seated at the bottom of a fine bay, in the thirty-ninth degree six minutes south latitude, and in the eightieth degree west longitude. It takes its name from Valdivia, the Spanish general, who conquered the country. A considerable sum is annually granted to keep the fortifications in repair, which consist of four strong castles, mounting above a hundred pieces of fine brass cannon, for which, however, it is said, there is never a sufficient number of gunners and carriages; nor ever a proper supply of ammunition: and the garrison is chiefly composed of malefactors transported from Spain. The governor is indeed

always a person of quality; but as he is promoted merely to repair his fortune, it is also expected that he should improve the opportunity. The inhabitants amount to about two thousand, who are chiefly Spaniards, Creoles, and Mestizos. Its trade is less considerable than formerly, because the gold mines in its neighbourhood are shut up; yet ten large ships are employed in the trade between this port and Lima, which chiefly consists in corn, salt provisions, gold, and hides, which are exchanged for slaves, sugar, chocolate, and European commodities and manufactures.

The island of Chiloe, the last of the governments, extends from the forty-second to the forty-fourth degree of south latitude, and is about a hundred and fifty miles in length, and seventeen in breadth. The coast is very subject to storms, especially in March, when winter begins. The island has a military governor, who resides at Chacao, the principal harbour of the island, which is well fortified, and capable of making a good defence. Besides Chacao, which has the title of a city, is a town called Calbuco, which is much larger, and is the residence of a corregidor, who is nominated by the president of Chili: it has also regidores and alcaldes annually chosen. It has a parish church, a college of Jesuits, a convent of Franciscans, and another of the fathers of Mercy. The island, which is extremely fertile and produces all the necessaries of life, is well peopled with Spaniards, Mestizos, and Christian Indians.

S E C T. III.

Of Terra Magellanica, the Islands of Terra del Fuego, and Staten Land.

THE country called Terra Magellanica is the last we have to describe on the continent of America. It takes its name from Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese, who first coasted the country before he discovered and passed the straits at its southern extremity, which bear his name. Its northern part borders on Chili, the east and west coast are washed by the Atlantic and Pacific ocean, as it is improperly called, and its southern extremity is washed by the straits of Magellan, the continent gradually lessening till it comes to those straits, where it is very narrow. It extends from the forty-fifth to the fifty-seventh degree thirty minutes north latitude, and from the seventieth to the eighty-fifth degree of west longitude.

Pigafetta, an Italian, the lying author of Magellan's voyage, pretends that in the forty-ninth degree thirty minutes they found people of such a gigantic stature, that a middle sized man could hardly reach their waist with his head; that they were clad with the skins of beasts as monstrous as themselves, and armed with huge bows and arrows of a strength proportionable to their bulk; and that one of them devoured a whole basket full of biscuits every day with his fish and raw flesh, and drank a pail full of wine or water at every meal. Later navigators have, however, entirely overthrown this improbable account: but few of the natives have ever been seen, and these were of the common height; indeed this country appears to be but thinly peopled. We have already given some account of it under the name of Patagonia, by which it is also distinguished, and shall therefore now proceed to the islands Terra del Fuego and Staten Land.

The islands that lie to the south of the straits of Magellan are commonly known by the name of Terra del Fuego, and are thus called from the fires and smoke perceived by the first discoverers of them, occasioned by a volcano in the largest island, the flame of which, tho' not seen in the day-time, is visible at a vast distance in the night, and sometimes throws up great quantities of stones and ashes. These islands, the far largest of which is that properly called Terra del Fuego, extend along the Magellanic coast from east to west about four hundred miles, and were thought contiguous to the continent, till Magellan discovered and sailed through the straits that part them from it. They were likewise then thought to be one continued island, till several navigators after-

wards discovered them to be divided by several narrow channels.

Terra del Fuego is mostly very mountainous and rough, with the tops of the mountains covered with snow; but it is said to have fertile valleys, plains, and pasture-grounds, watered by a multitude of fine springs that flow from the mountains. Between the several islands are capacious bays and roads, in which large fleets may ride in safety. The lands are said to abound with wood and stone, and to be inhabited by a people as white as the Europeans, who, notwithstanding the extreme severity of the climate, go naked, and paint their bodies of several colours.

The Spaniards, who are best acquainted with the straits of Magellan, say, that they are above a hundred leagues in length from the cape of the Virgins at the eastern entrance, to the cape of Desire at the opposite end. The breadth is very various, it being in some places but a league wide, and in others two or more; there are many safe harbours running into the continent, with narrow entrances, and bays that extend quite out of sight, encompassed with high mountains which shelter them on all sides; so that ships may safely ride in them upon the least anchor in any weather.

On the east side of the islands which form this strait is Staten Land, in about the fifty-fifth degree of south latitude; and between it and Terra del Fuego runs strait Le Maire, which is about seven or eight leagues in length.

"I cannot but remark, says the author of Lord Anson's Voyage, that though Terra del Fuego had an aspect extremely barren, yet this island of Staten Land far surpasses it, in the wildness and horror of its appearance; it seeming to be entirely composed of inaccessible rocks, without the least mixture of earth or mould between them. These rocks terminate in a vast number of ragged points, which spire up to a prodigious height, and are all of them covered with everlasting snow; the points themselves are on every side surrounded with frightful precipices, and often overhang in a most astonishing manner; and the hills which bear them are generally separated from each other by narrow clefts, which appear as if the country had been frequently rent by earthquakes; for these chasms are nearly perpendicular, and extend through the substance of the main rocks, almost to their very bottoms: so that nothing can be imagined more savage and gloomy than the whole aspect of this coast."

The passage into the South Sea, or Pacific Ocean, is now generally performed by running through strait Le Maire, by these inhospitable islands, and then doubling Cape Horn, the most southern promontory of Terra del Fuego.

There are several other islands about those just mentioned; but as they are of little consequence, and none of them planted by any European nation, we shall leave this inhospitable climate, and proceed to the small but fine island of Juan Fernandes.

S E C T. IV.

Of the Island of JUAN FERNANDES.

Its Situation, Extent, Soil, and Produce; the Face of the Country; the Courage of the Goats, and a particular Description of the Sea-Lion: with a concise Account of the Lesser Juan Fernandes, or Masa Fuero. Concluding with some Observations on America in general.

THE delightful island of Juan Fernandes is said to have received its name from a Spaniard who formerly procured a grant of it, and resided there some time with a view of settling it, but afterwards changed his mind. It lies in the thirty-third degree forty minutes south latitude, a hundred and ten leagues to the west of the continent of Chili. The island is of an irregular figure; its greatest extent does not exceed fifteen miles, and its greatest breadth is somewhat less than six. The only safe anchoring is on the north side, where are three bays; but the middlemost, known to the English by the name of Cumberland-bay, is the widest, deepest, and in all respects the best. The north part of the island is

composed of high craggy hills, many of them inaccessible, though generally covered with trees. The soil of this part is so loose and shallow, that very large trees on the hills soon perish for want of root, and are then easily overturned. Several of these hills have a peculiar sort of red earth exceeding vermilion in colour, and perhaps on examination might prove useful for many purposes. The trees of the woods on the northern side of the island are most of them aromatics, and of many different sorts: there are none of them so large as to yield any considerable timber, except the myrtle-trees, which are the biggest on the island; but even those will not work to a greater length than forty feet. The top of the myrtle is circular, and appears as uniform and regular as if it had been clipped by art: it bears on its bark an excrescence moss, which in taste and smell resembles the garlic. There is here also the pimento tree, and the cabbage tree, besides a great number of plants of various kinds, and almost all of those which are usually esteemed particularly adapted to the cure of those scorbutic disorders that are contracted by salt diet and long voyages, particularly great quantities of water-creffes and purslain, with excellent wild sorrel, and a vast profusion of turnips and Sicilian radishes. There are likewise many acres of ground covered with oats and clover.

The face of the country, at least of the north part of the island, is extremely singular: the woods that cover most of the steepest hills are free from bushes and underwood, and afford an easy passage through every part of them, and the irregularities of the hills and precipices trace out by their various combinations a great number of romantic valleys; most of which have a stream of the clearest water running through them, that falls in cascades from rock to rock, as the bottom of the valley, by the course of the neighbouring hills, is broken into a sudden sharp descent. In these valleys are some particular spots, where the shade and fragrance of the contiguous woods, the loftiness of the over-hanging rocks, and the transparency and frequent falls of the neighbouring streams, present scenes of such elegance and dignity as would with difficulty be rivalled in any other part of the globe; for here the simple productions of unassisted nature may be said to excel all the fictitious descriptions of the most animated imagination.

We cannot here forbear describing the spot where commodore Anson pitched his tent, which we shall take verbatim from the account of his voyage published under the name of his chaplain. "The piece of ground which he chose was a small lawn, that lay on a little ascent, at the distance of about half a mile from the sea. In the front of his tent there was a large avenue cut thro' the woods to the sea-side, which sloping to the water with a gentle descent, opened a prospect of the bay and the ships at anchor. This lawn was screened behind by a tall wood of myrtle sweeping round it, in the form of a theatre, the slope on which the wood stood rising with a much sharper ascent than the lawn itself, though not so much but that the hills and precipices within land towered up considerably above the tops of the trees, and added to the grandeur of the view. There were besides two streams of crystal water, which ran on the right and left of the tent, within an hundred yards distance, and were shaded by the trees which skirt the lawn on either side, and completed the symmetry of the whole."

With respect to the animals and provisions to be found on this island, it has been represented as abounding with a vast number of goats, which was doubtless true, it being the usual haunt of the Buccaneers and privateers, who formerly frequented those seas. There are two instances, one of a Musquito Indian, and the other of Alexander Selkirk, a Scotman, who were left by their respective ships, and lived for some years alone upon the island, and were consequently no strangers to its produce. Selkirk, who was the last, and from whom Daniel de Foe took the hint of writing his Robinson Crusoe living alone in an island, staid there between four and five years, and, during his continuance, frequently catching more goats than he wanted, sometimes marked their ears and let them go. This was about thirty-two years before com-
modore

modore Anson's arrival in the island; and it is remarkable, that the first goat that was killed by his people at their landing, had his ears slit; whence they concluded, that he had doubtless been formerly under the power of Selkirk. This was an animal of a most venerable aspect, with an exceeding majestic beard, and many other symptoms of antiquity. During their stay in the island, they met with others marked in the same manner, all the males being distinguished by an exuberance of beard, and every other characteristic of great age.

The number of goats are now, however, greatly diminished; for the Spaniards being informed of the advantages which the Buccaneers and privateers derived from the goats flesh, with which they were here furnished, endeavoured to deprive their enemies of this relief, by extirpating the breed. For this purpose they put on shore great numbers of large dogs, who have increased so fast, that they have destroyed all the goats in the accessible part of the country; so that there now remain only a few among the crags and precipices, where the dogs cannot follow them. These are divided into separate herds of twenty or thirty each, which inhabit distinct fastnesses, and never mingle with each other. The author of commodore Anson's voyage mentions a remarkable dispute between a herd of these animals and a number of dogs, which we cannot forbear repeating. Going in their boat into the eastern bay, they perceived some dogs running very eagerly upon the foot, and being willing to discover what game they were after, they lay upon their oars for some time to view them, and at last saw them take to a hill, where looking a little farther they observed upon the ridge of it an herd of goats, which seemed drawn up for their reception. There was a very narrow path skirted on each side by precipices, on which the master of the herd posted himself fronting the enemy, the rest of the goats being all behind, where the ground was more open. As this spot was inaccessible by any other path, except where this champion had placed himself, the dogs, though they ran up hill with great alacrity, yet when they came within about twenty yards of him did not dare to encounter him, as he would infallibly have driven them down the precipice; but giving over the chase quietly laid themselves down, panting at a great rate. As at present it is rare for goats to fall in their way, they are supposed to live principally upon young seals. Upon this island are found a great number of the last mentioned amphibious animals, which mariners usually eat with pleasure, and compare their flesh to lamb. But there is another animal of the same amphibious kind, called a sea-lion, that has some resemblance to a seal, but is much larger, and its flesh has some resemblance to that of beef. They are in size, when full grown, from twelve to twenty feet in length, and from eight to fifteen in circumference; and are so extremely fat, that having cut through the skin, which is about an inch in thickness, there is at least a foot of fat before you come at either lean or bones. They are likewise very full of blood; for if they are deeply wounded in a dozen places, there will instantly gush out as many fountains of blood, spouting to a considerable distance. Their skins are covered with short hair of a light dun colour; but their tails and their fins, which on shore serve them for feet, are almost black: their fins, or feet, are divided at the ends like fingers, the web which joins them not reaching to the extremities, and each of these fingers is furnished with a nail. The head is small in proportion to the rest of the body, and terminates in a snout. They have a row of large pointed teeth in each jaw, two-thirds of which are in sockets; but the others, being the most hard and solid, are without them. He has whiskers like those of a cat; has small eyes and ears; and the nostrils, which are also very small, are the only parts destitute of hair. They have a distant resemblance to an over-grown seal, though in some particulars there is a manifest difference between them, especially in the males: these have a large snout or trunk hanging down five feet six inches below the end of the upper jaw, which the females have not; and this renders the sexes easily to be distinguished from each other; and, besides, the males are of a much larger size. These animals divide their time equally between the land

and sea, continuing at sea all the summer, and coming on shore at the setting in of the winter, where they reside during that whole season. In this interval they engender, and bring forth their young, having generally two at a birth, which they suckle with their milk, they being at first about the size of a full-grown seal. While the sea-lions continue on shore they feed on the grass and verdure that grows near the banks of the fresh-water streams; and when not employed in feeding, sleep in herds in the most miry places they can find. As they seem of a very lethargic disposition, and are not easily awakened, each herd places some of their males at a distance, who never fail to alarm them, when any one attempts to molest, or even to approach them, which they do by making a very loud noise, sometimes grunting like hogs, and at others snorting like horses in full vigour. The males have often furious battles, when they gore each other with their teeth, and cover one another with blood: the author we have last quoted mentions one whom they named the bashaw, who generally lay surrounded with a seraglio of females, which no other male dared to approach, and who had not acquired that envied pre-eminence without many bloody contests, of which the marks still remained, in the numerous scars that were visible in every part of his body.

There are but few birds, and those chiefly hawks, blackbirds, owls, and humming-birds. But the bay is most plentifully stored with the greatest variety of fish, particularly cod of a prodigious size, which are in no less plenty than on the banks of Newfoundland, also cavallies, gopers, large breams, silver fish, maids, congers of a peculiar kind, and above all a black fish, much esteemed, called by some a chimney-sweeper, in shape resembling a carp, besides excellent cray fish that generally weigh eight or nine pounds, and are of an exquisite taste. There are likewise a great quantity of dog-fish, and large sharks.

The Spaniards have generally mentioned two islands under the name of Juan Fernandes, styling them the Greater and the Less; the Greater being the island just described; and the Less being still more distant from the continent, has been also called Maza Fuero, and is about twenty-two leagues west by south of the Greater Juan Fernandes. It is covered with trees, and has several fine falls of water pouring down its sides into the sea. This place has at present one advantage beyond the island of Juan Fernandes; for it abounds with goats who are far from being shy, and reside there in great tranquillity, the Spaniards not having thought the island considerable enough to be frequented by their enemies, and have not therefore been solicitous to destroy the provisions upon it. The island also abounds with sea-lions and seals.

We have now finished our description of America; in the parts subject to Great Britain, to France, and to the United Provinces, we have seen rich plantations abounding with the necessaries and even the luxuries of life, the source of an immense commerce, furnishing Europe with their superfluities and valuable productions, and employing not only a prodigious number of ships, and thereby promoting navigation and giving employment to many thousand hands, but producing an immense trade in the mother countries, by employing there an infinite number of people in different manufactures, to supply America with the goods of Europe. Thus giving life to trade, and spirit to industry, they produce a circulation that is of infinite advantage to both the mother country and its colonies, while their interests being reciprocal, ought to draw closely the knot of union which at such a distance subsists between them.

On the other hand, Portugal and Spain, and particularly the latter, with countries immensely rich, extensive, and capable of rendering those nations extremely powerful, have been far from answering that purpose. With respect to Spain, whatever may be said to the contrary, the discovery of America was the greatest misfortune that could have happened: it has drained, and continues still to drain Spain of its most useful inhabitants; while the preposterous conduct of that court in preventing the people of other nations freely settling in their American dominions, and the multitude of monas-

teries and nunneries in every city and every town prevent the increase of their own, and must render the regions of Spanish America thinly peopled. British America has made the manufactures of Great Britain flourish:

Spanish America, with all its gold and silver, has rendered the Spaniards too proud to apply themselves to manufactures, and consequently poor.

C H A P. XIII.

Of the New Discoveries made in the PACIFIC OCEAN.

S E C T. I.

North America found by the Russians to extend westward almost to the Coast of Tartary. A general Account of another Continent to the South.

WE have now, according to the plan we proposed in the beginning of this work, proceeded from east to west, described the countries of Asia, Africa, Europe, and America, and have entered the South Sea, or Pacific Ocean, which is of amazing extent, it being upwards of ten thousand miles in breadth, and washes at the same time the coast of Peru and Chili, and that of Japan, China, and Tartary. It had its name from being supposed free from storms and tempests; but very unjustly, for in particular seasons of the year they are perhaps more violent in this sea than in any other. It is also called the South Sea from the Spaniards discovering it by crossing the isthmus which divides North and South America, by passing from north to south.

Though this sea, after its first discovery, was imagined to extend from the north to the south pole, yet it has been found that it is in a manner encompassed by two continents, which were for a long time not known to have any existence, besides innumerable islands. The continent on the north is supposed to be that of America, which extends almost as far to the west as Kamtschatka. By the discoveries made by the Russians, this country has been coasted from the fifty-second to the sixtieth degree north latitude, and extends from the south-west to the north-east side about thirty-seven degrees in length; but whether it joins to the west side of North America, or is separated from it by a channel, or by one crossing through it into Hudson's-bay, has not yet been determined.

This part of America enjoys a much better climate than the coast of the north-east side of Asia, though equally near the sea, and every where full of high mountains continually covered with snow; for the mountains on the north-east of Asia are every where rocky and ragged, have no valuable metals, nor scarcely any trees or herbs, except in the valleys, where grows only some small shrubby wood and hardy plants. The American mountains, on the contrary, in the neighbourhood of Siberia are close, and their surface not like those covered with moss, but shaded from the bottom to their tops with thick and fine woods. In this new discovered part of America are found a sort of raspberries of a very extraordinary size and fine taste, besides honey-suckles, cranberries, blackberries, and bilberries in great plenty; but as the coast has only been visited, what fruits are to be found in the heart of the country is unknown. Among the birds have been discovered ten species different from the European, besides swans, quails, plovers, Greenland pigeons, cranes, sea-gulls, and magpies. The fish enter the rivers of America earlier than at Kamtschatka, and great plenty of them has been seen.

The natives who have been discovered by the Russians are plump, broad shouldered, of a middling size, with straight black hair that hangs loose; their faces are flat and swarthy, and they have black eyes and thick lips. They wear shirts which hang below the knee, and are girded about the waist with leather strings, and they have trowsers made of the skins of seals. In short, they

greatly resemble the Kamtschatdales; they use bows and arrows, and have boats twelve feet long and two broad, sharp both at the head and stern, and are formed of a frame of wood and skins, which seem to be those of seals, dyed of a cherry colour. They are made much in the same manner as those we have described in the treating of Greenland and Hudson's-bay; for the seat is round, two yards from the stern, and sewed about with guts, which, with the help of leather thongs laced round the edges, can be drawn together, and opened like a purse. The American sitting in this place, stretches out his legs, and draws the skin tight about his body. These boats will live in the most stormy weather, though they are so light that they may be easily carried by a single person. They receive strangers very kindly, converse in a friendly manner, with their eyes fixed upon them, treat them with much civility, and make them presents of whales fat.

Hence it is not improbable, that the northern parts of America were originally peopled from Siberia; for though it should be granted that America and Asia were never joined, yet these two parts of the globe lie so near each other that the impossibility of the inhabitants of Asia going over to America, especially as the number of islands lying between them made the passage more easy, cannot be maintained. The curious reader will soon see sufficient evidence of a southern continent sloping away from the Spice Islands towards the continent of South America, by which Mexico, Peru, and Chili, might probably be first peopled.

It has been observed by the judicious compiler of the improved edition of Harris's collection of Voyages, that Antony Van Deman's Land, New Holland, and Carpentaria make one continent, from which New Zealand appears to be separated by a strait, and is part of another continent, answering to Africa, as this of which we are now speaking, plainly does to America. This continent reaches from the equinoctial to the forty-fourth degree of south latitude, and sixty-six degrees from east to west; whence the longest day in the most northern part must be twelve hours, and in the southern about fifteen hours, or something more; extending from the first to the seventh climate, which shews its situation to be extremely happy; and as to the produce and commodities of this country in general, there is the greatest reason in the world to believe that they are extremely rich and valuable, because the finest and richest countries in the known world all lie within the same latitude, and indeed this is more than conjecture; for some part of it we are told by the first discoverers abound with gold, silver, pearls, nutmegs, mace, ginger, and sugar-canes of an extraordinary size.

It ought not to be omitted, that there are an infinite number of islands near the continent, and others scattered at a considerable distance from it, many of which are placed between that part which has been discovered and America.

It will be proper just to take notice of the several parts of this country that have been mentioned, and we shall begin with New Holland, a very extensive tract of land, which, as Dampier observes, joins neither to Asia, Africa, nor America, though it extends from the tenth to the thirty-first degree of south latitude, or above twelve thousand miles, and how much farther it stretches to the southward is not certainly known. The Dutch, who are

are much better acquainted with these countries than any other nation in Europe, from their possessing the Spice Islands in its neighbourhood; but have with great care endeavoured to conceal their discoveries, though they have given names to several parts of the country. New Holland has, however, been visited by several other Europeans, and particularly by Dampier, who observes, that part which he saw consists of low even land, with sandy banks next the sea. In one part most of the trees are dragon-trees, which are pretty large, the gum distilling from knots or cracks in the trunk. In another part were various other sorts of trees; but none of them above ten feet high, their bodies about three feet round, and five or six feet before you come to the branches. Some of the trees had a fragrant smell, and were red within the bark; most of them had blossoms or berries, the former of which were of several colours, as red, white, and yellow; but mostly blue, and these had generally a very fragrant smell. There were likewise flowers of several kinds growing on the ground, some of which were very beautiful, and of such kinds as he had never seen before.

The land-animals he saw here were only a sort of racoons, differing from those of the West Indies, and a kind of guanos that were extremely ugly. Of the land-fowls he saw none of the larger birds but eagles, and five or six sorts of small birds, which sung with a great variety of fine shrill notes. The water-fowl were ducks, curlews, crab-catchers, pelicans, and some which our author never saw before. The natives, according to Dampier, were tall, straight-bodied, with small long limbs, large heads, round foreheads, flat noses, pretty full lips, and wide mouths: their hair black, short and curled like those of the negroes, and the colour of their skins very black: they had no sort of cloaths, but the rhind of a tree tied like a girdle about their waist, and a bundle of long grass, or the bough of a tree full of leaves, fastened under their girdle to hide their nakedness. But the people of distant parts of the country are very differently described.

Van Diemen's land is a very extensive country, discovered by Abel Jansen Tasman, of which we have no other account worthy of notice but the extent of the coast, which he discovered in the forty-second degree twenty-five minutes south latitude, and in the hundred and thirty-third degree fifty minutes east from London; he steered east-south-east along the coast to the height of forty-four degrees south latitude, where the land runs away east and afterwards north-east-by-north. In the forty-third degree ten minutes south latitude, and in the longitude of a hundred and thirty-seven degrees fifty minutes east from London, he anchored in a bay to which he gave the name of Frederick Henry. The trees in this country where he observed them did not grow very close, nor were incumbered with bushes or under-wood. From these trees he gathered some gum and lac.

The land of Australia delle Spiritu Santo lies in about the fifteenth degree of south latitude, and according to Pedro Fernandez de Quiros, by whom it was discovered, extends from the hundred and fiftieth degree of longitude east from London to the hundred and thirtieth degree of west longitude from the same meridian, which is eighty degrees, or about four thousand six hundred miles. But with respect to this extent he seems to speak mostly from conjecture, he having not actually discovered the whole coast he mentions. In several memorials he presented to his Catholic majesty, he particularly describes the plants, trees, beasts, birds, and fishes of the country; mentions its producing a variety of spices, and excellent sugar-canes, with a great deal of gold and silver. He describes several commodious harbours, and extols the salubrity of the air, which he declares to be such, that notwithstanding he had a considerable body of men, who, like himself, were strangers to the climate, yet though they were exposed to continual labour in the open air, and often to the cold

dews, while hot, none of them were taken sick. As for the natives, he found them strong, healthy, and many of them of a great age.

New Guinea, the country we shall next describe, extends from Cape Mabo, in about fifty minutes south latitude, and a hundred and six degrees thirty minutes east longitude from London, to King William's Cape, in the sixth degree thirty minutes south latitude, and about a hundred and forty-three degrees of longitude: thus the coast extends from the north-west to the south-east; but how far it reaches to the southward is still unknown.

This country, which was discovered in 1529 by Saavedra, received from him the name of Terra de Papuas; but Van Schouten, the Dutch discoverer, gave it the name of New Guinea. Some distinguish it into three different parts; calling that which lies from the hundred and forty-third to the hundred and thirty-fifth degree of longitude New Guinea: to a narrow slip of land which extends from thence to Cape Mabo, they give the name of Terra de Papos; and that which lies on the south of it, round a large gulf, between the eighth and fifteenth degree of south latitude, they term Carpentaria, or Carpenter's Land, from a Dutch captain by whom it was discovered: but it is not certainly known whether what is here called a gulf is not a strait.

Commodore Roggewein observes, that the continent of New Guinea appeared to him very high land, extremely full of plants and trees; so that in sailing four hundred leagues along the coast he did not observe one barren spot; and from thence thinks it extremely probable, that it abounds with many rich commodities. He adds, that persons worthy of credit assured him, that some of the free burghesses in the Moluccas go annually to New Guinea, where they exchange small pieces of iron for nutmegs. But the best account of New Guinea in general is that published by Dampier, who first discovered it on New-year's-day 1700, in between the third and fourth degrees of south latitude, where it was high even land, well clothed with tall flourishing trees that appeared very green, and afforded a pleasant prospect. In the woods he found several sorts of fruit, such as he had never seen before; but he describes none of them. One of his men shot a stately fowl, as big as the largest dunghill cock, of a sky colour, with a white spot on the middle of each wing, about which were spots of red: its head was crowned with a bunch of long feathers that appeared very beautiful; it had strong legs with reddish claws, and its crop was filled with small berries. Its nest was in a tree, where was found an egg as large as that of a hen. The yawl, which was sent another way for water, returned at night, and brought a wooden fishig, very ingeniously made: this they found by a small barbecue, used for drying fish, where they also saw a shattered canoe; but saw none of the inhabitants.

A little to the northward of this place captain Dampier found a stream of good water, where a boat could come up to it, and a ship might anchor close to the shore. The captain going ashore here, found a small cove, where he beheld two barbecues, which appeared not to be above two months standing; and the spars being cut with some sharp instrument, it seemed as if the natives had iron.

Schouten, and other navigators, who visited different parts of this continent, conceived very high ideas of it, and have represented it as one of the richest in the world: but they were not able to penetrate far into it; for they found the country extremely populous, and the inhabitants of a martial disposition, and generally speaking, well armed.

Thus imperfect are the accounts of this continent, though a number of navigators of different nations have fallen in with it. We shall now conclude with mentioning some of the islands in the Pacific Ocean that have been best described.

SECT. II.

Of the most remarkable of those Islands in the Pacific Ocean that have been discovered by the Europeans, particularly Pasch Island, Nova Britannia, Gerrat Dennis's Isle, Anthony Cove's Island, Moa, Arimoo, the Thousand Islands, the Isle of Recreation, Bowman's Islands, Mischievous Island, the Brothers, the Sister, Cocoa, Hope, and Hoorn Islands: with some Account of their Inhabitants.

PASCHAL, or Easter Island, is situated in the twenty-eighth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and is supposed to be in about the hundred and second degree of west longitude from London; it received its name from commodore Roggewein, who discovered it on Easter-day 1722. The commodore, who had three ships with him, sent the smallest to examine the country, which brought word that it seemed very fertile and well inhabited, and the next day an Indian came off to them in his canoe. They made signs to him to come on board, which he readily did, and was well received; for as he was naked, they gave him a piece of cloth, pieces of coral, beads, and other toys, all which he hung about his neck. His body was painted all over with a variety of figures; his natural complexion appeared to be a dark brown, and his ears were excessively large and long. He was tall, robust, and had an agreeable countenance: he was brisk, active, and lively. They gave him a glass of wine to drink, which he threw away in a manner that surprized them. They next clothed him from head to foot, with which he was displeased, and appeared awkward and uneasy. They gave him victuals, but he could not be prevailed on to use either a knife or fork. As they found it impossible to come to an anchor that day, they resolved to send him ashore, allowing him to keep what he had got, in order to encourage others; but what is really surprizing, the poor creature had no mind to go, and they had much ado to get him into his canoe.

The next morning by break of day they entered a gulph, and many thousand of the inhabitants came down to receive them, bringing with them vast quantities of fowls and roots, with which many came on board, while the rest ran about on the shore. The next morning the Dutch prepared to land, when the friendly Indian who had been with them before came on board a second time, bringing with him many of his countrymen, who, to make themselves welcome, had loaded their canoes with plenty of live fowls, and roots dressed after their manner. Among them was a man perfectly white, in whose ears hung round white pendants as big as one's fist. He had an air extremely devout, and seemed to be one of their priests. An hundred and fifty Dutch seamen now landing, these innocent and inoffensive people, probably filled with curiosity, crowded thick upon them, and some of them took hold of their arms; on which the Dutch thinking themselves obliged to make way by force, had the rashness and cruelty to fire upon them, by which means many of them were killed, and among them the friendly Indian who had been twice on board. This dispersed the Indians, and frightened them almost out of their wits; yet in a few minutes they recovered from their astonishment and terror, and assembling again, did not approach nearer than ten yards, where they probably imagined they might be safe from the effects of that thunder and lightning they had seen discharged from the muskets; yet howled and made dismal lamentations. They now brought vast plenty of provisions, and that they might leave no means untried to pacify their invaders, we are told, that both the men, women, and children soon came before them holding branches of palm in sign of peace, and by the most humble postures expressed their desire of mollifying these strangers. They even shewed them their women, and made them understand that they were at their disposal. The Dutch, softened by these tokens of humility and deep submission, repented their rashness, and, instead of doing them any farther harm, made them a present of a piece of painted cloth sixty yards long; and of many beads, and small

looking-glasses, with which they were extremely pleased. As the Indians saw that the Dutch were now disposed to treat them like friends, they brought them five hundred live fowl at once, like the barn-door fowls of Europe, with a great quantity of red and white roots, and potatoes, which these people use instead of bread. They also gave them some hundreds of sugar-canes, and abundance of Indian figs, the pulp of which was as sweet as honey. The Dutch saw in this island no other animals than birds of all sorts; but thought it probable that in the heart of the country were cattle and beasts of various kinds; because when they shewed the Indians some hogs on board their ships, they let them know by signs that they had seen such animals before.

Every tribe or family seemed to have a separate village, composed of huts that were from forty to about sixty feet long, in which they had few moveables, and those of no great value, except some red and white coverlets that served them when walking for cloaths, and when sleeping for quilts: the stuff was as soft to the touch as silk, and to all appearance was of their own manufacture. They make use of earthen pots to dress their meat in, and have round their villages little plantations staked out, and very neatly divided.

Nova Britannia, or New Britain, was for some time thought to be contiguous to New Guinea, till captain Dampier found it to be an island. It lies forty miles to the eastward of the easternmost part of New Guinea. The northernmost point is in the second degree thirty minutes north latitude, and the southernmost in the sixth degree thirty minutes south latitude, and it extends about five degrees sixteen minutes in length; appearing to be for the most part high land mixed with valleys, and every where abounding with large and stately trees. The mountains and lowlands are pleasantly mixed with woodlands and savannas, and on the sides of the hills are many large plantations of cleared lands. The country is well inhabited by a strong well-limbed people, of a very dark complexion.

Round Nova Britannia are several smaller islands, some of them full of cocoa-nut trees, particularly on the north-east side; among these are Gerret Dennis's isle, which is about fourteen or fifteen leagues round, high, mountainous, and very woody; but the sides of the hills are thick set with plantations, and the bays by the sea-side well stored with cocoa-nut trees, intermixed with a few houses.

This island is very populous, the natives are like the former, black, strong, well-limbed, with large heads, and their hair, which curls naturally, is shaved into several forms, and dyed of various colours. They disfigure themselves by painting, and are represented as deforming their faces by thrusting something through the nose, which comes out on each side by the cheek bone. They have also great holes in their ears, stretched open by the same preposterous kind of fancied ornament as that in their noses. Their weapons are chiefly lances, swords, slings, and some bows and arrows. They use proas, somewhat resembling those we have described in treating of the island of Tinian; but the ends, which serve for the head and stern, are higher than the rest, and carved into many devices, as a fowl, a fish, or the head of a man; these they manage very dexterously with neat paddles.

Antony Cove's island, as it is called in the Dutch draughts, lies in the third degree twenty-five minutes south latitude, and is a high land about four or five leagues round, very woody; it is full of plantations upon the sides of the hills, and near the bays are abundance of cocoa-nut trees. On the south-east part of it are three or four small woody islands, one rising high, and others low and flat, all covered with cocoa-nut trees, and other wood. These are all well inhabited. On the north is another island of an indifferent height, and a little larger than Anthony Cove's island. Some canoes from this last island came aboard captain Dampier's ship; they had proas made of one tree, the hollow part cut out, and had out-layers on each side; the shore was covered with men, who went along as he steered by the coast. To three of the natives who came aboard he gave each a knife,

a knife, a small looking-glass, and a string of beads. He shewed them pompions and cocoa-nut shells, making signs to them to bring some on board, and they gave him three cocoa nuts out of one of the canoes. He shewed them nutmegs, and by their signs he guessed they had some on the island. He also shewed them some gold dust, which they seemed to be acquainted with, calling out, Maneel, maneel, and pointing toward the land.

The islands of Moa and Arimoa lie in the third degree of latitude. The latter is the biggest of the two, but they are both very well peopled, and abound with cocoanuts, Indian figs, and various kinds of roots. The inhabitants have a prodigious number of canoes, and go well armed with bows and arrows; and this is said to be the case even of the women and children. Moa is not so populous as Arimoa, though both islands are equally pleasant and fertile.

To the westward of the islands last described, the sea is so very full of islands, that commodore Roggewein and his people finding it difficult, if not impossible, to count them, gave them the name of the Thousand islands. The inhabitants are negroes, of a short squat make, and their heads covered with thick curled hair. They all go naked, except having a kind of belt, adorned with what they esteem ornaments, fastened round their waist; only some of them have bracelets, and others wear on their heads a kind of light straw-hats adorned with the feathers of the birds of Paradise. They are represented by commodore Roggewein as bold, mischievous, and untractable. They are said to have a bit of stick of the size of a tobacco-pipe, and of the length of one's finger, which they run through the gristle of the nose, and this they are said to look upon as a means of making them appear fierce and terrible to their enemies.

The isle of Recreation is in the sixteenth degree of south latitude, and about the hundred and forty-seventh degree of west longitude. It is about twelve leagues in extent, and extremely fertile, it producing great quantities of trees, but more especially palms, cocoas, and iron-wood. The Dutch thought they had reason to believe, that in the heart of the country were rich mines. The inhabitants are of a middle size, robust, and active; they are warlike, and have the character of being very treacherous, especially the women; for seizing an opportunity, they killed several Dutchmen. Their hair is black, long, and shining, which is chiefly owing to their anointing it with the oil of cocoas. They paint their bodies, like the natives of Pasch island, and the men fasten round the waist a kind of net-work, which they draw between their legs, and tuck up behind. But the women are covered with a kind of mantle of their own manufacture, which nearly resembles silk, and on their necks and wrists they wear strings of pearls.

Bowman's islands are situated in the twelfth degree south latitude, and in the hundred and fifty-second degree west longitude from London. They appear very beautiful at a distance, are well planted with fruit-trees of all sorts, and produce herbs, corn, and roots in great plenty; the land towards the coast being laid out in large and regular plantations. When commodore Roggewein approached these islands, the Indians, on seeing the ships, came in their boats, and brought them fish, cocoa-nuts, Indian figs, and other refreshments; in return for which the Dutch gave them, as usual, small looking-glasses, strings of beads, and other toys. They soon found that these islands were very populous; for many thousand men and women, the former generally armed with bows and arrows, came down to the shore to look at them. Among the rest they saw a majestic personage, who, from the dress he wore, and the honours that were paid him, they easily discovered to be the sovereign of the nation. He stepped into a canoe, accompanied by a young woman who sat close by his side. His canoe was instantly surrounded by a vast number of other vessels, that crowded about it, and seemed intended for a guard. All the inhabitants of these islands are whites, and of the same complexion as the Europeans, except their appearing sun-burnt. They seem to be a very innocent and harmless people; they are brisk and lively, and treat each

other with visible marks of civility, discovering nothing wild or savage in their behaviour. Instead of shewing the marks of terror at the arrival of the Dutch, they expressed the utmost joy and satisfaction, treating them with a kindness and respect not to be described; they even shewed a deep concern, when they perceived that in spite of all their care to oblige and serve those strangers, they could not prevail on them to stay among them. Their bodies were not painted like those of the other people the Dutch had seen before; but were handsomely clothed from the girdle downwards, with a sort of silk fringes, neatly folded. On their heads they wore hats of a handsome sort of stuff, which were very large, in order to keep off the heat of the sun, and about their necks they had strings of beautiful odoriferous flowers. The land appeared exquisitely charming, every one of the islands being agreeably diversified with hills and valleys, and seemed as beautiful as imagination can paint. Some of these islands were ten, some fifteen, and others twenty miles in compass. Each family, or tribe, seemed to have its particular district, and to form a separate government. The land in each was laid out in neat and regular plantations.

Between the fifteenth and sixteenth degrees of south latitude are four islands, each of them four or five leagues in compass, with a continued chain of steep rocks between them. These islands are so close together, that there is hardly room for a ship to pass between them; and there one of commodore Roggewein's ships was lost; whence the island on which it was wrecked was called Mischievous island; the two next to it were named the Brothers, and the fourth the Sister. All four were covered with a verdure inexpressibly charming, and abound with fine tall trees, especially cocoas. The herbs were so refreshing and salutary, that the ship's crew, many of whom were ill of the scurvy, were surprisingly recovered by them. They likewise found there a prodigious plenty of cockles, muscles, mother of pearl, and pearl oysters. These islands are extremely low, so that some parts of them must be frequently overflowed; but the inhabitants are well provided against such accidents, since they have not only good canoes, but stout barks, with cables and sails. The natives are said to be of an extraordinary size; their bodies are painted of various colours, and they are armed with long pikes or lances.

Cocoa island lies in the sixteenth degree ten minutes south latitude, and had its name from its abounding extremely in cocoa trees. It is properly a high mountain; and two leagues to the south of it is another long, but low island, to which Schouten, from the treachery of the inhabitants, gave the name of Traitors island. Each of them seems to be under the government of a particular chief, or king. Hope island is seated about fifty leagues to the west of these, and was thus called by the Dutch from their hoping to get fresh water there: but it being encompassed with rocks, against which the sea beats with great fury, they could not land there. It produces cocoa and other trees. The island is covered with hills, and there were seen a large village, with several houses on the coast.

Hoorn islands lie to the north-west in about the fourteenth degree of south latitude. The inhabitants, who are of a yellowish brown complexion, are tall, lusty, strong, well proportioned, swift of foot, and very expert at swimming and diving. They are very ingenious, and take a pride in adorning their hair. The women are, however, very homely, ill-shaped, and very short: their breasts are extremely disagreeable, and hang, like leathern bags, down to their bellies; yet they are very lascivious. These people are governed by a king, or chief, to whom they seem to pay very great respect. They have no notion of trade, and though they gave the Dutch many hogs, and other provisions, it proceeded merely from their humanity and good-nature; however, the Dutch proportioned the presents they made them to the provisions they received. These people are said neither to till, sow, nor perform any other labour; but gather only what the earth spontaneously produces, as cocoa-nuts, and some other fruits.

Besides the islands we have here mentioned, many others have been discovered, and a great number of them are scattered over the Pacific Ocean. To conclude, this great continent thus imperfectly discovered, and whose limits are unknown, with the numerous islands in this remote part of the globe, will, perhaps, in future ages become the settlements of some European or American power; and probably may in part become subject to Spanish America, if ever that should be separated from the dominions of Spain. Whenever that event, or any

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other of a like nature, takes place, may the lives, the liberties, the possessions, and the happiness of the poor inhabitants be secured; and these now almost unknown parts of the earth unacquainted with the ravages, the murders, and desolation that great part of America has suffered! Mean while this continent, and the numerous islands in the Pacific Ocean, remain a fund of geographical knowledge and of natural history, concealed from the view of Europe; but which new and more perfect discoveries will at length reveal.

The END of the SECOND VOLUME.

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